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American Civilization and Literature
— Fourth-Year License Level —

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List of Abbreviations

KKK: Ku Klux Klan

Preface

Students in this course will have the opportunity to interact with significant political, cultural, social, and economic processes that defined the United States of America's 19th-century evolution. In addition to examining the significant events that shaped American history, the lectures and tutorials will critically analyze the various schools of thought, ideologies, powerful leaders or groups, political figures, militants, and cultural movements that greatly influenced the development of modern-day America. When discussing each subject and theme, the emphasis will be on the elements and occasions that led to America maturing into the strongest nation in the world today. As a result, the recommended lectures—which are frequently combined—are discussed in order to highlight their significance in forming both individual and societal identity in the United States of America.

Part I: American Civilization

1. General Overview of the Course

This course is a space of encounter between students and key political, cultural, social, and economic changes and developments that characterized the evolution of the United States of America during the 19th century. It casts light on the challenges America went through following its independence, caused by the flaws of the Articles of Confederation that led to the creation of the U.S. Constitution, which established a new governing system called the federal system in which political power is divided between the national government and state governments. Thereafter, it moves to throw light on the challenges America witnessed under the governments of Presidents George Washington and John Adams. Then, this course brings to light America's westward expansion that led to significant territorial acquisitions, thereby broadening the territory of the United States from the Atlantic coasts to the Pacific ones. Afterward, it tackles one of the darkest episodes of American history, which is slavery and the American Civil War, by highlighting the pivotal role and skillful leadership of Abraham Lincoln in emancipating slaves and keeping America one united nation. Thereafter, it sheds light on the Reconstruction Era and the arsenal of laws made by Congress to readmit the Southern states to the Union, in addition to the laws passed in favor of the African Americans. This course ends by bringing to light the Gilded Age, during which the United States witnessed rapid industrial and economic growth. In a nutshell, these and other topics of 19th-century America will be covered in this course during the first semester.

2. Objectives of the Course

By the end of this course, students will be able to:

- Understand the flaws of the Articles of Confederation.
- Understand federalism and the system of checks and balances.
- Comprehend the Basics of the Bill of Rights.
- Fathom the ideological differences between the Federalist and Anti-Federalist parties.

- Comprehend the reasons behind the outbreak of the Civil War.
- Bring to light the effective role of Abraham Lincoln in ending slavery and keeping America one united nation.
- Shed light on the measures put in place in favor of the freedmen.
- Comprehend the essence of issues addressed by progressives.

3. Prerequisites

Students have to be acquainted with the following notions:

- The Puritans
- The thirteen colonies
- The American Revolutionary War
- The reasons that pushed Americans to revolt against the British crown
- The Articles of Confederation

4. Content of the Course

- Lecture 1: From the Articles of Confederation to the U.S. Constitution
- Lecture 2: Ratifying the Constitution
- Lecture 3: America Under George Washington's Government
- Lecture 4: America Under John Adams' Presidency
- Lecture 5: The Westward Expansion
- Lecture 6: The American Civil War
- Lecture 8: The Reconstruction Era
- Lecture 9: The Gilded Age

5. Evaluation Mode

The evaluation mode is mainly summative: students will have to take two exams, one at the end of the first semester and the other at the end of the second semester. Besides, a formative assessment is integrated during the year to identify students' weaknesses and strengths, such as tasking students with preparing short/ brief presentations on key concepts/events. Furthermore, the assessment of students will take into account their attendance, participation, tasks, and activities they are asked to perform during their classes or prepare at home.

Lecture 1: From the Articles of Confederation to the U.S. Constitution

Learning Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the flaws of the Articles of Confederation, the federal system, the powers of the three branches of the federal government, and the system of checks and balances.
Key Concepts	The Articles of Confederation, the U.S. Constitution, federalism, checks and balances.
Teaching Strategy	lecturing.
Teaching Material	Maps, videos, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

Following its independence on July 5, 1783, the United States of America went through a transitional period characterized by the lack of order owing to the flaws of the Articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union, which was considered the first constitution for the fledgling United States of America. Emanating from the wartime emergency, six versions of the Articles of Confederation were drafted and reviewed by a Congressional Committee before adopting the final version and submitting it to the states for ratification in November 1777 (History.Com editors, 2023). However, due to fears of a strong central government along with extensive land claims by the American states, the ratification of these Articles was obstructed till March 1, 1781, thereby labeling the union of the thirteen American states “The United States of America”.

Under the Articles of Confederation, the new country was very weak owing to a number of defects. To start with, the U.S. central government, represented by the Second Continental Congress, lacked the required power to enforce laws and maintain order all over the American territory. As a matter of fact, the Articles of Confederation granted the central government certain rights and duties but little power to make them effective, thus leading the country into a chaotic situation following independence in 1783. These flaws in the Articles of Confederation were caused by the framers’ obsession with avoiding establishing a tyrannical central government that may abuse its powers, along with their insistence on ensuring democracy

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through granting more rights and liberties to the individual states and their people. Therefore, the Congress generated by the Articles of Confederation lacked the requisite power to coerce the states to work together within the same union and national framework. This manifested in the second article of the Articles of Confederation, which provided that all the states maintain their sovereignty, freedom, and independence:

Each state retains its sovereignty, freedom and independence, and every Power, Jurisdiction and right, which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States, in Congress assembled. (Maggs, 2017, p. 432)

Accordingly, after independence, the thirteen states behaved much like independent states or countries rather than states that belonged to the same union or country, thereby resulting in the founding of a very loose union.

2. Features of Chaos

The chaos and lack of order America witnessed following the independence touched different aspects and had grave effects on the overall American well-being. It affected the U.S. economy, political life, military, and the international sphere. Politically speaking, the new nation lacked an executive branch under the Articles of Confederation; in other words, there was no president for the new country to be responsible for enforcing laws and speaking in the name of all Americans because all states retained their sovereignty. This led all states to ignore the central government represented by the Continental Congress, which was powerless and unable to enforce laws and maintain order. Additionally, there was no judicial system for organizing national courts all over the thirteen American states (U.S. Department of State, 2004, p. 6).

The Articles of Confederation also established an unbalanced governing system. The Second Continental Congress was referred to as the central or national government. It held power over foreign policy and loans, launching wars, and regulating money and Indian trade (Benson et al., 2009). Each state was represented by two to seven delegates who had to be sent to Congress yearly, but all states had the same power in Congress, with one vote for each. Hence, the required majority to pass bills and laws was seven votes, though a majority of nine states is required to decide the most sensitive issues, and a unanimous consent was required for amendments to the Articles of Confederation (Benson et al., 2009). Accordingly, the Articles

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of Confederation reflected the conflict between states as it did not take into account the differences between the thirteen colonies in terms of the number of the population of each state.

Militarily, the central government, or rather the Second Continental Congress was given the right to raise an army and navy, but could only ask the states for soldiers and sailors. Furthermore, Congress lacked two other key powers, the power to impose and collect taxes and the power to regulate commerce, which are paramount for any government to run public affairs, thereby causing serious problems to the national government. For instance, when Congress wanted to pay debts owed to France, some states refused to pay money (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 32). Consequently, chaos and the lack of order characterized the United States of America in the aftermath of its independence to the extent that the then-British King George III contended that American states could not govern themselves and thus "would soon be begging to rejoin the British Empire" (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 32). This worried Americans, pushing them to think about finding solutions to this big issue.

3. The Constitutional Convention

The spread of chaos among the newly independent states cost the country heavily as it started losing the respect of foreign nations, including France. The latter, though being the ally of the USA during the Revolutionary War, refused to recognize the Continental Congress as being America's real government. Thomas Jefferson, then America's ambassador to France, texted his government depicting America's bad reputation in France, maintaining that "the United States is the least important and the least respected of all the nations with embassies in France" (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 33). Similarly, George Washington (1732-1799; served 1789-1797)¹, the leader of the Continental Army during the Revolution, expressed his

¹ George Washington is the most influential figure marked the American history the most. He served as a member of Virginia House of Burgesses from July 24, 1758 to June 24, 1775; Virginia's delegate to the Continental Congress from September 5, 1774 to June 16, 1775; the 14th Chancellor of the College of William and Mary from April 30, 1788, to December 14, 1799; the Commander in Chief of the Continental Army from June 19, 1775 to December 23, 1783; the 7th Senior Officer of the United States Army from July 13, 1798, to December 14, 1799; the 1st President of the United States from April 30, 1789, to March 4, 1797.

Lecture1 **America Under the Articles of Confederation**

dissatisfaction with the ongoing situation, pessimistically writing: “I predict the worst consequences from a half-starved, limping government, always moving on crutches and tottering at every step” (O’Callaghan, 1990, p. 33). Hence, Americans got deeply concerned with the uncertain future of their country, wondering about the way to bring together the scattered states under one strong united country to achieve prosperity.

To overcome the chaotic situation America underwent in the aftermath of its independence, Alexander Hamilton (1755-1804)² of New York believed that rethinking the whole confederation was necessary for the economic and political prosperity of the USA. Therefore, he, along with others, issued a call for a meeting in Philadelphia in the spring of 1787 (U.S. Department of State, 2011, pp. 71-72). Effectively, all the states responded positively to the call for the meeting except for the State of Rhode Island, the smallest one, which refused to attend the meeting. Accordingly, 55 delegates from twelve states met in Philadelphia in May 1787 and embarked on reviewing the Articles of Confederation.

4. Debates and Compromises

The constitutional convention lasted from May to September 1787. During this long period, the delegates debated over many issues; however, they were sometimes obliged to resort to compromises to overcome differences and disagreements between the delegates of the states, and particularly to maintain the unity of the states and thus form one united nation. The following are the five key compromises made during the constitutional convention:

² Alexander Hamilton was a military officer, politician, and one of the Founding Fathers of the United States, who held the position of the first Secretary of the Treasury from 1789 to 1795 during George Washington's presidency.



Figure 1. The Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in 1787, adopted from the Library of Congress (Benson et al., 2009, p. 386)

4.1 The Great Compromise

As aforesaid, under the Articles of Confederation, all the states were equally represented in the Continental Congress by only one vote for each, though each state was represented by two to seven representatives. Under the new constitution, the representation of the states in Congress completely changed. As a matter of fact, during the Constitutional Convention, there was a disagreement between the delegates over the right way to represent the states in Congress. In this respect, two plans were suggested: the Virginia Plan and the Jersey Plan. The Virginia plan suggested that a state's representation would be based on its population; that is, each state would have a number of representatives in Congress depending on the size of its population. The Jersey plan, on the other hand, suggested equal representation for all states in Congress, regardless of the size of the population of each state. To solve this disagreement, Connecticut came up with a third plan, later called the Great Compromise, which combined both plans. Accordingly, the delegates decided to change the form of Congress so that it comprised two chambers: the House of Representatives and the Senate. In the House of Representatives, also called the lower chamber, states' representation is based on the size of their respective

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population, while all states are equally represented in the Senate with two Senators for each (Kelly, 2024). Thus, in today's America, which comprises 50 states, there are 100 Senators (two for each) and 438 Representatives in the House of Representatives.

4.2 The Three-Fifths Compromise

Following the Great Compromise about the representation of states in Congress, where states' representation in the House of Representatives is based on the size of their population, delegates of the Northern and Southern states found another issue: how to count slaves. Delegates of the North, whose economy did not rely heavily on the free labor of the enslaved people, saw that slaves should not be counted toward representation since counting them would raise the number of representatives of the Southern states because slaves in the South outnumbered those in the North (Kelly, 2024). However, the Southern states lobbied for counting their slaves to secure a majority in the House of Representatives. To solve this disagreement, the delegates resorted to a compromise called the Three-Fifths Compromise, which provided that each five enslaved people would be counted as three free people.

4.3 The Slave Trade Compromise

The issue of slavery plagued the United States since its independence, before leading the country to the Civil War in 1861. However, this issue almost led the Northern and Southern states to fight each other on several occasions before the Civil War, including during the Constitutional Convention, when both parties took opposing attitudes. The northern states opposed the enslavement of Africans and wanted to end the slave trade altogether by stopping the importation of slaves from the African colonies. This was in direct opposition to the Southerners' vision, who sought to maintain and expand slavery because they regarded it as paramount to their economy since they heavily relied on the free labor of the enslaved people. To solve the disagreement and keep the Union intact, a compromise was reached where both parties agreed on waiting till 1808 before Congress would be able to bring an end to the slave trade in the United States. Effectively, in March 1807, President Thomas Jefferson signed a bill that banned the slave trade and started taking effect on January 1, 1808 (Kelly, 2024).

4.4 The Commerce Compromise

At the time of the Constitutional Convention, the southern states' economy was still dependent on agriculture and therefore was importing many of the British finished goods, while

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the northern states' economy depended on industry and was producing different finished goods. Therefore, the northern states sought to impose import duties on the imported goods to protect their young industry from foreign competition and force the southern states to buy the local finished goods manufactured in the northern part of the country. They also wanted to impose export tariffs on the exported raw goods to raise the revenue flowing into the United States. However, the Southern states feared that imposing export tariffs on their exported raw goods would hurt the trade they heavily relied. To overcome this disagreement, the delegates reached a compromise which provided that tariffs would be imposed only on imported goods from foreign countries. The compromise also mandated that the federal government would regulate interstate commerce. Further, the compromise dictated that all commerce legislation had to be passed by a two-thirds majority of the Senate, which was in favor of the Southern states since they secured the majority in the House of Representatives due to counting the enslaved people (Kelly, 2024).

4.5 Election of the President: The Electoral College

As aforementioned, the Articles of Confederation did not provide for a president of the United States. Therefore, when the delegates decided that a chief executive, or rather a president, was necessary, they disagreed on the way they ought to follow to elect him to office. While some delegates believed that he should be popularly elected, others objected to it simply because they believed that the electorate would not be well-informed to make such a sensitive decision. After discussing many options and suggestions, the delegates finally compromised and created the Electoral College, which is a body of electors, roughly proportional to population and chosen by the population of their respective states in the popular vote held on the first Tuesday after the First Monday in November. These electors are bound to a particular candidate and will vote for the president in the electoral vote held on the first Wednesday after the second Tuesday in December.

5. The Federal System

Once in Philadelphia, the delegates chose George Washington to preside over the meeting, given his good reputation as the country's first citizen owing to his skillful leadership of the Continental Army during the Revolutionary War. Thereafter, the delegates embarked on examining the flaws of the Articles of Confederation; however, they soon noticed that these articles were no longer suitable for the Country they wanted to establish. Therefore, they

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discarded altogether these articles and started working on drafting a new document instead, called the Constitution of the United States of America. The latter came up with a new political system called federalism, in which political power is shared between the central government and individual state governments. Additionally, unlike the government under the Articles of Confederation, which comprised only the legislative branch, the central government under the new Constitution comprises three equal branches: legislative, judicial, and executive (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 33).

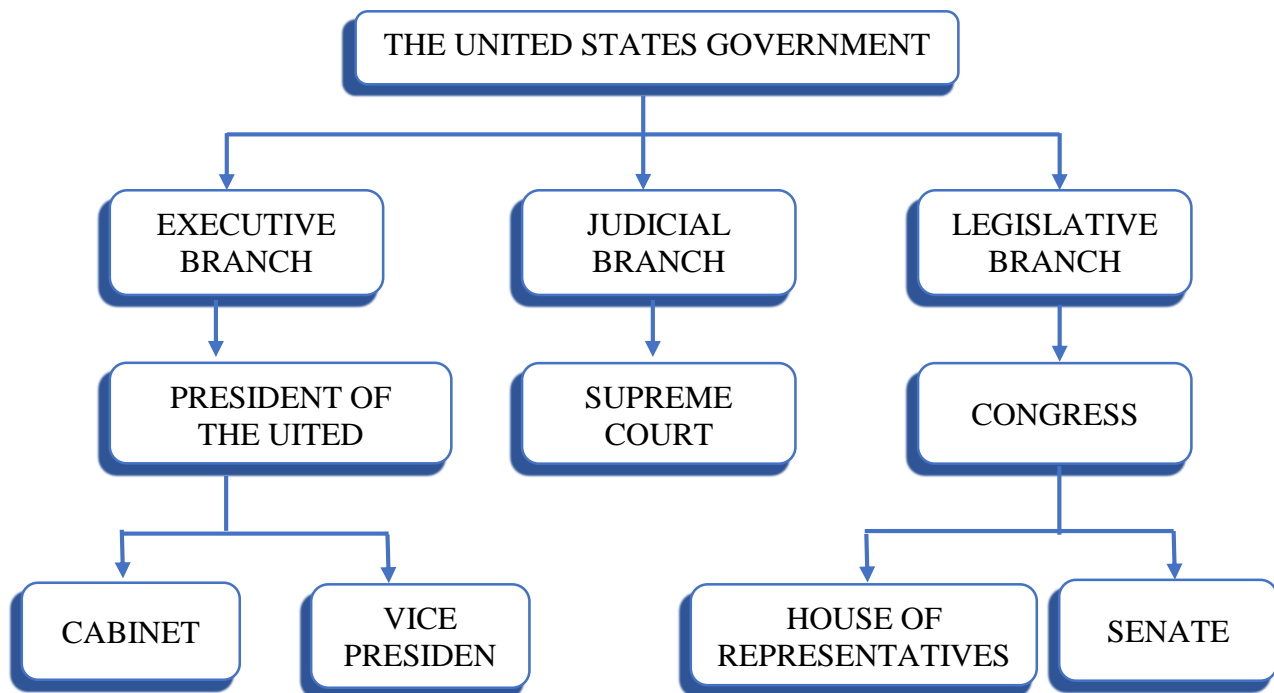


Figure 2. The Structure of the U.S. Federal Government

5.1 The Executive Branch

To maintain order and enforce laws across the country, the U.S. Constitution granted the President of the United States, the head of the executive branch, multiple important powers. He is both the head of state and the federal government of the United States of America. Broadly, under Article II of the U.S. Constitution, the President is responsible for representing the country in talks with his counterparts and leaders of other countries, negotiating and signing treaties with foreign countries after getting the approval of the Senate, suggesting proposals for Congress about policies and measures that should become laws, usually made in his State of the Union Speech, welcoming ambassadorial representatives of foreign countries, enforcing all laws made by Congress, signing into law the legislation made by Congress or veto that does

comply with his vision and agenda, nominating his cabinet members, justices of the federal court system, and other high federal officials, Appointing the heads of more than fifty federal commissions, granting pardons to individuals convicted of crimes, and acting as the commander in chief of the U.S. military forces and holds the code of the nuclear weapons (Kryzanek, 2023). Hence, given all these crucial constitutional powers granted to the U.S. President, choosing the right and fit leader for this job is of great importance for Americans, thereby determining the set of the requisite qualifications is paramount, too.

5.2 The Legislative Branch

By the terms of the new U.S. Constitution, the legislative powers of the national government were accorded to “Congress” with its two chambers: the Senate and the House of Representatives. This task would be undertaken by representatives and Senators elected from each state. Each state would be represented by a certain number of representatives, depending on the size of the population, whereas all the states are equally represented by two Senators for each state. Accordingly, today’s Congress comprises 100 Senators in addition to 438 Representatives.

5.3 The Judicial Branch

According to the U.S. Constitution, the judicial branch of the federal government is represented by the Supreme Court. Article III of the Constitution stipulates that “The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish” (Arnold, 2018, 68). The Supreme Court consists of nine justices who are suggested by the President of the United States and must be confirmed by a majority of the Senate. The Supreme Court’s main task is to make decisions regarding any disagreement about the interpretation of federal laws, the U.S. Constitution, and treaties concluded with foreign countries. It also tackles other kinds of cases related to ambassadors, consuls, and public ministers; cases related to the seas; cases wherein the United States is a party; and cases involving disagreements between the individual states or citizens from different states (Benson et al., 2009, p. 842).

6. The System of Checks and Balances

The framers of the U.S. Constitution put in place a system of Checks and Balances to maintain balance between the three branches of the U.S. federal government. The system of

Lecture1 America Under the Articles of Confederation

checks and balances rests on making a clear separation between the three branches of the national government, legislative, judicial, and executive, to prevent any branch of the government from exceeding its jurisdiction, abusing its powers, or overreaching its defined responsibilities.

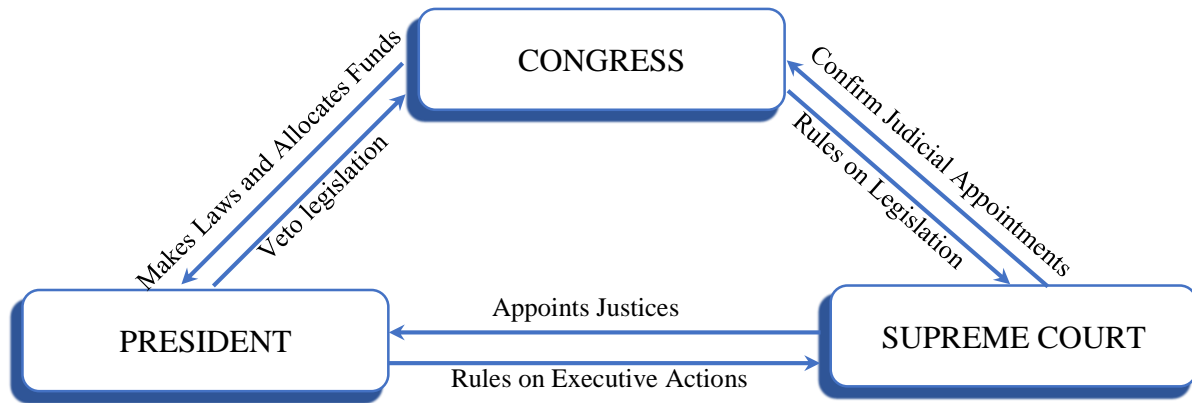


Figure 3. The System of Checks and Balances

According to Article I of the U.S. Constitution, the legislative branch, or rather Congress, is composed of two chambers: the Senate and the House of Representatives. As aforementioned, Congress is charged with making the nation's laws. Each chamber of Congress is responsible for checking the powers of the other chamber, as the approval of both of them is required for passing bills. Furthermore, the powers given to Congress as a whole are checked by the two other branches, the executive and judicial branches. In other words, the judicial branch has the power to declare a bill or law passed by Congress to be unconstitutional if it does not comply with the U.S. Constitution. Additionally, it has the power to provide the right interpretation of federal laws (Benson et al., 2009, p. 269).

The executive branch, however, has the power, through the President, to veto or reject any bill made by Congress, while the President's veto could be overridden by a two-thirds vote of Congress. Besides, the President of the United States is responsible for enforcing laws passed by Congress. Also, the President is responsible for controlling several executive departments as well as the U.S. armed forces since he is the Commander-in-Chief of the U.S. Army. Moreover, the executive branch has the right to appoint justices of the Supreme Court after being confirmed by the Senate (Benson et al., 2009, p. 269).

The judicial branch checks the powers of the executive branch by interpreting laws related to legal cases involving the executive branch and its executive departments and agencies. The legislative branch, on the other hand, checks the powers of the executive branch

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by overriding the President's vetoes, validating the President's appointments, and has the power to impeach and remove federal officers, including the President, when committing certain crimes. It also has the power, through amendments to the U.S. Constitution, to change the Supreme Court's effect of interpreting laws (Benson et al., 2009, p. 269).

7. Conclusion

After winning their independence in 1783, Americans started their long journey of establishing a large and powerful country, but this was not that easy at the beginning. They went through a period of four years characterized by the lack of order due to the weaknesses of the Articles of Confederation that governed the country since 1781. Under these Articles, the central government was weak and lacked the necessary power to maintain order and enforce laws. To handle the situation, states responded to a call for a national convention in Philadelphia to discuss and correct the flaws of the Articles; however, the 55 conventioners discarded altogether the Articles of Confederation and embarked on drafting a new document called the Constitution of the United States. The latter corrected the aforesaid flaws and established a federal system in which political power is divided between the central government and state governments. It also established three branches for the central government, thereby comprising the executive branch, the legislative branch, and the judicial branch. To maintain balance between these three branches, a system of checks and balances was put in place so that no branch would abuse its constitutional powers.



8. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

1. When did America get its independence?
 - a) In 1871
 - b) In 1786
 - c) In 1783

2. What was the main reason that led to the Constitution Convention?
 - a) Fighting against the British

- b) Correcting the flaws of the Articles of Confederation
 - c) Choosing the president of the United States.
3. How many articles does the U.S. Constitution contain?
- a) 30 articles
 - b) 27 articles
 - c) 7 articles
4. Who presided over the constitutional convention?
- a) John Adams
 - b) Benjamin Franklin
 - c) George Washington
5. How many branches does the federal Government contain?
- a) 3 branches
 - b) 4 branches
 - c) 2 branches
6. How many delegates did attend the Constitutional Convention?
- a) 45 delegates
 - b) 57 delegates
 - c) 55 delegates
7. Which state did boycott the Constitutional Convention?
- a) South Carolina
 - b) Virginia
 - c) Rhode Island
8. What are the features of chaos under the Articles of Confederation?

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Lecture 2: Ratifying the U.S. Constitution

Learning Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the ratifying process the U.S. Constitution went through to be effective, the political debates that accompanied its ratification, the Bill of Rights, and the rise of the first political parties in the United States.
Key Concepts	The U.S. Constitution, the Bill of Rights, the Federal Papers, the Federalist Party, and the Anti-Federalist Party.
Teaching Strategy	Lecturing
Teaching Material	Maps, videos, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

After sixteen weeks of debating, discussing, and drafting the Constitution, the delegates finally finished the draft of the new document called the U.S. Constitution. The draft was signed by 39 delegates out of 42 delegates who were present (U.S. Department of State, 2011, p. 75). However, finishing penning the Constitution signaled the beginning of the most difficult part of the struggle for a more stable and perfect union between the thirteen American states; it is the ratification of the draft of the U.S. Constitution. Effectively, to make it effective, Article VII of the U.S. Constitution mandated that the approval of nine states is required to make the U.S. Constitution operative. It literally stipulates that “The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same” (Arnold, 2018, p. 81). Therefore, the draft of the Constitution was sent to the thirteen states for approval and ratification.

2. Ratifying the U.S. Constitution

As aforesaid, the approval of the conventions of nine states is required before making the U.S. Constitution accepted as the country’s founding document. Therefore, the conventions of the American states began ratifying the Constitution one after another. Delaware was the first state to ratify it on December 7, 1787, followed by Pennsylvania on December 12, 1787, New Jersey on December 18, 1787, Georgia on January 2, 1788, Connecticut on January 9, 1788, Massachusetts on February 6, 1788, Maryland on April 28, 1788, and South Carolina on

May 23, 1788. The ninth state that ratified the U.S. Constitution was New Hampshire on June 21, 1788 (Levy & Karst, 2000, p. 2119). Thenceforth, the U.S. Constitution started taking effect on the 21st of June, 1788, thereby discarding the Articles of Confederation and starting to work under the new founding document called the U.S. Constitution of the United States of America. The other states continued ratifying the Constitution: Virginia on June 25, 1788, New York on July 26, 1788, North Carolina on November 21, 1789, and Rhode Island on May 29, 1790.

3. The Federalist Papers

During the ratification process of the Constitution, James Madison³ (1751-1836), along with John Jay⁴ (1745-1829) and Alexander Hamilton (1755-1804), cooperated on writing a series of essays called the *Federalist Papers*, aiming at explaining the Constitution to promote state conventions' support for it and encourage them to ratify it. Their essays, which amounted to eighty-five, were published in the New York newspaper between October 1787 and May 1788 (Benson et al., 2009, p. 670). Hamilton, however, was credited with penning two-thirds of the Federalist Papers, which were chiefly dedicated to explaining the Constitution and its three branches.

4. Thomas Jefferson vs Alexander Hamilton

When American citizens learned about the new Constitution, their opinions were divided into two groups, proponents and opponents, but opponents of the Constitution outnumbered its proponents. To salvage the situation, the designers of the new governing

³ James Madison was one of the founding fathers and a statesman who played a key role in drafting the U.S. constitution, thereby nicknamed the Father of the U.S. Constitution. He was Virginia's delegate to the Congress of Confederation from November 6, 1781, to October 30, 1787; he served as Virginia's representative in the House of Representatives from March 4, 1789, to March 4, 1797; thereafter, he served as America's 5th Secretary of State from May 2, 1801, to March 3, 1809; then, he serves as America's 4th President from March 4, 1809, to March 4, 1817.

⁴ John Jay is one of the Founding Fathers and a U.S. statesman who marked the American History. He served as New York's delegate to the first Continental Congress from September 5, 1774, to October 26, 1774, and delegate to the second Continental Congress from December 7, 1778, to September 28, 1779; the sixth president of the Continental Congress from December 10, 1778, to September 28, 1779; the U.S. Minister to Spain from September 27, 1779, to May 20, 1782; the U.S. Secretary of Foreign Affairs from July 27, 1789, to September 15, 1789; the second Governor of New York from July 1, 1795, to June 30, 1801; and first US Chief Justice from October 19, 1789, to June 29, 1795.

system began campaigning to persuade people and the state conventions of the importance of ratifying the Constitution and convincing them of their blueprint for creating a strong federal government. The debates over the ratification of the Constitution resulted in the rise of two opposing visions toward the American Republic and American democracy; supporters of the Constitution were called the Federalists, while its opponents were called the Anti-Federalists (Corbett et al., 2021). The Federalists claimed that creating a strong federal government would secure the best solution for the newly established country. In plain English, they argued that forming a strong federal government was necessary to keep and maintain the whole nation united. Therefore, they lobbied for a strong government with more powers than the individual states to ensure the enforcement of federal laws and promote Commercial prosperity, national security, financial stability, and the well-being of all American states. Therefore, because they outnumbered the Anti-Federalists in the Constitutional Convention, the U.S. Constitution included many provisions introduced by the Federalists to strengthen the Federalist Government.

The Anti-Federalists, on the other hand, claimed that consolidating all powers in the central government would rob the local states of their power and right to make their own decisions. They believed that the new Constitution imitated the old and corrupt British system Americans fought to kick out of their land; they thought that a strong federal government would abuse its powers and tyrannize American citizens (Benson et al., 2009). Besides, the Anti-Federalists argued that the new federal government would be controlled and run by the wealthy class. They posited that the elite and the wealthy class of Americans would monopolize the federal government and thus would make policies that serve their aristocratic class only; the ordinary class, according to them, would be ignored and marginalized by the federal government dominated by the aristocratic class. They also claimed that the newly drafted Constitution mentioned nothing about individuals' basic rights, thereby refusing to ratify it (Benson et al., 2009, p. 546).

5. The Rise of Political Parties

Alexander Hamilton was one of the ardent supporters of the strong federal government and one of the vocal Federalists during the Constitutional Convention. Therefore, following his election in 1789, President George Washington chose him to be part of his cabinet as the first Secretary of the Treasury for the United States of America. Accordingly, Alexander Hamilton started implementing his ideas and policies that would make America a successful and

respected nation in the eyes of its fellow countries. However, opposition to Hamilton's policies began to rise as he was aggressive with policies and opinions, leading to the rise of two political parties in the 1790s. Proponents of Hamilton's policies became more formally aligned into one political party called the Federalist Party, while the opponents of Hamilton and his supporters organized themselves into one political party called the Democratic-Republican Party under the leadership of Thomas Jefferson⁵ (1743-1826) (Benson et al., 2009, p. 547).

6. The Bill of Rights

In 1789, the U.S. Constitution started taking effect, but it was not complete yet. Its ratification was not an easy process, as many disagreements arose during the conventions of the states over the basic rights guaranteed to American citizens. In response to this shortage, a movement for guaranteeing a set of privileges and basic rights to all American citizens arose. James Madison assumed the leadership of the movement by taking the cause to the House of Representatives in June 1789 (Benson et al., 2009). This movement argued that the U.S. Constitution mentioned nothing about the basic freedoms and rights guaranteed to individual citizens. The Federalist Party claimed that guaranteeing such basic rights to individuals was unnecessary because the Constitution did not allow the national government to violate people's freedoms. On the other hand, the Anti-Federalist Party argued that the government could not resist its power or ability to violate those basic freedoms (Benson et al., 2009, p. 557). Hence, after lengthy debates over the set of basic freedoms to be guaranteed to citizens, the Bill of Rights, which comprises ten constitutional Amendments, was finally added to the Constitution at once. Accordingly, in March 1791, Thomas Jefferson, the then Secretary of State, announced that the Bill of Rights was finally added to the Constitution by the first Congress (Benson et al., 2009).

⁵ Thomas Jefferson served as United States Minister to France from May 17, 1785 to September 26, 1789. He served as the United States first Secretary of States from March 22, 1790 to December 31, 1793. Thereafter, he served as America's second Vice President from March 4, 1797 to March 4, 1801. Then, he served as America's third President from March 4, 1801 to March 4, 1809.

The Bill of Rights contains ten Amendments that list the basic rights held by citizens that the federal government cannot violate or abridge. They are listed below as follows:

6.1 The First Amendment

The First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution came to guarantee to individual citizens the basic freedoms of free speech, press, assembly, religion, and petition. It provided the following:

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press, or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances. (Arnold, 2018, p. 90)

According to the First Amendment to the Constitution, the federal government has no right to pass laws abridging the freedoms granted to individual citizens related to the establishment of religion, the freedom to worship or the exercise of religion. It also prevents the federal government from abridging people's rights of speech, press, petition, and peaceably assemble. Thus, citizens can express themselves without fearing getting arrested by the federal government.

6.2 The Second Amendment

The Second Amendment to the Constitution prevented the federal government from passing laws aimed at depriving citizens of their right to bear arms. It mandated that "A well-regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed" (Arnold, 2018, p. 97). However, interpreting this amendment stirred a big disagreement among Americans. On one side of the disagreement are people who stuck to the literal meaning of the Amendment, which literally says that "the right of the people to keep and bear Arms shall not be abridged", thereby arguing that the right to bear arms is literally unlimited and unqualified and thus referring to the absolute right of American citizens to own arms for their protection. Therefore, gun supporters strongly objected to all gun control laws.

On the other side of the debate stand the opponents of extending the right to bear arms to all citizens. They argued that the right to bear arms was initially intended to arm militias raised for the sake of defending the country against any possible attack from any foreign power

(Benson et al., 2009, p. 1375). In plain English, they claim that adopting the Second Amendment does not mean extending the right to bear arms to all citizens. Thus, since the federal military is now capable of protecting and defending the country, gun control advocates argue that citizens are no longer in need of buying and owning an unlimited number of weapons. More importantly, they argued that the misuse of weapons causes violence that usually leads to deaths and injuries, thereby making it a notable reason to push for passing gun control laws. A third part of Americans argued that the initial reason for adding the Second Amendment was to arm the state militias to defend states not only from foreign aggression but also from oppression from the federal government (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1375). This, in other words, includes the possibility that the local states have the right to revolt against the federal government when necessary, which is a right the colonists exercised following declaring independence from the British Crown in 1776. Today, however, federal law makes revolution against the federal government illegal since it refers to the unconstitutionality of laws made by the federal government.

6.3 The Third Amendment

The Third Amendment to the U.S. Constitution came as a response to the British practice before the outbreak of the American Revolution (1776-1783), which manifested in obliging American citizens to quarter British soldiers and provide them with shelter and food. Great Britain used this practice to deter Americans from revolting against its unpopular policies of control and taxation adopted and imposed on the American thirteen colonies. Accordingly, the Third Amendment mandated that “No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law” (Arnold, 2018, p. 101).

6.4 The Fourth Amendment

The Fourth Amendment of the Bill of Rights was added to the Constitution to protect citizens against the government’s unreasonable searches and seizures. It stipulates the following:

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall be issued, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized. (Arnold, 2018, p. 101)

The reason behind adding this Amendment to the Constitution was to avoid unfair measures and practices used by the British Government during the years before the American Revolutionary War. To obstruct Americans from organizing against its unjust taxation policies, the British Government issued warrants allowing its officials to search for violations of its taxation laws. Therefore, this Amendment protected Americans from such bad and unfair practices by government officials while searching their properties.

6.5 The Fifth Amendment

The Fifth Amendment was adopted to guarantee some of the rights to individuals accused of crimes. It contains two main clauses: the Grand Jury Clause and the Double Jeopardy Clause. The Grand Jury Clause mandated that the government has to use grand juries to accuse individuals of capital or infamous crimes. Capital crimes are those crimes that require death punishment, while infamous crimes require imprisonment. A grand jury is a group of citizens whose job is to review the available evidence to decide whether the government is right to accuse someone of committing a crime or not. Accordingly, the Grand Jury Clause aims to ensure that the government cannot accuse a person of a serious crime if the people of the community do not agree that the defendant should stand trial.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb, nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

The Double Jeopardy Clause, however, protects the accused against being tried twice for the same crime. Besides, it prevents the government from appealing the verdict in case it loses the case for the defendant. On the other hand, the Self-Incrimination Clause prevents the government from forcing defendants to testify against themselves. Also, this clause indicates that individuals can refuse to answer questions during investigations if their answers might incriminate them.

6.6 The Sixth Amendment

The Sixth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution came to guarantee defendants their right to a speedy and public trial in both the district and state where the crime took place. It stipulated the following:

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed; which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense. (Arnold, 2018, p. 109)

This Amendment came to protect defendants against delaying their trials and keeping them in jail for longer periods than is necessary. Besides, public trial indicates that courtrooms ought to be open to the public during trials (Benson et al., 2009). Moreover, the requirement that the trial must occur in the district or the state wherein the crime took place came as a response to the British practice of taking American defendants to England to be tried there. Additionally, this Amendment stipulates that the defendant has to be informed of the crime s/he is charged with. The Amendment also guaranteed defendants their right to confront witnesses who testified against them. Additionally, this Amendment grants defendants the right to force witnesses in their favor to come to the courtroom to present their evidence (Benson et al., 2009). The last clause of the Sixth Amendment ensures defendants their right to assistance of counsel for their defense, thereby benefiting from legal assistance presented to them by lawyers.

6.7 The Seventh Amendment

The Seventh Amendment to the U.S. Constitution aims to guarantee the right to a jury trial in cases involving monetary damages. This is because the body of the Constitution ensures the right to a jury trial in criminal cases but says nothing about civil cases, which refer to non-criminal disputes between private parties or between a private party and the government. Contrary to that, criminal disputes are those where the government seeks to apply the law and punish the party that committed a crime. Thus, the 7th Amendment stipulates the following:

In Suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise reexamined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law. (Arnold, 2018, p. 111)

6.8 The Eighth Amendment

The 8th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution mandated that “Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted” (Arnold, 2018, p. 112). Bail is the amount of money a criminal defendant pays to be freed from prison while awaiting trial. This procedure aims to allow defendants to prepare for their trial, thus preventing them from fleeing before it. Furthermore, the 8th Amendment prevented Congress or justices from imposing excessive fines on defendants. However, nothing was mentioned regarding the limitation on bail. In other words, nothing was said about what an excessive bail. Overall, there must be a balance between the committed crime and the bail imposed.

6.9 The Ninth Amendment

During the debate regarding the Bill of Rights, the lawmakers were afraid that the Bill of Rights would convey the notion that individuals are entitled to the rights and freedoms listed in the Bill of Rights only. Therefore, to convey the notion that the other rights that are not listed in the Bill of Rights are also protected and guaranteed by the Constitution, the 9th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution provided that “The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people” (Arnold, 2018, p. 113). The problem with this Amendment, however, lies in the obscurity that surrounds the rights retained by the people, and how these rights can be enforced.

6.10 The Tenth Amendment

The 10th Amendment is the last Amendment of the Bill of Rights. It stipulates that “The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people” (Arnold, 2018, p. 114). This asserts that the United States of America operates under the federal system, which divides political powers between the federal government and state governments. In plain English, federalism refers to the notion that the federal government and state governments have different powers for running public affairs.

7. Conclusion

The ratification process was not easy and led to hot debates over federalism and the powers given to the federal government and those given to the local states. Also, the debates over the ratification of the Constitution led to the rise of the two early political parties, the

Federalist Party and the Anti-Federalist Party. The Federalist Party lobbied for granting more powers to the Federal government to be able to enforce laws, maintain order, and promote Commercial prosperity, national security, financial stability, and the well-being of all American states. In contrast, the Anti-Federalists lobbied for more powers for the local states. Besides, the first Congress added the Bill of Rights to the U.S. Constitution, ensuring individuals their basic freedoms and rights. Accordingly, the founding fathers, along with the first Congress of the United States, managed to lay the foundations of a new and strong nation.



8. Quiz and Activities designed for Classroom Interaction

1. How many states are necessary to make the Constitution effective?
 - a) 11 states
 - b) 13 states
 - c) 09 states

2. How many amendments does the Bill of Rights contain?
 - a) Thirteen Amendments
 - b) Nine Amendments
 - c) Ten Amendments

3. Who was the leader of the Federalist Party?
 - a) Thomas Jefferson
 - b) Benjamin Franklin
 - c) Alexander Hamilton

4. Who was the leader of the Democratic-Republican Party?
 - a) Thomas Jefferson
 - b) James Madison
 - c) John Adams

5. What are the main ideological differences between the Federalists and Anti-Federalists?

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Lecture 3: America Under the Administration of George Washington

Learning Objectives	By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the electoral process in the United States, the first electoral college, and the domestic and foreign challenges encountered by George Washington's government.
Key Concepts	The electoral college, the cabinet, the Franco-American Treaty of Alliance, the Genet Affair, and the Jay Treaty.
Teaching Strategy	Lecturing.
Teaching Material	Maps, videos, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

George Washington (1732-1799) was one of the founding fathers who contributed massively to the formation of the United States. He led the American Continental Armies during the American Revolutionary War (1775-1783) against Great Britain. Also, he was a delegate to both the First Continental Congress and the Second Continental Congress, which led the thirteen colonies into that war. Thereafter, he served as Virginia's delegate to the Constitutional Convention in 1787 in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, which resulted in drafting the nation's Constitution. During that Convention, he was unanimously elected to preside over the meetings of the Convention. All the aforementioned facts made George Washington the right person to be the first President of the United States of America.

2. Election of George Washington

After the ratification of the Constitution, the next step was to hold the first presidential elections to elect the first President of the United States. Hence, one of the Confederation Congress's last acts was to prepare and organize the presidential elections, choosing the 4th of March, 1789, to be the date for which the new government would start working (U.S. Department of State, 2011, p. 77). However, as elections approached, one name was on the lips of Americans: George Washington. This was due to his devotion to defending the ideals and principles upon which the United States was founded. Additionally, Americans considered him

Lecture 3 _____ America Under the Administration of George Washington

to be the first citizen owing to his great contributions to the independence of the country as a leader of the Continental Army during the seven years of the Revolutionary War. Adding to that, his skillful and wise chairmanship over the Constitutional Convention, which was characterized by hot debates over the core issues that haunted all Americans, was so decisive and helped save the Convention. Thus, George Washington became a consensus candidate.

As mandated by the U.S. Constitution, the U.S. president ought to be chosen by the Electoral College, which comprises electors from all states. Each state has a certain number of electors, which is equal to its representatives in Congress.

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. (Arnold, 2018, p. 55)

However, since the number of representatives each state would have in the House of Representatives requires determining the size of the population for each state, which would take much time to count, the Constitution accorded an initial and approximate number of representatives. Also, the Constitution mandated that each state shall have at least one representative. Accordingly, pending determining the number of the population each state has, the delegates during the Constitutional Convention agreed on allocating the following numbers of electors to the thirteen states:

The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three. (Arnold, 2018, p. 14)

Following the ratification of the U.S. Constitution by the required nine states, the Confederation Congress set the 7th of January, 1789, to be the date on which states would elect their electors. The latter would cast their votes on the 4th of February, 1789. At that time, electors used to cast two votes: one for the President of the United States and the other for his Vice President. The candidate who gets the highest number of ballots will be the President, while the candidate who gets the second-highest number of ballots will be the Vice President.

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Accordingly, on the 4th of February, 1789, electors of ten states convened in their respective states to cast their ballots. Three states did not participate in these elections: Rhode Island, North Carolina, and New York. Rhode Island and North Carolina did not participate because they had not ratified the Constitution yet, while New York failed to choose its electors owing to internecine conflicts (The Editors of the Encyclopedia Britannica, 2025).

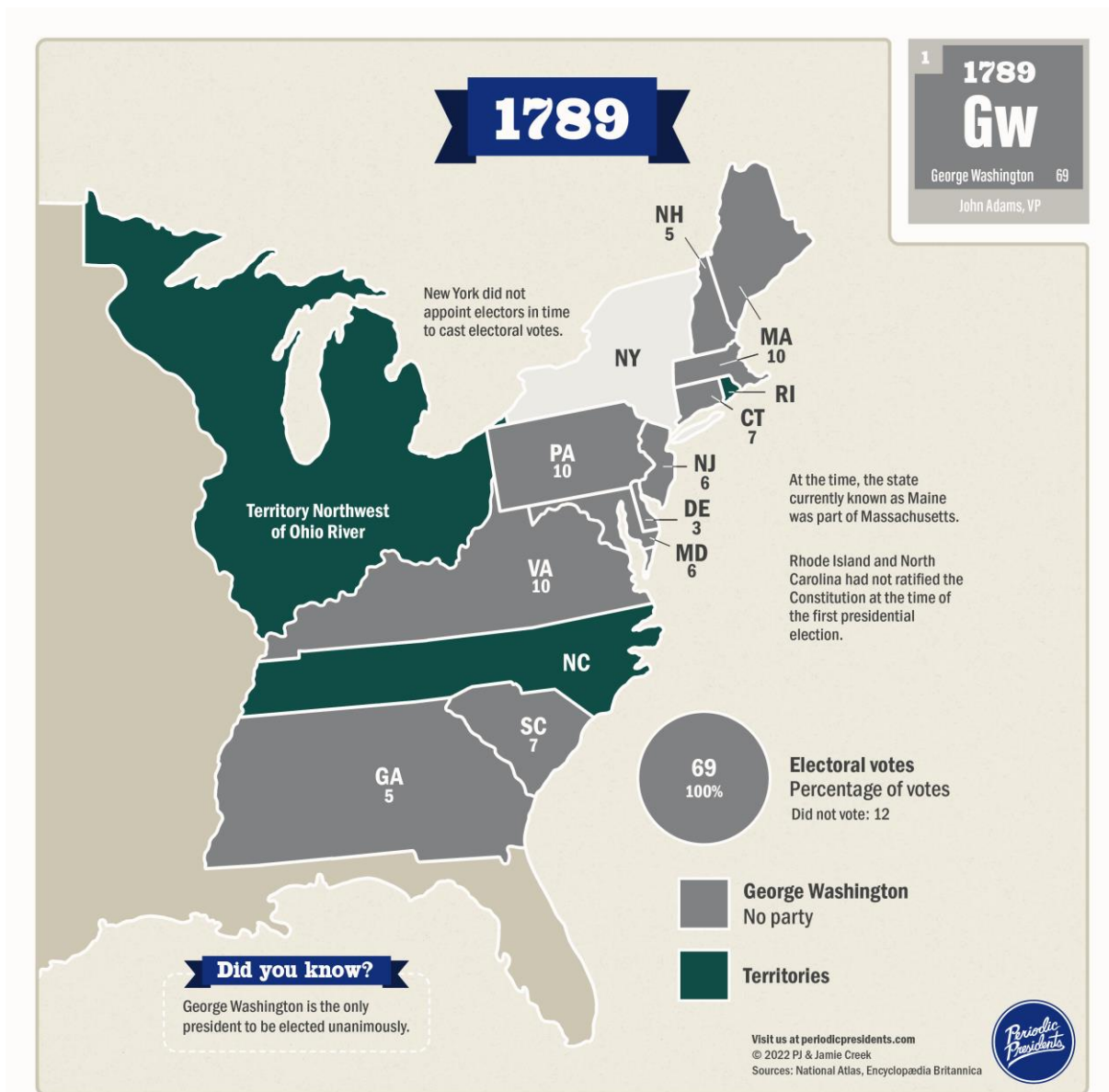


Figure 4. Electoral College in the 1789 Presidential Elections
Source: Periodic Presidents, <https://periodicpresidents.com/electoral-college/>

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Twelve candidates from several states announced their candidacy for the 1789 American presidential election. There are George Washington, John Adams⁶, Samuel Huntington (1731-1796), John Jay (1745-1829), John Hancock (1737-1793), Robert H. Harrison (1745-1790), George Clinton(1739-1812), John Rutledge (1739-1800), John Milton (1740-1817), James Armstrong (1728-1800), Edward Telfair (1735-1807), and Benjamin Lincoln (1733-1810). George Washington got the highest number of ballots with 69 votes, which means he was unanimously elected. John Adams, however, got the second-highest number of votes with 34 votes, thereby proclaiming him the Vice President. The results are displayed in Table 1 as follows:

⁶ John Adams was one of the Founding Fathers and a famous American statesman who served in different US offices before and after the American Revolution. He served as Massachusetts' delegate to the Continental Congress from September 5, 1774, to November 22, 1777; the Massachusetts Superior Court Chief Justice from October 1775 to February 1777; the chairman of the Marine Committee from October 13, 1775, to October 28, 1779; the US envoy to France from November 28, 1777, to March 8, 1779; the US envoy to the Netherlands from April 19, 1782, to March 30, 1788; the US Minister to Great Britain from April 1, 1785, to February 20, 1788; the first Vice President from April 21, 1789, to March 4, 1797; the US Second President from March 4, 1797, to March 4, 1801.

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Table 1. Results of the 1789 Presidential Elections

Name of Candidate	CT	DE	G	M	MA	NH	NJ	PA	SC	VA	TOTA
George Washington	7	3	5	6	10	5	6	10	7	10	69
John Adams	5	-	-	-	10	5	1	8	-	5	34
Samuel Huntington	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
John Jay	-	3	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	1	9
John Hancock	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	1	4
Robert H. Harrison	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
George Clinton	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3
John Rutledge	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	6
John Milton	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
James Armstrong	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Edward Telfair	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Benjamin Lincoln	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Total	7	3	5	6	10	5	6	10	7	10	69

Source: National Archive, <https://www.archives.gov/electoral-college/1789>

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3. George Washington's Cabinet

After winning the 1789 presidential elections on the 4th of April, George Washington moved to New York for the inauguration. Effectively, on the 30th of April, 1789, George Washington was sworn in as the first President of the United States of America. Accordingly, his main challenge was to create a working government that would be responsible for enforcing federal laws passed by Congress and working to protect the nation's national security and promote its commercial and economic prosperity.



Figure 5. George Washington's Cabinet

Source: American Battlefield, Retrieved from <https://www.battlefields.org/learn/articles/george-washington-and-neutrality>

However, President Washington faced a variety of challenges. His government had to legislate a system of taxation to collect the required money to run public affairs. Besides, laws could not be enforced in the absence of a judiciary. Hence, Congress quickly embarked on creating the necessary governmental departments. Thus, to make wise decisions with much information and evidence, he chose members of his cabinet whom he trusted a lot. Thus, along with John Adams, who became the Vice President, George Washington's cabinet comprised Thomas Jefferson to be the Secretary of State, Alexander Hamilton to be the Secretary of the

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Treasury, Henry Knox (1750-1806)⁷ to be the Secretary of War, and John Jay to be the Chief Justice. Accordingly, President Washington's cabinet came into existence, which comprises the heads of the aforesaid executive departments. Also, Congress passed the Judiciary Act of 1789, which provided for a federal judiciary that comprises the Supreme Court with one Chief Justice and five associate justices, three circuit courts of appeal, and thirteen district courts. The Judiciary Act also established the office of the Attorney General. George Washington named John Jay as the Chief Justice and Edmund Randolph as the Attorney General. All this work was achieved in just six months, from April to September 1789 (Remini, 2008, p. 54).

4. Domestic Challenges

4.1 Hamilton's Financial Plan

The most serious issue Washington's government encountered following its creation was the nation's finances. Debts made by the Second Continental Congress and the Confederation government had to be redeemed. Besides, the thirteen states were saddled with great debts, the federal treasury was empty and out of money, and the federal government was in extreme need of money to run its affairs. Thus, Alexander Hamilton, the Secretary of the Treasury, was responsible for prescribing a financial plan to meet all the aforesaid challenges. Therefore, he presented a financial plan of eight points to Congress, suggesting that the Federal government would assume all the debts and pay them off from the money the government would collect from several taxes, including whiskey, imposed on citizens throughout the national territory (Benson et al., 2009). Accordingly, Hamilton's financial plan aimed to promote financial support for the federal government as well as gain the respect of foreign countries by assuming its debts and paying them off. These points are as follows:

⁷ Henry Knox was an American military leader, politician, bookseller, and one of the Founding Fathers of the United States. Knox, who was born in Boston, rose to the rank of senior general in the Continental Army during the Revolutionary War, serving as the chief artillery officer in all of George Washington's campaigns. After the war, he managed the War Department under the Articles of Confederation from 1785 to 1789. Washington appointed him as the first Secretary of War for the nation, a role he held from 1789 to 1794.

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4.1.1 Payment of Foreign Debt

During the Revolutionary War, the United States borrowed \$12 million from foreign creditors. Therefore, to restore American credit abroad, Hamilton suggested redeeming the whole foreign debt in full. Congress approved this measure with little objection.

4.1.2 Payment of the Domestic Debt

During the American Revolution, the Continental Congress borrowed money from American citizens by selling them bonds, thereby borrowing \$40 million in total from American citizens. A bond is a written promise, in the form of a certificate or document, to pay a loan with interest. However, instead of paying cash, the government would give domestic creditors new pay certificates called IOUs. These IOUs refer to “I owe you”, promising to pay at a later date. Hamilton suggested that the federal government would pay the bonds at their full value, arguing that this was the only way through which the federal government could restore its domestic financial credit. In response, Congress approved this proposal.

4.1.3 Assumption of State Debts

The individual states had also incurred debts during the American Revolutionary War. About \$22 million was incurred by the thirteen states. Alexander Hamilton proposed that the federal government would assume states’ debts as national debts since the latter incurred them for the sake of raising local militias to defend the country against the British colonizer. This suggestion was debatable in Congress due to opposing viewpoints. The northern states admired this proposal since they had large unpaid debts, while the southern states opposed the proposal because they had already paid off a large part of their debts. Congress, after hot and constructive debate, approved the proposal.

4.1.4 Funding the Debts

Given the fact that the federal government was out of money to pay off all the aforesaid debts immediately, Hamilton suggested that old bonds and pay certificates would be substituted by new ones, promising to redeem them in full after fifteen or twenty years. This proposal from Hamilton’s financial plan, called Funding the Debts, was also approved by Congress.

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4.1.5 Establishment of a National Bank

To be able to manage its financial operations, Alexander Hamilton suggested the establishment of a national or Federal Bank. He argued that the Federal Bank provides a safe depository for federal money received as taxes and tariffs. Besides, it would be easier for the federal government and individuals to borrow money. Also, the Federal Bank would be essential for the creation of a uniform and stable currency that would circulate throughout the national territory by issuing sound paper and money. Further, Hamilton suggested the Federal Bank would be chartered for twenty years and have its headquarters in the nation's capital, Philadelphia, with branches in various parts of the country. Adding to that, this bank would be privately owned and managed, though the Federal government would own one-fifth of its stock.

Hamilton's Bank proposal stirred up a great controversy. The Anti-Federalists, led by Thomas Jefferson, believed that the Federal Bank would have too much power and would monopolize the banking system. Besides, the Jeffersonians believed that the establishment of a National Bank was altogether unconstitutional because the Constitution did not grant Congress the jurisdiction to charter banks. In response, Hamilton argued that the measure was constitutional because Congress had the power to coin money and regulate its value, regulate trade, collect taxes, and borrow money, thereby claiming that this bank proposal was necessary and proper for carrying out these powers. Congress approved the proposal and established the National Bank in 1791.

4.1.6 Creating an American Coinage System

To substitute the many coins then in circulation, Alexander Hamilton suggested the establishment of a new coinage system. In response, Congress approved the recommendation and created a United States Mint in Philadelphia in 1792. Accordingly, the first gold, silver, and copper coins were put into circulation in 1793.

4.1.7 Levying an Excise Tax

In 1789, Congress passed the Tariff Act, which imposed duties on certain imports. However, the revenues from these duties were insufficient to meet the federal government's expenses. Therefore, to secure additional income, Congress approved Hamilton's proposal of levying an excise tax on whiskey.

4.1.8 Levying a Protective Tariff

To protect and boost the young American industry from unjust competition with foreign-manufactured goods, Alexander Hamilton suggested imposing a protective tariff to discourage the importation of foreign goods. Congress, however, rejected this proposal.

4.2 The Whiskey Rebellion

During the arguments between the Federalists and the Anti-Federalists over the ratification of the Constitution and the powers granted to the federal government, President George Washington remained neutral, though he was unofficially a Federalist. He believed that political parties were harmful, maintaining that “it was the interest and duty of a wise people to discourage them [political parties]” (O’Callaghan, 1990, p. 34). Therefore, the way he dealt with the Whiskey Rebellion in the summer of 1794 proved that he favored the ideas and policies of the Federalist Party, and his neutrality meant only keeping the same distance from both political parties.

The main reason that led to the Whiskey Rebellion was the whiskey tax that George Washington’s government imposed on whiskey for the sake of collecting money to pay back debts America owed from the Revolutionary War (1775-1783). However, the whiskey tax was unpopular with many Americans, particularly with farmers in western Pennsylvania. In fact, Farmers in western Pennsylvania used to produce whisky as their main crop. Whiskey was so important to their local economy as they used to sell it and earn money. Hence, the task imposed by the federal government reduced their profit, namely for small farmers.

The whiskey tax, however, was not the only reason that ignited farmers’ dissatisfaction with the government’s policies. Settlers in western Pennsylvania had problems with Native Americans who refused to lose their lands to white Americans. The Federal Government, however, was in big trouble with the Native Americans as it was losing battles against them due to the considerable support Native Americans received from the English and Spanish territories. Adding to that, big landowners, such as George Washington, owned large holdings in Pennsylvania and elsewhere, thereby making it so hard for middle- and lower-class Americans to find affordable land for their agricultural activities. Therefore, once the federal government imposed the whiskey tax, farmers refused to pay it and burned down houses of the federal tax collectors, or rather the revenue agents, who came to them to collect the tax.

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In response to the refusal to pay the whiskey tax, and to make the point that he was serious about the matter, President George Washington sent an army of about 15,000 soldiers to support revenue agents and the government's right to collect the whiskey tax (O'Callaghan, 1990). Once in Pennsylvania, farmers recognized the great power of the Federal army, preferring to avoid confrontation and go home quietly. Accordingly, President Washington managed to maintain order and enforce the federal law that his government imposed on all Americans all over the national territory. Also, he proved that a strong government is necessary to enforce laws and maintain order across the nation's territory.

5. The Foreign Policy

Even though the main task of the newly elected President George Washington and his government was to strengthen the domestic front by developing its economy and making the nation financially secure, Washington's government could not ignore foreign affairs and challenges. However, as America was a newly created nation with a weak army and economy, Washington's foreign policy prioritized maintaining and preserving peace to grant the nation much time to recover from its wounds of the Revolutionary War and permit the slow effect of the national integration process to continue.

When the French Revolution⁸ (1787-99) led to the execution of King Louis XVI⁹ (1754-93) in January 1793, Great Britain and Spain went to war with France (Mark, 2022). France wanted to promote America's support for its war, according to the Franco-American Treaty of Alliance signed between the two countries in 1778. By the terms of this treaty, the United States

⁸ The French Revolution was a time of political and societal transformation in France that started with the Estates General in 1789 and concluded with the Coup of 18 Brumaire on November 9, 1799. Numerous ideas stemming from the revolution are viewed as core principles of liberal democracy, and its ideals continue to be central to contemporary French political discussions. It resulted from a mix of social, political, and economic factors that the current regime failed to address effectively.

⁹ Louis XVI (born 23 August 1754 – executed 21 January 1793) was the final monarch of France prior to the collapse of the monarchy during the French Revolution. He was the offspring of Louis, Dauphin of France (the heir-apparent to King Louis XV), and Maria Josepha of Saxony. Louis became the new Dauphin when his father passed away in 1765. In 1770, he wed Marie Antoinette. Following the death of his grandfather on 10 May 1774, he ascended to the throne as King of France and Navarre, reigning until the monarchy was dissolved on 21 September 1792. After 1791, he adopted the title of king of the French.

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and France vowed perpetually to help each other defend themselves against any foreign attack one of them faced. In plain English, the Franco-American Treaty of Alliance of 1778 made the USA and France perpetual allies, obliging them to defend each other in case of any foreign attack. The USA, however, was economically and militarily a very weak country, which made it so difficult and risky to get involved in another war with the major European powers. Therefore, when the war broke out between France and Great Britain, George Washington, with the assent of his cabinet, issued the Proclamation of Neutrality on April 22, 1793, that abrogated the terms of the Franco-American Treaty of Alliance (Benson et al., 2009, p. 815). Furthermore, he cautioned Americans against siding with any party, lest they jeopardize his government's neutrality. Accordingly, President George Washington set the pillars of a new foreign policy that remained effective for generations, called neutralism. This policy advocates the country's neutrality towards European conflicts and wars that do not concern America.

5.1 The Citizen Genet Affair

Following the outbreak of its war with Great Britain and Spain in 1793, France sent Edmond-Charles Genet¹⁰ (1763-1834) to the United States to promote and solicit American support. Once in Charleston, South Carolina, on April 8, 1793, Genet did not move to Philadelphia, America's then Capital, to meet President George Washington for accreditation. Instead, Genet stayed in South Carolina, where he was welcomed and cheered by citizens who threw a string of parties in his honor; however, he was treated with cool formality by the government. Genet's objective in South Carolina was to recruit and arm American privateers who would join the French forces against the British and Spanish armed forces.

Unpleased with the American official stance toward the then-ongoing war in Europe, Genet threatened to take the cause directly to the American people, despite the U.S.

¹⁰ Edmond-Charles Genêt (January 8, 1763 – July 14, 1834), commonly referred to as Citizen Genêt, served as the French representative to the United States, having been appointed by the Girondins during the period of the French Revolution. His arrival in the United States triggered a significant political and international controversy, known as the Citizen Genêt affair. Due to his actions, President George Washington requested that the French government retract his appointment.

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government's refusal. His actions jeopardized America's neutrality and continued challenging the U.S. government's neutrality by capturing British ships and rearming them as privateers. In response, and on Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton's advice, President Washington sent an 800-word letter to Genet informing him of his government's refusal and rejection of all his actions that threatened its neutrality. Afterward, President Washington, with the assent of his cabinet, requested that France recall its ambassador from the United States.

5.2 The Jay Treaty

During the European ongoing war of 1793 between France and Great Britain, both France and Great Britain proceeded to stop American ships heading towards the opposite countries. Great Britain escalated these assaults against American merchant ships in 1793, straining the bilateral relationships to a breaking point. Additionally, British troops were still stationed in the West, occupying many forts there; American properties seized by the British soldiers during the American Revolution had not been restored or paid for yet by the British government; and the British navy impressed American sailors and seized 250 ships in the West French Indies (Benson et al., 2009, p. 815). Hence, the two countries seemed to be drifting towards an armed conflict. Thus, to avoid such a bad scenario, President George Washington sent John Jay, the Supreme Court chief justice, to London to negotiate a peace treaty with Great Britain. Negotiations resulted in a treaty called the John Jay Treaty, signed in London on November 19, 1794 (Benson et al., 2009).

The Jay's Treaty of 1794 was a follow-up to the Paris Treaty of 1783 and was supposed to establish peace and promote a good bilateral relationship between the two countries. Thus, under the Jay Treaty, Great Britain agreed to compensate for the American seized ships, restore the American trading privileges in British ports and East Indies, vacate the Northwest Territory, and end discrimination against American commerce. The United States, for its part, agreed to open the Mississippi River for the British sailors, promised to redeem its debts owed to its British creditors, and close its ports to the outfitting of privateers for enemies of Great Britain (Benson et al., 2009).

However, the Jay Treaty was criticized by Americans for being too generous in favor of the British, causing a division among both politicians and citizens and provoking a furious debate in Congress. Though it failed to resolve some of the hot and divisive problems, such as the impressment of American sailors along with breaking American neutrality, the treaty

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managed to establish peace and stabilize the bilateral relationship. President George Washington, though disappointed, signed the Jay Treaty, believing that it was the only solution to avoid war with Great Britain (Benson et al., 2009).

6. The Farewell Address

President Washington's leadership was special and crucial to the development and growth of the United States. He organized a national government, promoted policies for the settlement of territories gained from Great Britain and Spain, stabilized the northwestern frontier, and oversaw the admission of three new states to the Union: Vermont in 1791, Kentucky in 1792, and Tennessee in 1796. He ruled America for two four-year terms after being elected for the presidency twice: in 1789 and 1793. Weary of the responsibilities of the presidency and worn out by the strife and turmoil of politics, he preferred to retire, refusing to rule for a third term. Accordingly, he delivered his farewell speech to the American people in the fall of 1796.

Washington's farewell speech affected both the country's domestic and foreign policies for many years. He cautioned Americans against the dangers of factional and sectional jealousy and excess of party spirit. Also, he stressed the importance of maintaining a strong union and national government. Adding to that, he advised the nation and his successors to steer clear of perpetual alliance with foreign nations, suggesting that America's best course was to avoid getting involved in European affairs. Thus, by the end of his second term in March 1797, President George Washington retired to his home at Mount Vernon, where he died in December 1799.

7. Conclusion

To sum up, George Washington's government contributed massively to the development of the United States of America by laying the foundations of a future, powerful nation. His skillful leadership lightened the way for his successors and remained a bright model for politicians and leaders, not only Americans but also others worldwide. He put America on the right pathway to progress and prosperity by avoiding wars and focusing on developing its economy, establishing peace, promoting unity and national integrity, and strengthening its army. He therefore sent John Jay to negotiate a peace treaty with Great Britain just to preserve his country's safety and independence. In addition, his government admitted three new states

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to the Union, Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee, thereby increasing the number of states to sixteen. All in all, Washington did great in pushing America forward toward prosperity and development.



8. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

1. Who among the following names did not make part of George Washington's cabinet?
 - a) Thomas Jefferson
 - b) James Madison
 - c) John Jay

2. Who was George Washington's Secretary of War?
 - a) Thomas Jefferson
 - b) John Jay
 - c) Henry Knox

3. Who did George Washington send to London to negotiate a peace treaty?
 - a) John Adams
 - b) John Rutledge
 - c) John Jay

4. How many points did Hamilton's financial program comprise?
 - a) 12 points
 - b) 10 points
 - c) 08 points

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10. Further Readings

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Lecture 4: America Under the Administration of John Adams

Learning Objectives: By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the reasons that led to the Quasi-War between the USA and France, and the Alien and Sedition Acts.

Key Concepts: The Quasi-War, the Alien and Sedition Acts.

Teaching Strategy: Lecturing.

Teaching Material: Maps, videos, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

John Adams was America's first Vice President (1789-1797) under the government of President George Washington and the nation's second president from 1797 to 1801. During the American Revolutionary War, John Adams proved to be one of the strong patriots and served as Massachusetts' delegate to both the First and Second Continental Congress (Benso et al., 2009). He was the first of a long line of Adams men to rise to historical prominence, and he might be remembered as one of the most influential figures of the U.S. Revolution (1775-1783). He was famous for his vocal opinions and eloquent writings. Adding to that, Adams was known for his good background in legal and philosophical studies, which made him a favorable choice for contributing to penning several documents of the American Revolution, such as the letters of complaint addressed to the British Crown, the U.S. Constitution, and Massachusetts' Constitution. Therefore, given their great influence during the Revolution, John Adams, along with Thomas Jefferson, was called the voice of the Revolution.

2. Early Life

John Adams was born on the 30th of October, 1735, in Quincy, Massachusetts. He was a direct descendant of a Puritan from Massachusetts Bay Colony. His father, also called John Adams, was a farmer and an artisan who specialized in making leather goods and also worked as a town selectman, church deacon, and lieutenant in the local militia (Benson et al., 2009, p. 11). Also, John Adams had two brothers, Peter and Elihu. As for his education, John Adams was educated by two private tutors and joined a public school called Dame School. Thereafter,

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he joined Harvard University in 1751, where he pursued his studies to be a clergyman. After four years, he graduated in 1755 and eventually ranked in the top three (Benson et al., 2009). Afterward, he embarked on studying law under a Harvard graduate lawyer, James Putnam, and returned to his parents in 1758 to start his career as a lawyer. Socially speaking, he married Abigail Smith, the daughter of a clergyman, in 1764, and had five children together. The Second of his children, John Quincy, became America's sixth president.

3. Political Career

John Adams quickly distinguished himself with his commitment to the national cause, thereby catching the attention of the American public. His opposition to the Stamp Act of 1765 was remarkable. He wrote a letter to the British Parliament in response to the imposition of the Stamp Act titled *A Dissertation on the Canon and Feudal Law*, in which he argued that the Stamp Act stripped American colonists of their natural rights to be taxed by consent and tried by a jury of peers (Adams, 1765).

We have been told that “the word rights is an offensive expression;” “that the king, his ministry, and parliament, will not endure to hear Americans talk of their rights;” “that Britain is the mother and we the children, that a filial duty and submission is due from us to her,” and that “we ought to doubt our own judgment, and presume that she is right, even when she seems to us to shake the foundations of government;” Are we the children of Great Britain any more than the cities of London, Exeter, and Bath? Are we not brethren and fellow subjects with those in Britain, only under a somewhat different method of legislation, and a totally different method of taxation? But admitting we are children, have not children a right to complain when their parents are attempting to break their limbs, to administer poison, or to sell them to enemies for slaves? (Adams, 1765)

Adams did not stop there. Two months later, he denounced the Stamp Act before Massachusetts' governor and his council. In 1770, he agreed to represent and defend nine British Soldiers who were tried for killing five American civilians in what became historically known as the Boston Massacre. The jury acquitted Captain Thomas Preston, the leader of the British soldiers, along with his six soldiers, but convicted the two others of manslaughter (Benson et al., 2009, p. 181). However, he was sharply criticized by his fellow American colonists for defending the British soldiers, causing him big trouble and negatively affecting his law practice. But later on, his actions proved his courage to stand by the right, gaining him a reputation as a brave, generous, and fair man.

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In 1774, John Adams was elected to the Massachusetts Assembly and was one of the five delegates to the First Continental Congress. In 1779, Adams was selected to be one of America's envoys to Paris to negotiate the Paris Treaty with Great Britain. After the independence in 1783, he stayed in Europe, negotiating many commercial treaties with several European countries. In 1785, he was appointed by the Confederation government to be the first American minister to Great Britain (Benson et al., 2009, p. 13). After spending nearly ten years in Europe, he returned home in 1788. A year later, he was placed on the ballot for America's Presidential elections of 1789. As expected, George Washington was unanimously elected by the electors of the Electoral College, thereby proclaiming him the first President of the USA, while John Adams came in second place after securing the second highest number of votes from the Electoral College and thus was proclaimed Vice President George Washington.

4. The 1796 Presidential Elections

After the retirement of President George Washington in 1797, after spending two terms, candidates from both political parties announced their candidacy to run for the office of the U.S. President. John Adams was the nominee of the Federalist Party, while Thomas Jefferson was chosen to be the nominee of the Anti-Federalist Party, also known as the Democratic-Republican Party. Hence, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia and John Adams of Massachusetts vied to succeed George Washington in the presidency. After a nasty presidential campaign, John Adams won the elections over Thomas Jefferson after getting 71 votes, thereby proclaiming him the Second President of the United States, while Thomas Jefferson got 68 votes and thus was proclaimed to be the nation's Second Vice President (Remini, 2008, p. 62). Other candidates included Thomas Pinckney (1746-1825) of South Carolina, Aaron Burr (1756-1836) of New York, Samuel Adams (1722-1803) of Massachusetts, Oliver Ellsworth (1745-1807) of Connecticut, George Clinton (1739-1812), John Jay (1745-1829), James Iredell (1751-1799), Samuel Johnston (1733-1816), George Washington, John Henry, and Charles C. Pinckney (1746-1825) as displayed in Table 2 below (Editors of National Archive, 2024).

It is notable to mention that the number of states in the 1796 presidential elections increased to sixteen states after admitting the three states of Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Also, the number of electors (slate) accorded to each state changed after the census conducted in 1790. Accordingly, the Electoral College responsible for electing the U.S. President changed and increased to 138 electors as displayed in Table 2 and Figure 5 below.

State	Electoral Votes of Each State	John Adams	Thomas Jefferson	Thomas Pinckney	Aaron Burr	Samuel Adams	Oliver Ellsworth	Others ¹¹
Connecticut ¹²	9	9	-	4	-	-	-	5
Delaware	3	3	-	3	-	-	-	-
Georgia ¹³	4	-	4	-	-	-	-	4
Kentucky	4	-	4	-	4	-	-	-
Maryland ¹⁴	10	7	4	4	3	-	-	2
Massachusetts ¹⁵	16	16	-	13	-	-	1	2
New Hampshire	6	6	-	-	-	-	6	-
New Jersey	7	7	-	7	-	-	-	-
New York	12	12	-	12	-	-	-	-
North Carolina ¹⁶	12	1	11	1	6	-	-	5
Pennsylvania	15	1	14	2	13	-	-	-
Rhode Island	4	4	-	-	-	-	4	-

¹¹ The following candidates also received electoral votes: George Clinton (7); John Jay (5); James Iredell (3); Samuel Johnston (2); George Washington (2); John Henry (2); Charles C. Pinckney (1).

¹² Electors for Connecticut also cast 5 votes for John Jay, of New York.

¹³ Electors for Georgia also cast 4 votes for George Clinton, of New York.

¹⁴ Electors for Maryland also cast 2 votes for John Henry, of Maryland.

¹⁵ Electors for Massachusetts also cast 2 votes for Samuel Johnston, of North Carolina.

¹⁶ Electors for North Carolina also cast 3 votes for James Iredell, of North Carolina, 1 vote for George Washington, of Virginia, and 1 vote for Charles C. Pinckney, of South Carolina.

Table 2. Results of the 1796 Presidential Elections
Lecture 4 **America Under the Administration of John Adams**

South Carolina	8	-	8	8	-	-	-	-
Tennessee	3	-	3	-	3	-	-	-
Vermont	4	4	-	4	-	-	-	-
Virginia ¹⁷	21	1	20	1	1	15	-	4
Totals	138	71	68	59	30	15	11	22

Source: National Archive, retrieved from https://www.archives.gov/electoral-college/1796-0?_ga=2.170430752.1693640873.1742748997-123424702.174041278

¹⁷ Electors for Virginia also cast 3 votes for George Clinton, of New York, and 1 vote for George Washington, of Virginia.

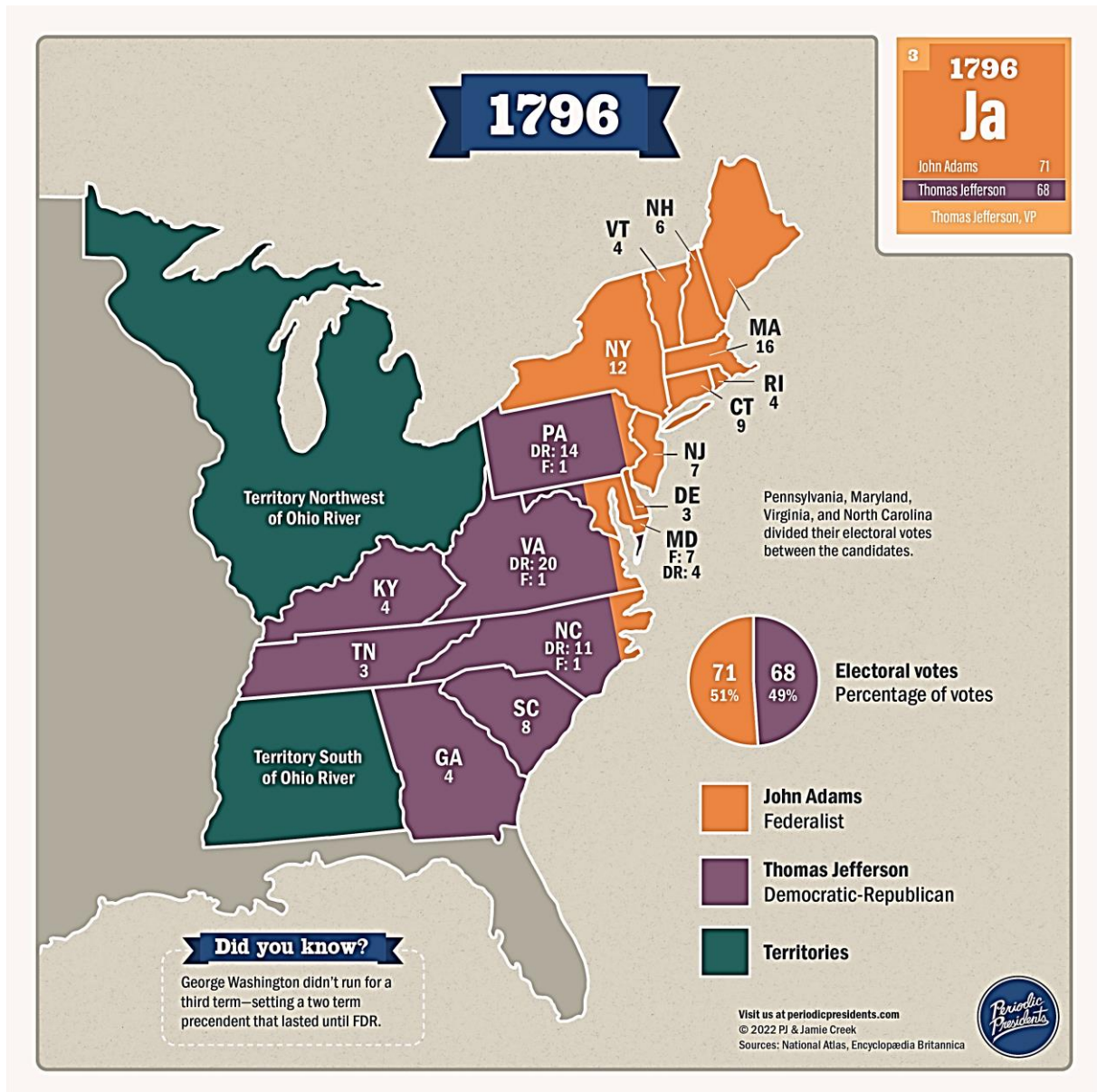


Figure 6. Electoral College in the 1796 Presidential Elections

5. The XYZ Affair

The XYZ Affair was a foreign relations crisis between the United States and France that took place in 1797. At that time, the United States was still a young nation, thereby trying very hard to remain neutral by avoiding involvement in the European conflicts and maintaining the same distance from France and Great Britain, who were fighting each other at that time.

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During the Revolutionary War, the United States signed a treaty of alliance with France in 1778 called the Franco-American Treaty of Alliance. By the terms of this treaty, both countries vowed to help each other and fight side by side to defend each other against any attack from foreign powers. However, following the outbreak of the 1793 war between France and Great Britain, the United States abrogated the terms of the Franco-American Treaty of Alliance by issuing the Proclamation of Neutrality of 1793, which declared the United States a neutral country. This American step angered the French government so much, considering it a betrayal. Moreover, the Jay Treaty of 1794, signed between the USA and Great Britain, strained America's relationship with France to a breaking point. In effect, shortly before the end of his second term in 1797, President George Washington sent Charles C. Pinckney (1757-1824) to France as America's minister. Angered by the Jay Treaty, France refused his accreditation, ordering him to leave. After the accession of John Adams to the presidency, France nullified the Franco-American Treaty of Alliance of 1778 and ordered its navy to start capturing American ships (Benson et al., 2009).

Shortly after his inauguration, President John Adams addressed a special session of Congress in May 1797, where he sharply criticized the French behavior and requested money to build the U.S. Army and Navy. Meanwhile, he planned to send three commissioners to France to negotiate a solution to the ongoing crisis. Comprised of Charles C. Pinckney(1757-1824)¹⁸, John Marshall¹⁹ (1755-1835), and Elbridge Gerry²⁰ (1744-1814), the commission sailed to France in July 1797 and arrived in Paris in October of the same year.

¹⁸ Charles Cotesworth Pinckney was a prominent American politician, military leader, and one of the Founding Fathers who acted as the United States Minister to France from 1796 to 1797. He participated in the Constitutional Convention, where he endorsed the Constitution of the United States, and was nominated twice by the Federalist Party for the presidency in 1804 and 1808, though he lost in both elections.

¹⁹ John Marshall was a prominent American statesman, jurist, and Founding Father who held the position of the fourth chief justice of the United States from 1801 until his passing in 1835. He is noted for being the chief justice with the longest tenure and the fourth-longest-serving justice in the history of the U.S. Supreme Court, and he is widely considered one of the most influential justices to ever serve. Before his appointment to the court, Marshall had a brief tenure as both the U.S. Secretary of State under President John Adams and as a U.S. Representative from Virginia, making him one of the few individuals in America to have held a constitutional role in each of the three branches of the United States federal government.

²⁰ Elbridge Thomas Gerry (July 17, 1744 – November 23, 1814) was a merchant, politician, diplomat, and an American Founding Father who held the position of fifth vice president of the United States under President

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The three envoys were supposed to meet the French foreign minister, Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Perigord²¹ (1754-1838). However, de Talleyrand sent three secret agents instead of him to meet the three American envoys. During the meeting, the three secret agents started dictating their conditions for negotiations with the three American commissioners. Their first condition was requesting President Adams' apology for the harsh words he said about France. The second condition was paying 1.2 million livres (an old French currency) and loaning France 32 million Florins (another form of currency previously circulating in Europe) to fund its war against Great Britain (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1737). In response, the American commissioners refused to yield to the conditions dictated by the three agents and were threatened in the coming months as negotiations made no progress.

6. The Quasi-War

In March 1798, dispatches from the three commissioners reached the American government, bearing bad news about the developments of the negotiations with the French government. Secretary of State, Timothy Pickering (1745-1829), was so irritated to read that their commissioners were bribed and threatened by the three French agents. President John Adams was infuriated, too. Congress asked to see the dispatches sent from the three envoys, but John Adams tried to withhold them by using the executive privilege to withhold information from Congress (Benson et al., 2009). But under the pressure of Congress, Adams finally shared them with Congressmen after substituting the names of the three French agents with X, Y, and Z, thereby terming the affair the XYZ Affair. He did so because he feared for the safety of the three American commissioners. In response to the news, Americans got very angry and asked

James Madison from 1813 until his passing in 1814. The term gerrymandering for political district manipulation originates from his name.

²¹ Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord (born on 2 February 1754 – died on 17 May 1838), was the 1st Prince of Benevento and later Prince of Talleyrand. He was a secular clergyman from France, a statesman, and a prominent diplomat. After completing his theological studies, he took on the role of Agent-General of the Clergy in 1780. Shortly before the onset of the French Revolution in 1789, he was appointed as the Bishop of Autun. Talleyrand operated at the highest levels of various French administrations, often serving as foreign minister or in another diplomatic role. He represented France at the Congress of Vienna. His career encompassed the reigns of Louis XVI, the events of the French Revolution, as well as the periods of Napoleon, Louis XVIII, Charles X, and Louis Philippe I. Although those he worked for frequently had reservations about him, they recognized him as exceptionally valuable. The name "Talleyrand" has become synonymous with shrewd and cynical diplomacy.

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to declare war on France. They raised the slogan, “Millions for defense but not one for tribute” (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1737). Thenceforth, the U.S. government increased its expenses on developing the military. Meanwhile, both navies of the USA and France were ready to attack each other. John Adams called this situation a “half-war” or a “quasi-war”.

7. Alien and Sedition Acts

Following ascending to the presidency in March 1797, President John Adams ruled America for only one four-year term, which was so eventful as his administration faced domestic and foreign challenges. The ongoing war between Great Britain and France troubled the United States and always threatened its neutrality, damaging the bilateral relations with France which escalated into a quasi-war between the navies of the two countries. Domestically, the political differences between the then political parties, the Federalist and Republican-Democratic parties grew dramatically over several issues, particularly with the escalated tension with France. As a matter of fact, though the French actions towards the United States caused resentment from the majority of Americans, many Democratic-Republican Americans still sympathized with the ideals of the French Revolution that resulted in the overthrow of the French king Louis XVI, while distrusting the British. The Federalists, who were always against bearing foreign sentiments of loyalty, suspected the loyalty of thousands of French West Indian refugees who flocked to the United States in their hope of evading revolutionary terror. More importantly, what increased the Federalists’ fear was the fact that refugees often aligned themselves with the Anti-Federalist Party. As a result, distrust of the aliens culminated in the passage of a series of laws known as the Alien and Sedition Acts, passed in June and July 1798, that placed restrictions on both citizens and aliens in the United States of America (Remini, 2008). These laws were meant to anticipate any subversive action conducted by aliens or citizens who oppose the federal government (Benson et al., 2009, p. 45).

As a matter of fact, these laws belied the nations’ promises to guarantee and preserve individuals’ basic freedoms and rights required for a democratic life. The only explanation that could be provided for issuing these Acts was the genuine fear Americans felt for their safety and national security. The Alien and Sedition Acts comprised four acts: the Naturalization Act, the Alien Act, the Alien Enemies Act, and the Sedition Act. Accordingly, three of these Acts concerned aliens in the United States, while the fourth one concerned American citizens.

7.1 Naturalization Act

The First of the Alien and Sedition Acts is the Naturalization Act, which was passed on the 18th of June, 1798. This Act increased the probationary period (length of residency) an alien has to spend in America before being able to apply for American citizenship. Before the passage of this Act, aliens had to reside for five years in America to be able to apply for American citizenship; however, the Naturalization Act increased it to fourteen years, thereby suppressing alien citizenship and thus alien votes, which detrimentally affected the Democratic-Republican Party (Benson et al., 2009). This Act, however, was canceled in 1802 and was replaced by the 1795 Naturalization Act, which was reenacted.

7.2 Alien Friends Act

The Alien Act was passed on the 25th of June, 1798, authorizing the U.S. President to deport all aliens deemed to be dangerous to the peace, safety, and national security of the United States (Levy, 2000). It also targeted aliens involved in machinations against the government of the United States.

7.3 Alien Enemies Act

The Alien Enemies Act was passed on the 6th of July, 1798, and authorized the U.S. President to seize, jail, or deport all aliens, dangerous or not, aged 14 years and upward who belong to a country or a government with which the United States is at war. This law, along with the Alien Friends Act, expired in 1800.

7.4 Sedition Act

The Sedition Act was passed on the 14th of July, 1798, aimed at placing restrictions on “domestic traitors” and thus made it a federal crime for anyone guilty of conspiring to thwart the government’s operations. Besides, the Act made it a federal crime for anyone who writes, speaks, or publishes anything of a “false, scandalous, and malicious nature” against the U.S. President, the federal government, or Congress (Levy, 2000). This Act proved to be the most controversial of the four Acts as it restricted individuals’ basic rights guaranteed under the First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution.

8. Backlash

With no public way to criticize the federal government for the measures put in place by the Alien and Sedition Acts that abridged individuals' basic freedoms, opponents of the said measures took the cause to state legislatures. Thomas Jefferson and James Madison reacted to the Sedition Act by writing a set of resolutions that were passed by the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky. These resolutions condemned the four Acts as being unconstitutional, affirming the states' right "to judge for themselves the mode and measure of redress whenever the national government assumed powers not specifically delegated to it by the Constitution. Moreover, the states were duty-bound to interpose for arresting the progress of the evil" (Remini, 2000, p. 64). Most importantly, some went beyond believing that the states have the right and the obligation to repeal and object to federal laws whenever the federal government acts incorrectly. Even the friends of Alexander Hamilton disliked President John Adams for the measures introduced by the Four Acts, in addition to the fact that he failed to address Congress to get the green light to launch a war against France (Remini, 2000). Accordingly, though succeeded in avoiding war with France and maintaining peace, John Adams' reputation began to decline, paving the way for the rise of Thomas Jefferson to the Presidency.

9. Conclusion

The early years of the United States were eventful and full of domestic and international challenges. Like the two terms of President George Washington, President John Adams seemed to be unlucky, as his administration faced a lot of challenges. The ongoing European war between France and Great Britain plagued Adams' Administration. Angered by the Jay Treaty, the USA signed with Great Britain, France began impressing American ships. Adams' Administration tried to find a peaceful and diplomatic solution to the escalating disagreements with France. To this end, he sent three commissioners to Paris to negotiate a peace treaty; however, France humiliated the envoys of Adams' administration, dictating humiliating conditions to start negotiations, but they refused and sent dispatches to America informing their administration about the progress of the negotiations. Angered by the humiliation the three envoys were subjected to, Americans asked to declare war against France. Consequently, the navies of both the USA and France were on the verge of fighting each other, leading to the Quasi-War. This crisis led the federal government to turn the entirety of its attention to the domestic front by passing a series of four acts meant to place restrictions on both the aliens and citizens deemed dangerous to the peace, safety, and national security of the

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United States. These acts negatively affected the reputation of John Adams and his Federalist administration, thereby causing him to lose the 1800 presidential elections in favor of Thomas Jefferson who became America's third President.



10. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

1. Who, among the following names, was the vice-president of John Adams?
 - a) Alexander Hamilton.
 - b) John Jay
 - c) Thomas Jefferson.
2. How many states did participate in the 1796 presidential elections?
 - a) 13 states
 - b) 20 states
 - c) 16 states
3. What was the number of electoral voters in the 1796 presidential elections?
 - a) 183 electoral votes
 - b) 173 electoral votes
 - c) 138 electoral votes
4. What were the demands of the French foreign minister?
5. What was the reaction of both President John Adams and the American people?
6. What was the reason behind the passage of the Alien and Sedition Acts?

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Lecture 5: The Westward Expansion

Learning Objectives: By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the territorial acquisitions the United States made throughout its history.

Key Concepts: The Manifest Destiny, The Paris Treaty of 1783, the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, the Red River Basin Treaty of 1818, the Adams-Onís Treaty of 1819, Texas Annexation in 1845, the Oregon Treaty, The Mexican-American War, The Guadalupe-Hidalgo Treaty of 1843, The California Gold Rush of 1849, The Gadsden Treaty of 1853, the Alaska Purchase in 1867, and Hawaii Annexation in 1898.

Teaching Strategy: Lecturing

Teaching Material: Maps, videos, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

Following its independence in 1783, the United States pursued its long journey toward prosperity and development in different fields: economic, social, cultural, and political, to name a few. This was nothing short of the embodiment of the golden words of the Declaration of Independence of 1776 which says that “We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men and women are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness” (Arnold, 2018, p. 166). Therefore, all U.S. Presidents strived to incarnate the words of the Declaration of Independence by laying the foundation of a strong and powerful nation that works for the best interests of its citizens, thereby achieving their American Dream. Therefore, America witnessed rapid growth after independence at all levels, namely in terms of area and population, after receiving a series of waves of immigrants who flocked to it, hoping to achieve their American Dream.

2. The Manifest Destiny

Manifest Destiny is a concept that emerged in the USA around the 1820s (Benson et al., 2009). It was first used by the sixth U.S. President, John Quincy Adams (1767-1848; served from 1825-1829). Speaking for millions of citizens, he declared that “it was God’s will that a large and powerful United States would encompass the entire North American continent” (Benson et al., 2009, p. 953). This emerging concept comprises a moral virtue that refers to the

idea that Americans have a God-given mission to spread and develop the northern American continent. More importantly, President Quincy Adams referred to the fact that Americans have a natural right to grow and prosper, which is the exact interpretation of the Pursuit of Happiness that came in the Declaration of Independence. However, the one who is credited with the coinage of the term was the journalist John Louis O'Sullivan (1813-1895) in his article written for the *United States Magazine and Democratic Review* in 1845. He defined it as being "the nation's divine and historical destiny "to overspread the continent allotted by Providence [God's design] for the free development of our yearly multiplying millions" (Benson et al., 2009, p. 953). Accordingly, this concept justifies Americans expanding their territories under the pretext of achieving their American Dream of growth, development, and prosperity.

3. The Northwest Territories 1783

Americans' intention to grow and prosper began right after independence, with the Treaty of Paris of 1783, which opened the appetite for acquiring new lands westward of the Appalachian Mountains. Effectively, the Paris Treaty was so generous in favor of the Americans as it not only granted the thirteen colonies their independence but also granted them an additional large swath of land called the Northwest Territories. Signed by Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and John Jay and ratified by the Continental Congress on January 14, 1783, the Paris Treaty mandated the following:

- ✘ Great Britain finally gave independence to the former colonies as a new and independent nation: the United States of America.
- ✘ Defined the U.S. border with Great Britain, granting the Northwest Territory to the United States.
- ✘ Secured fishing rights to the Grand Banks and other waters off the British-Canadian coastline for American boats.
- ✘ Opened up the Mississippi River to navigation by Citizens of both the United States and Great Britain.
- ✘ Resolved issues with American debts owed to British creditors.
- ✘ Provided for the fair treatment of American citizens who had remained loyal to Great Britain during the war.

Accordingly, the United States made its first step toward expansion thanks to the Paris Treaty, thereby paving the way for further territorial acquisitions in the coming years.

4. The Louisiana Purchase of 1803

The Second biggest and most historic territorial acquisition was made by the Administration of the third U.S. President, Thomas Jefferson. After defeating John Adams in the 1800 presidential election, after receiving 73 votes in return for 65 for John Adams, as displayed in Figure 7, Thomas Jefferson made his great achievement ever known as the Louisiana Purchase of 1803.

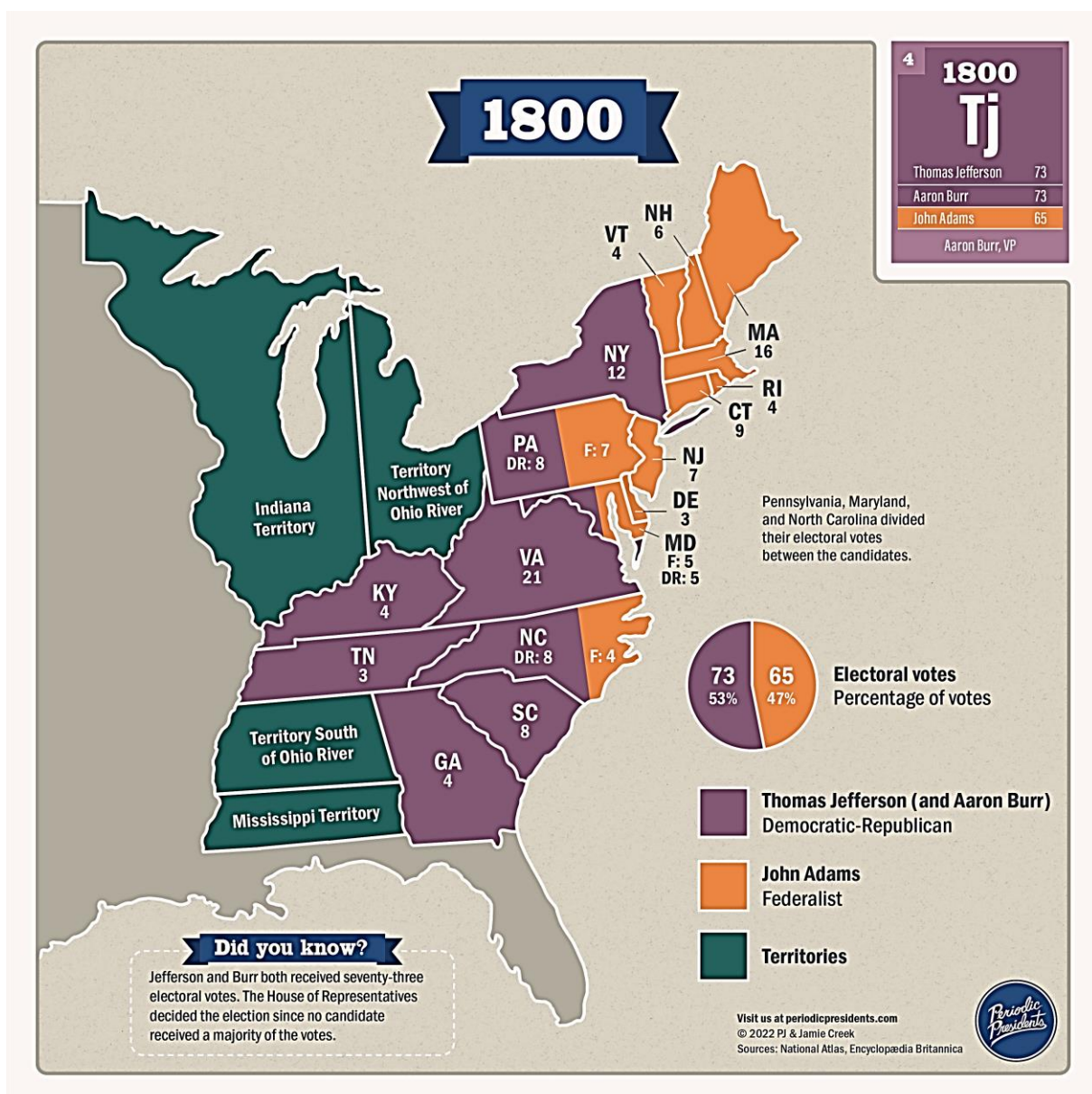


Figure 7. The Results of the 1800 Presidential Elections

France's control over the Louisiana territory stretching from the Great Lakes in the North to the Gulf coast in New Orleans in the South began by the late 16th century. Much of this territory was ceded to Spain during the seven years of the French-Indian War (1756-1763) (Lewis, 2020). Following America's independence, Spain closed the Mississippi River to American Commerce till signing the Treaty of San Lorenzo of 1795. The latter Treaty, also known as the Pinckney Treaty or the Madrid Treaty, defined the southern boundary between the United States and Spanish Florida at the 31st parallel that goes from the Atlantic Coast to the Mississippi Valley (Rust, 2023). Also, this treaty granted the United States access to the port of New Orleans as well as the right to deposit its goods in Spanish ports for three years without paying any duties.

In 1800, France regained its control over the Louisiana territory while administratively remaining under the Spanish Administration. After his inauguration on the 4th of March, 1801, the administration of Thomas Jefferson began negotiating long-term access to the Mississippi River because they feared that the British would gain control of Louisiana after defeating the French in their ongoing war. They also feared that the American settlers might create their own nation-states along the Mississippi River, thus negotiating their own treaty to access it with the French government (Lewis, 2020). These worries further increased after closing the Mississippi Valley again and banning Americans from the access of it, pushing some Federalists to pressure to declare war against Spain.

In 1800, Louisiana was under French control. Two years later, France, which was under the leadership of Napoleon Bonaparte (1769-1821), was waging a new war against its traditional enemy, Great Britain. To equip his army, Napoleon needed money. He therefore offered to sell the French territory in North America, called Louisiana, named after the French King Louis XIV (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 24). Americans, for their part, were afraid that Napoleon would send French soldiers and settlers to Louisiana, which would block their dream to further expand toward the west of the Mississippi River; therefore, they worried so much about this matter. However, they were lucky when Napoleon offered to sell the whole territory of Louisiana to America in return for \$15 million only (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 40). As a result, America's size nearly doubled as it gained 828.000 square miles or rather 1.287.200 km² (Lewis, 2020).

5. The Convention of 1818

On the 20th of October, 1818, the United States, under the presidency of James Monroe (1758-1831; served from 1817-25), signed the Treaty of 1818 with Great Britain, which established the right boundaries between the two countries (Uphaus-Conner, 2011). By the terms of this treaty, the true boundary between the USA and Great Britain was determined by the 49th parallel. Additionally, the Treaty of 1818 secured fishing rights for American fishermen along the Newfoundland and Labrador coast. Also, the Treaty provided for joint control of the Oregon Territory, which remained under the U.S. and British control until 1846.

6. The Adams-Onis Treaty of 1819

The Adams-Onis Treaty was signed between the United States and Spain on the 22nd of February, 1819, by the American Secretary of State John Quincy Adams and the Spanish foreign minister, Adams De Onis. Regarded as a resounding diplomatic success for John Quincy Adams, the treaty tackled three major issues: the western boundary of the Louisiana Purchase, Texas, and the Floridas (Rust, 2023). During negotiations, John Quincy Adams insisted that Spain would cede both East and West Florida, contending that the West of Florida made part of the Louisiana Purchase while East Florida had been used to support American enemies. During negotiations, Quincy Adams tried to extend the boundary with Spain to include Texas, but he only managed to settle the boundary between the USA and Spain to the Sabine River for Texas. Moreover, Quincy Adams succeeded in pushing the boundary line out to the Pacific Ocean at the 42nd Parallel, thereby empowering the American position in the Oregon Territory. Accordingly, the Adams-Onis Treaty of 1819 mandated the following (Rust, 2023):

- ✎ The Adams-Onis Treaty is also known as the Transcontinental Treaty.
- ✎ The provisions of the treaty set new boundaries for the territory of the United States and New Spain.
- ✎ Spain ceded East Florida and West Florida to the United States.
- ✎ Spain dropped all claims to the Oregon Territory, and the United States dropped claims to Texas.
- ✎ The United States territory spanned North America above the 42nd parallel.

As a result, thanks to the Adams-Onis Treaty, the United States acquired the territory of both East and West Florida in exchange for accepting paying American citizens' legal claims against Spain, which amounted to \$5 million. Also, America ceded its claims to Texas west of

the Sabine River. Last but not least, Spain abandoned its claims to the Oregon Territory (Rust, 2023). Thus, this treaty further enlarged the size of the United States, granting it access to more territories, shores, and ports in the Mexican Gulf.

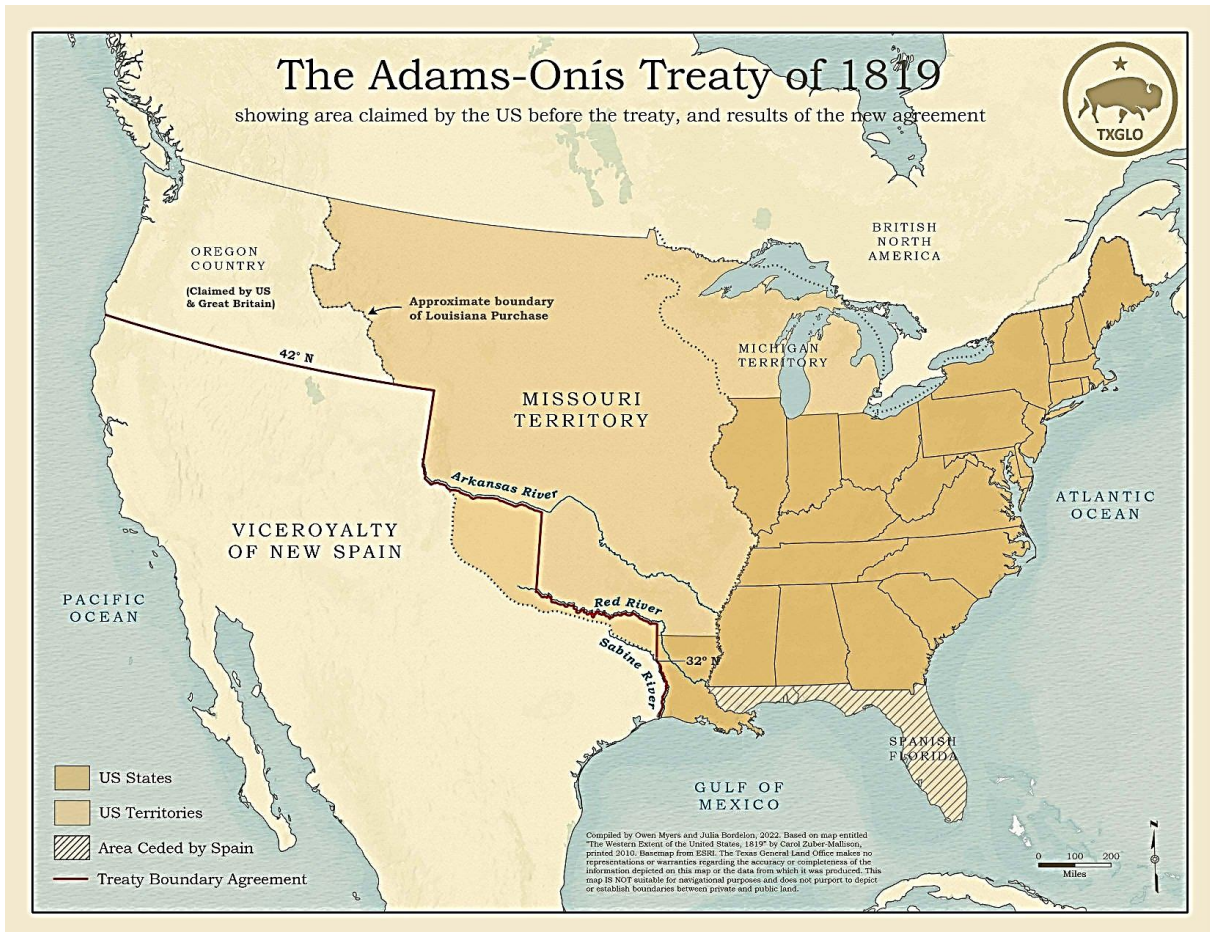


Figure 8. Adams-Onís Treaty of 1819

Source. Turk, E. (2023). Adams-Onís Treaty. TSHA.

<https://www.tshaonline.org/handbook/entries/adams-onis-treaty>

7. The Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842

The Webster-Ashburton Treaty was signed between the United States and British Canada on the 9th of August, 1842, to solve some boundary issues caused by the ill-interpretation of the Paris Treaty of 1783 (Nash, 2010). In plain English, this treaty came to solve two main issues: the first one boundary issue between the states of Maine and the

Canadian Provinces of Quebec and New Brunswick. The second issue was related to the true boundary from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods in the old Northwest Territory.

The Treaty of Paris of 1783 granted the Northwest and Northeast territories to the United States, leaving ambiguity regarding the true boundaries in the Northwest and Northeast since there was a growing disagreement over the identity of rivers specified in the treaty. These differences in interpreting the terms of the Treaty of Paris due to the failure to agree on the identity of rivers specified as the true boundary between the two countries, the USA and Canada, led Brunswick officials to arrest some Americans in the disputed areas (Nash, 2010, p. 394). In response, the state of Maine called on the militia and seized the territory in question, leading to the Aroostook War (1838-1839). In 1842, the conditions for a settlement were ripe. Negotiations were initiated between the two countries by the American Secretary of State Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton, appointed by the New Tory Government in Great Britain. The negotiations resulted in crafting a treaty called the Webster-Ashburton Treaty that provided for the following points:



Figure 9. Growth of the United States 1783-1853

Source. <https://ticonderogasummer.wordpress.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/11/labeled-westward-expansion-map.jpg>

Webster and Ashburton agreed on dividing the disputed territory, granting America 7,015 square miles while Great Britain took 5,012 square miles (Office of the Historian, Foreign Service Institute, n.d.). Besides, the two sides agreed on the true boundary line that goes through the Great Lakes to the Lake of the Woods. Last but not least, they agreed on provisions for opening navigation for both Americans and Canadians in the various bodies of water. As with the Oregon territory, it was left to a later date (to 1846).

8. Texas Annexation 1845

After declaring war on Spain in 1812, Mexico won its independence on the 24th of August, 1821. The Mexicans fought to establish a new democratic republic.

8.1 Founding the Texas Colony

Stephen Fuller Austin (1793-1836) was the chief colonizer of Texas and was credited with the foundation of the Texas Colony in 1824. His father, Moses Austin, was a mine owner and dreamt of establishing an agricultural society in an empty Spanish region. Effectively, he pursued his dream and decided to found a colony in the Spanish unpopulated region, called Texas. Effectively, in 1821, he received permission from the Spanish government to settle 300 families in an empty area of Texas (Benson et al., 2009). These families agreed to become Spanish subjects in exchange for granting them lands. However, Moses Austin died before achieving his dream. On his deathbed, he asked his son, Stephen Austin, to carry out his work of founding the Texas colony.

After Mexico's independence on August 24, 1821, the Spanish permission to establish the Texas colony that Moses had received from the Spanish authorities became invalid. Therefore, Stephen Austin moved to Mexico City to talk in person to the new Mexican authorities. He stayed in Mexico for nearly a year before receiving a grant from the Mexican government allowing him to establish the Texas colony in early 1823. He returned to Texas and assumed the administration and responsibility of the newly established colony. In 1824, all 300 families received grants of land; besides, the Mexican government allowed additional Anglo-American colonies in Texas, thereby receiving hundreds of American families, whose number amounted to 5,000 by 1830 (Benson et al., 2009).

When the number of Anglo-American settlers grew rapidly in the Texas colony, the Mexican government grew anxious. Therefore, it passed a law on the 6th of April, 1830, which,

among other things, stopped the inflow of further immigrants from the USA into Texas. In response, Stephen Austin lobbied for the cancellation of the law and getting more favorable measures for Texas. He moved to Mexico City to meet the authorities and discuss the matter with them, but could only convince the Mexican government to repeal some of the objectionable aspects of the law. This triggered the dissatisfaction of the immigrants and settlers, thereby calling for a convention in 1832 to discuss the abuses of the Mexican government in Texas. The conventionists drafted a long list of demands to be granted by the Mexican government. In 1833, a second convention was held to pen a provincial constitution for Texas as a separate province within the Mexican Territory. Stephen Austin was chosen by the conventionists to move to Mexico City to hand the draft of the constitution to the Mexican government in 1833 (Benson et al., 2009).

After presenting the draft of Texas's Constitution to the Mexican Government, Stephen Austin sent a letter to the town council in San Antonio in which he described the political situation in Mexico. Having been intercepted by the Mexican authorities, the Mexican Government considered Austin's desire to establish a separate government for the state of Texas a betrayal, thereby arresting him and keeping him in jail till December 1834.

8.2 Revolution and Independence in 1836

During the imprisonment of Stephen Austin, many Texans came to believe that a complete separation from Mexico was necessary. Besides, the Mexican general Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna (1794-1876) established a dictatorship in Mexico (U.S. Department of State, 2011, p. 134). Hence, the Texans began their revolution on the 2nd of October, 1835. Sam Houston (1793-) was chosen to be the commander-in-chief of the Texan Army and signed the Declaration of Independence on the 4th of March, 1836. It is noteworthy to mention that Houston served during the 1812 War between the USA and Great Britain and was a lieutenant under the leadership of General Andrew Jackson (1767-1845).

Houston's skillful leadership, along with his spectacular victory in the Battle of San Jacinto against the Mexican troops led by Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, Texas finally won its independence from Mexico on the 21st of April, 1836 (Benson et al., 2009, p. 724). Thereafter, given his remarkable contribution to the independence of Texas, Sam Houston became the President of the Republic of Texas in the summer of 1836.

8.3 Annexation of Texas in 1845

After independence, Texas remained an independent republic for almost a decade. As president, Houston's main concern was annexing Texas to the United States of America; however, these efforts were obstructed by some difficulties. President Andrew Jackson²² (1767-1845; served 1829-1837) immediately acknowledged the independence of Texas, thus angering the Mexican government, which threatened to declare war in case America annexed Texas. To tell the truth, President Andrew Jackson could not annex Texas due to the fear of war with Mexico, which threatened to declare war against the USA if the latter annexed Texas. Besides, what thwarted the annexation of Texas was the abolitionists' suspicion that southern slaveholders were planning to increase the number of slave states by extending slavery to Texas.

Annexationist efforts were revived in 1842 with President John Tyler²³ (1790-1862; served 1841-1845). He was abetted by a group of expansionists to annex Texas, but his efforts to ratify a treaty of annexation failed due in part to the argument that says that the territories clause (Article IV, Section 3) allows the annexation of dependent territories of other countries, not independent countries themselves, since Texas was an independent country. To overcome this constitutional obstacle, which requires a two-thirds Senate vote to ratify the treaty, President John Tyler recommended annexation through a joint resolution of Congress. Finally, in February 1845, Congressional Democrats enacted a joint resolution announcing the annexation of the Republic of Texas as the 28th state in the United States of America.

²² Andrew Jackson (March 15, 1767 – June 8, 1845) served as the seventh president of the United States from 1829 until 1837. He gained prominence as a general in the U.S. Army and had a career in both chambers of the U.S. Congress. The political beliefs that characterized his presidency formed the foundation for the emergence of Jacksonian democracy. Jackson's legacy is a topic of debate: he has been recognized for championing the rights of working-class Americans and maintaining the unity of the states but has also faced criticism for his discriminatory policies, especially against Native Americans.

²³ John Tyler (March 29, 1790 – January 18, 1862) served as the tenth president of the United States from 1841 to 1845, having briefly held the position of the tenth vice president in 1841. He was elected as vice president on the Whig ticket alongside President William Henry Harrison, taking over the presidency after Harrison passed away just 31 days into his term. Tyler was a strong proponent of states' rights, particularly in relation to slavery, and he only embraced nationalistic policies as president when they did not encroach on the powers of the states. His unexpected ascension to the presidency created challenges for the political aspirations of Henry Clay and other Whig leaders, resulting in Tyler becoming estranged from both major political parties of the time.

9. The Oregon Treaty of 1846

The Convention of 1818, signed between the United States of America and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, established the border between the USA and British Canada along the 49th parallel from Lake of the Woods in the east to the Rocky Mountains in the west. The two nations had also agreed on keeping the Oregon Territory under the joint occupation of both the USA and the United Kingdom for ten years. This arrangement was extended for another ten years in 1827; however, following 1838, the issue of who was right to possess the Oregon territory became increasingly controversial, especially with the start of the mass American immigration along the Oregon Trail in the 1840s (HISTORY.com editors, 2025a).

During the 1840s, American expansionists urged the seizure of the Oregon territory altogether. This demand increased with the rise of Democrat President James Knox Polk²⁴ (1795-1849; served 1845-1849) to the presidency in 1845 after running for the office of the U.S. President under the Platform “Fifty-four forty or fight,” referring to the hope of annexing the whole territory of Oregon to the United States. However, this objective increased the possibility of going to war against the United Kingdom, while the two countries were unwilling to fight against each other. Therefore, to obviate the war, the Oregon Treaty was signed on the 15th of June, 1846. By the terms of the Oregon Treaty, both countries agreed on extending the border between the two countries west along the 49th parallel to the shores of the Pacific Ocean (HISTORY.com editors, 2025a).

²⁴ James Knox Polk (November 2, 1795 – June 15, 1849) served as the 11th president of the United States from 1845 until 1849. As a close associate of Andrew Jackson and a member of the Democratic Party, he strongly supported Jacksonian democracy and the idea of American expansion. In his first year in office, Polk oversaw Texas's admission into the Union, a significant event that contributed to the outbreak of the Mexican–American War. The outcome of that war resulted in a considerable increase in U.S. territory, extending all the way to the Pacific Ocean. Additionally, during his presidency, the territorial dispute with the United Kingdom over Oregon was settled, establishing the current U.S.-Canadian border.

10. The Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty of 1848

The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed on the 2nd of February, 1848, ended the Mexican-American War. The war began in May 1848 following a disagreement between the USA and Mexico over the true border of Texas.

10.1 The Mexican-American War: 1846-1848

The War between Mexico and the United States broke out on the 13th of May, 1846, after the disagreement over the true border of Texas. Following the annexation of Texas, the bilateral relationship was characterized by tension and instability caused by border disputes. Therefore, as tension escalated in July 1845, President James Polk ordered troops to move to the disputed area that lay between the Rio Grande River and the Nueces River (HISTORY.com editors, 2025b). Thereafter, President Polk sent the diplomat John Slidell to Mexico in a bid to reach an agreement with the Mexican government to adjust the true border of Texas in return for the U.S. government's settlement of the U.S. citizens' claims against Mexico, in addition to offering to purchase California and New Mexico. However, following the failure of the mission, General Zachary Taylor²⁵ (1784-1850; served 1849-1850) moved his troops to the Rio Grande River claimed by Texas to be the true border with Mexico (HISTORY.com editors, 2025b). For its part, Mexico claimed that the Nueces River, located to the north of the Rio Grande River, was the true border with Texas; hence, it considered moving American troops to the Rio Grande River as an act of aggression, thereby ordering its army in April 1846 to move to the disputed area. In turn, President Polk viewed the Mexican advance to be an invasion of American soil,

²⁵ Zachary Taylor (November 24, 1784 – July 9, 1850) was a military officer and politician who held the position of the 12th president of the United States, serving from 1849 until his passing in 1850. Taylor was a long-serving officer in the United States Army, advancing to the rank of major general and becoming a national figure due to his successes in the Mexican–American War. Consequently, he was elected to the presidency despite having unclear political views. His primary objective as president was to maintain the Union. He passed away just 16 months into his presidency due to a stomach illness. Taylor had the third shortest presidential term in the history of the U.S. and was the third president, following William Henry Harrison and James K. Polk, whose deaths have been linked to inadequate sanitation in Washington, D.C.

thereby addressing Congress on the 11th of May, 1846, asking for the green light to declare war on Mexico. Effectively, the United States declared war on Mexico on the 13th of May, 1846.

10.2 America Defeats Mexico

After nearly two years of war between the USA and Mexico, the latter surrendered to the United States after the fall of Mexico City in September 1847. Thereafter, peace negotiations began, culminating in the signing of a peace treaty, or rather the Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty. Signed in Mexico on the 2nd of February, 1848, the Guadalupe Hidalgo officially ended the War between the USA and Mexico, recognized the annexation of Texas to the United States of America, granted upper California (today's state of California) to the United States, and almost the current American southwest between the states of California and Texas, and provided protection to the interests of the people who were living in the ceded territories. Furthermore, the Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty traced the border between the USA and Mexico that was defined as the following:

[It goes] from the Gulf of Mexico up the main channel of the Rio Grande to the southern boundary of the Mexican province of New Mexico. The line followed the southern boundary of New Mexico to its western boundary and north to the first branch of the Gila River, then down the Gila to its intersection with the Colorado River, and finally along the old Spanish-Mexican division line between Upper and Lower California. (Pletcher, 2022).

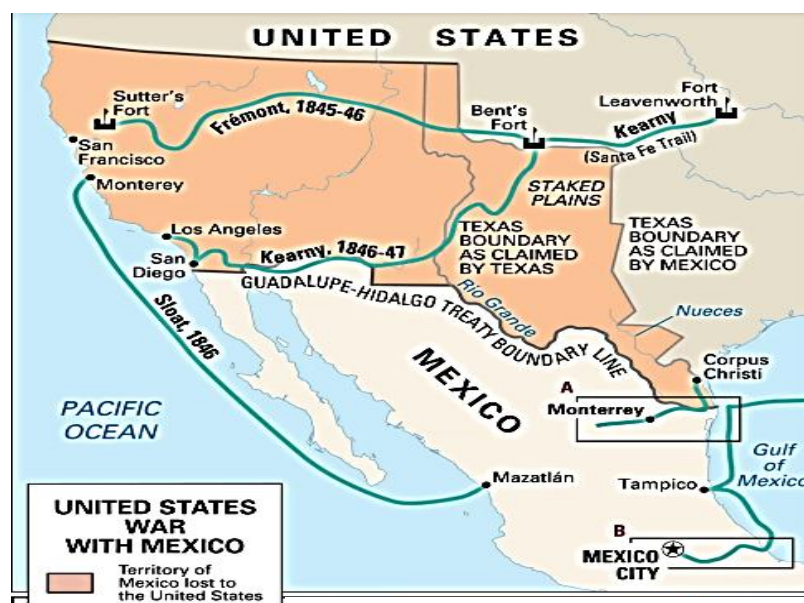


Figure 10. The Mexican Territory Lost after the Mexican-American War 1846-1848
Source: <https://www.britannica.com/summary/Key-Facts-of-the-Mexican-American-War>

Though achieving victory in the Mexican-American War, President Polk's popularity declined after two bloody and costly years of fighting against the Mexicans where thousands of Americans died. Additionally, the war reignited debates over extending slavery to the acquired territories from Mexico, which would lead to the Civil War in 1861. Hence, President Polk did not run for a second term, leaving his office in the White House to his successor, President Zachary Taylor, the former General whose popularity increased following the resounding victory his troops achieved against Mexico. However, President Tylor died after spending sixteen months in the White House due to his illness.

11. The Gadsden Treaty of 1853

The Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty mandated that representatives from the USA and Mexico would trace the true line border between the two countries. Therefore, the two sides agreed on the aforementioned line except for one disputed area: the Mesilla Valley located between the Mexican province of Chihuahua and the two American states of New Mexico and Arizona, as displayed in Figure 11. Both sides claimed ownership of the disputed territory, increasing the possibility of an armed conflict between Chihuahua, Mexico, and New Mexico, the United States (Benson et al., 2009).

To obviate war, President Franklin Pierce²⁶ (1804–1869; served 1853–1857) ordered his minister to Mexico, James Gadsden (1788–1858), to purchase as much of the disputed area as possible. President Pierce was particularly motivated to purchase the disputed area because the latter was considered to be ideal for building the southern transcontinental railroad that goes from Houston in Texas to San Francisco in California.

²⁶ Franklin Pierce (November 23, 1804 – October 8, 1869) served as the 14th president of the United States from 1853 to 1857. As a Northern Democrat, he viewed the abolitionist movement as a serious threat to national unity, which led him to alienate anti-slavery factions by endorsing the Kansas–Nebraska Act and implementing the Fugitive Slave Act. The strife between the North and South persisted after Pierce's term, and after Abraham Lincoln won the 1860 presidential election, the Southern states chose to secede, igniting the American Civil War.



Figure 11. The Gadsden Purchase in 1854

Source: Cavendish (2003). <https://www.historytoday.com/archive/gadsden-purchase>

Gadsden tried to buy as much land from the disputed area as he could, but the Mexican negotiators made several demands on the United States. He refused to yield to any of their demands; instead, he put pressure on the Mexicans by arranging for a military show to convey the message that America was ready to fight to take the disputed area. As a result, both countries signed a purchase treaty called the Gadsden Treaty, signed in 1854, that enabled the USA to buy 30,000 square miles in return for \$10 million (Cavendish, 2003). Opposition to the treaty rose in both countries. In Mexico, opposition to the Gadsden Treaty caused the Mexican

President, Antonio López de Santa Anna²⁷ (1794–1876), to lose his position as the president of Mexico because they feared that the Gadsden purchase would be a sign of further land loss. In the USA, the Gadsden Purchase widened the gap between proslavery activists and abolitionists because the latter feared that the newly acquired territories would be open for slavery (Benson et al., 2009, p. 620).

12. The Alaska Purchase of 1867

The Alaska Purchase was a treaty between the United States and Russia by which the United States bought Alaska from Russia in return for \$7.2 million (Benson et al., 2009). Signed in 1867 by the U.S. foreign minister, William Seward (1801–1872), and the Russian minister Eduard de Stoeckl (1804–1892), the treaty formally acknowledged the transition of the ownership of the Alaska territory from Russia to the USA, thereby adding 586,400 square miles to the U.S. territory. Despite the cheap price which amounted to two cents per acre, however, the Alaska purchase was ridiculed in both Congress and press as “Seward’s Folly” and “Seward’s Icebox,” while President Andrew Johnson²⁸ (1808–1875) was ridiculed as “polar bear garden” (HISTORY.com editors, 2025c). Americans criticized the treaty believing that the price was too much high because they believed that the territory would prove to be worthless. The supporters of the treaty, on the other hand, believed that the Alaska territory would be beneficial given its natural resources that would boost commerce in the regions and develop trade with Asian countries.

²⁷ Antonio de Padua María Severino López de Santa Anna y Pérez de Lebrón (21 February 1794 – 21 June 1876), commonly referred to as Santa Anna, was a Mexican politician, general, and caudillo who held the presidency of Mexico on several occasions between 1833 and 1855. He also took on the role of vice president of Mexico from 1837 to 1839. A significant and contentious figure in 19th-century Mexican politics, he has been described as an "uncrowned monarch," and historians often label the three decades following Mexico's independence as the "Age of Santa Anna."

²⁸ Andrew Johnson (born December 29, 1808 – died July 31, 1875) was the 17th president of the United States, holding office from 1865 to 1869. As the 16th vice president, he took over the presidency after Abraham Lincoln was assassinated. Johnson, a War Democrat, ran alongside Lincoln on the National Union Party ticket during the 1864 presidential election and assumed the presidency as the Civil War came to an end. He supported the rapid reintegration of the seceded states into the Union without safeguards for the newly freed individuals who had been previously enslaved, in addition to offering pardons to ex-Confederates. This stance resulted in tensions with the U.S. Congress, which was dominated by the Republican Party, ultimately leading to his impeachment by the House of Representatives in 1868. He was acquitted in the Senate by a margin of one vote.

The ratification process of the treaty was not easy, given the public outcry. Securing the two-thirds majority in the Senate was achieved only after an impassioned three-hour speech delivered by the chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, Charles Sumner (1811-1874). Accordingly, the treaty was approved on the 9th of April, 1867. Thereafter, the two countries exchanged ratifications on the 20th of June of that year, and the real transition of Alaska ownership took place on the 18th of October, 1867, before paying the agreed price, which occurred a year later, on the 1st of August, 1868 (Benson et al., 2009, p. 47).

13. Hawaii Annexation 1898

Hawaii was the last state to join the Union of the American states on the 21st of August, 1959. It is an archipelago of 132 islands located in the northern Pacific Ocean, about 2,400 miles southwest of San Francisco, California. Its four main islands are Hawaii, Maui, Oahu, and Kauai. The English explorer James Cook (1728–1779) was the first explorer who spotted the island of Oahu in 1778 (Benson et al., 2009). The first constitution of Hawaii was adopted in 1848. Eight years later, a land reform dubbed the Great Mahele boosted the expansion of sugar plantations, leading to the arrival of Chinese workers to work those plantations.

In 1893, a monarchical regime was toppled following an uprising, or rather an American-led revolution, thereby ousting the queen of Hawaii. This political change led to the establishment of a new republic, the Republic of Hawaii, and a new constitution was adopted. Thereafter, the Spanish-American War in 1898 sharpened the American expansionists' desire to bring the Hawaiian territory under American control, owing to its economic importance to the United States, thanks to its sugar plantations. Hence, two years later, the United States annexed Hawaii (Benson et al., 2009, p. 685).

14. Conclusion

The westward expansion enabled the United States of America to enlarge its size by acquiring a series of territories following its independence in 1783. Starting with the Treaty of Paris, the USA gained not only its independence but also the additional territories called the Northwest Territories. Thereafter, America waited till 1803 to gain a large swathe of land called the Louisiana Purchase, which nearly doubled the size of the country. America continued its long journey of acquiring more territories by adjusting its border with British Canada in 1818. A year later, America gained another important territory in the south called the Florida Territory after signing the Adams-Onis Treaty with Spain in 1819. Afterward, the USA gained additional

territory by adjusting its border with British Canada in 1842. In 1845, Texas joined the Union, followed by the Oregon Territory in 1846. Two years later, America defeated Mexico in a two-year war and added new territories from Mexico after signing the Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty in 1848. Five years later, the Gadsden Purchase added another swathe of land to America, followed by the Alaska Purchase in 1867. The last acquisition was in Hawaii in 1900. Accordingly, American leaders did their best to enlarge the size of their country by seizing all possible ways to achieve their goals.



15. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

The Paris Treaty was concluded in:

- a) 1785
- b) 1789
- c) 1783

America purchased Louisiana in return for:

- a) \$150 million
- b) \$ 50 million
- c) \$15 million

What is the main belief upon which rests the Manifest Destiny?

What was the reason behind the outbreak of the Mexican-American War?

What were the main achievements of President James Knox Polk?

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17. Further Readings

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Lecture 6: The American Civil War

Learning Objectives: By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the main reasons behind the outbreak of the Civil War and the remarkable leadership of President Abraham Lincoln to keep the country united.

Key Concepts: The Missouri Compromise of 1820, the Transatlantic Slave Trade, the Tariffs of Abomination of 1828, the nullification Crisis, States' Rights Doctrine, The Compromise of 1850, The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850, The Dred Scott Case, The Bleeding Kansas, The Foundation of the Republican Party, The Seven Debates between Abraham Lincoln and Sen. Steven Douglas

Teaching Strategy: Lecturing.

Teaching Material: Maps, videos, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

Four scores after independence, the American Civil War began in 1861 after a long disagreement over the issue of slavery. Ever since their independence in 1783, Americans fiercely disagreed on abolishing or expanding slavery all over the American territories. The issue of slavery worsened after gaining new territories thanks to the westward expansion and the manifest destiny that widened the size of the United States so that its territories stretched from the eastern coast of the Atlantic Ocean to the western coast of the Pacific Ocean. Disagreement over slavery used to surface each time Congress was about admitting a new state to the Union. They used to raise the question of whether the newly admitted state would be open to slavery or not; the Northerners used to say no to extending slavery to the newly admitted state, while the Southerners used to say yes to extending slavery to the newly admitted states and territories. This is because the southern states' economy depended heavily on agriculture, wherein they relied too much on the free labor the slaves used to provide. Contrary to the Southern states, the Northern states did not rely too much on slaves in developing their economy, which relied chiefly on industry.

2. An Overview of Slavery in the USA

The first African workers arrived in American colonies around 1619 when about twenty slaves were brought to the English colony of Jamestown, Virginia. Their social status was unclear for historians who could not identify whether they were enslaved or they were indentured servants (Benson et al., 2009). Despite their social status, however, their arrival in America marked the beginning of African existence and servitude in the New World. Once there, the slaves were unable to return to their home countries or communities in Africa. They were weak and unable to organize themselves to defend themselves. Most importantly, African slavery became legalized and bolstered by the racist notion that whites are superior to black people.

As time went on, the number of slaves in British Northern America increased in 1700 and amounted to 10% of the existing population. This surge in the number of slaves occurred thanks to the increasing need for more slaves in agriculture. In effect, the colonial economy depended too much on agriculture as the main economic activity. Accordingly, plantations of sugar, rice, coffee, and tobacco spread all over the English colonies, and all required a strong and free workforce. Hence, to meet the increasing need for more free labor, about 5 million Africans were forced into slavery in the New World during the 18th century (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1427).

The movements against enslaving Africans began to surface in the late 17th century. In 1687, slavery was denounced by Pennsylvania Quakers by issuing and publishing pamphlets that denounced slavery. Also, in addition to pamphlets, sermons, newspaper articles, and other antislavery literature were used to denounce slavery and expose its harshness to the public. As a result, antislavery societies began to form by the end of the 17th century.

3. Slaves During the American Revolutionary War

Americans had the potential to end slavery during the American Revolution. This manifested in the Declaration of Independence drafted by the Founding Father, Thomas Jefferson, in 1774 whose preamble maintained that all men are created equal.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among them are Life, Liberty, and the pursuit of Happiness. (Arnold, 2018, p. 165)

This statement encouraged slaves to take part in the American Revolution on the side of Americans who promised to emancipate them after independence. The same promise was presented to the slaves by the British Army in case they fought with them and managed to put down the American Revolution. Accordingly, slaves who sided with Americans became called patriots while those who sided with the British Army were called loyalists because they remained loyal to the British crown.

As aforesaid, Americans were divided on slavery. The northern states were in favor of abolishing slavery since their economy did not require the free labor of slaves. Additionally, there was a growing belief among northern Americans that slavery was an immoral practice that had to be stopped. Therefore, a growing concern of outright abolition of slavery prevailed in Northern states who started passing laws abolishing slavery within their boundaries. Consequently, between 1777 and 1786, all Northern states made laws that gradually or immediately ended slavery within their boundaries.

The southern states, however, had a different stance towards slavery. They considered it paramount for their agriculture as the free and cheap labor of the African working masses was the only way through which they could work their large plantations in the absence of machines. To defend their stance on slavery, southern thinkers based their arguments on history, religion, race, and economic necessity (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1429). They argued that slavery was beneficial for both slaves and masters. Additionally, they felt little guilt and therefore defended it vehemently (U.S. Department of State, 2011). Thus, the Southerners found it impossible to free the slaves because it symbolized the collapse of their economy. Therefore, emancipating slaves in the Northern states was regarded as a genuine threat to the well-being of the Southern states, who completely objected to the idea of abolishing slavery. As a result, over time, the American states were categorized into two parts: abolitionists in the Northern states versus proslavery in the Southern states.

Slavery became a hot issue during the Constitutional Convention in 1787. The Southern states would object to ratifying the Constitution, which would not protect the institution of slavery. After reaching the Great Compromise regarding the shape of the U.S. Congress which comprised two chambers, the House of Representatives in which states would have a certain number of seats that aligns with the population of each state, and the Senate wherein all states would be equally represented with two Senators for each, southern states turned the entirety of their attention to the House of Representatives to increase their seats. To this end, they wanted

to count slavery as part of the population of each state, but the Northerners refused, leading to a deadlock that was obviated by reaching the Three-Fifths Compromise which mandated that each five slaves would be counted as three free men. Another issue that troubled delegates during the Constitutional Convention was the disagreement over ending the slave trade. The Northerners lobbied to end the slave trade in the United States, while the Southern states objected to the idea. To overcome the deadlock, they agreed to delay the end of the slave trade till 1808. Effectively, in 1808, President Thomas Jefferson signed the bill that ended the slave trade, thereby making it illegal the importation of slaves after 1808.

4. The Cotton Gin

The importance of slavery increased even more with the invention of the cotton Gin in 1793 by Eli Whitney (1765–1825). Though it was financially beneficial and attractive, cotton was so hard and difficult to collect and harvest. Therefore, following the invention of the cotton gin, these difficulties had been overcome, making cotton farming easier and more profitable, so that it made around 57% of the nation's exports in 1860. As cotton farming sprawled, the need for cheap and free labor increased in the first half of the 19th century. The importation of slaves from Africa did not stop even after 1808. Statistics showed that around 300,000 slaves were smuggled into the country after 1808 (Benson et al., 2009). Moreover, the interstate slave trade flourished and many northern slaveholders sold their slaves to Southern slaveholders to use them in agriculture. All in all, slavery in the United States became a hot issue after independence as opposing stances were developed in the North and South of the country.

Slaves suffered a harsh life and miserable working conditions, and the words of the Declaration of Independence meant nothing to them since they were far away from being real and remained just ink on paper. In this respect, it is noteworthy to mention that Thomas Jefferson, who hails from Virginia state was a slaveholder himself. The same did George Washington and other freedom advocates and freedom fighters (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 44). As disagreement between the Northerners and Southerners grew intensively, politicians and decision-makers had to address slavery through many compromises on several occasions when the issue threatened the Union, but all compromises helped only in delaying the outbreak of the Civil War till 1861.

5. The Missouri Compromise of 1820

During the first score of the 19th century, the United States faced a serious problem caused by the issue of slavery. The Northern and Southern states became increasingly divided over expanding or limiting the spread of slavery. The Northern states were abolitionists and lobbied for limiting slavery to only the states where it already existed, without expanding it to other states or the newly acquired territories. The Southerners, however, lobbied for expanding slavery to other states, including the newly admitted states, because they considered it essential to the prosperity of their economy. For them, it was quite impossible to work their wide and large plantations without the free labor of the slaves. Therefore, they resented the governmental interference with slavery because they regarded the abolition of slavery as a serious threat to their well-being and business.

To obviate sectional conflicts between the North and the South, the U.S. federal government tried very hard to maintain a balance between the slave and non-slave states in the Senate (the Northern states were more populated compared to the Southern states, which gave them more seats in the House of Representatives). In 1819, the Union comprised eleven free states and eleven slave states (Benson et al., 2009). When Missouri applied for statehood as a slave state, it threatened to tip the balance in favor of the Southern states, triggering a full-fledged congressional debate.

5.1 Tallmadge Amendment

In February 1819, the New Yorker Representative James Tallmadge Jr.²⁹ (1778–1853) suggested an amendment to the congressional motion to admit Missouri to the Union. Taking into consideration that he was an abolitionist and that slavery was already practiced in Missouri, Tallmadge's proposal banned extending slavery to the whole territory of Missouri, suggesting a gradual abolition of slavery within the boundaries of the said state. At that time, the

²⁹ James Tallmadge Jr. (born January 28, 1778 – died September 29, 1853) was an attorney and politician in the United States who represented New York's 4th congressional district in Congress.

Southerners were expanding westward with their slave-labor plantation system. For them, namely, those engaged in cotton and other crop farming, the future was bright as they expected to gain a lot of money thanks to the available and cheap labor of slaves. Therefore, the Tallmadge Amendment came to thwart their dreams in Missouri. Moreover, this Amendment challenged the states' rights doctrine that prevailed in the South, revolving around the belief of giving more powers and jurisdictions to the local states over local issues at the expense of the federal government. Hence, the Southerners were infuriated by the Tallmadge Amendment, which attempted to outlaw slavery in Missouri and other territories. Furthermore, they stressed that they had the right under the U.S. Constitution to take their slaves anywhere they wanted; hence, they were determined to protect this right at all costs. Above all, the Constitution protects American citizens' properties, including their slaves, since they considered them as their property (Remini, 2008, p. 82). Therefore, they believed that Tallmadge, along with his supporters, was morally attacking their lifestyle, thereby pushing Southern congressmen who already expressed uneasiness to become proslavery.

5.2 Admitting Missouri to the Union

Admitting Missouri to the Union was not that easy for Congressmen. Debates over the matter were hot and took a long time, lasting from December 1819 to March 1820. Most importantly, the debate over the Tallmadge Amendment threatened to break the Union. In this regard, Representative Thomas W. Cobb (1784-1830) of Georgia addressed Representative Tallmadge, saying: "If you persist...the Union will be dissolved. You have kindled a fire which all the waters of the ocean cannot put out, which seas of blood can only extinguish." (Remini, 2008, p. 82). In response, Tallmadge responded: "Let it come" (Remini, 2008, p. 83). But despite the fierce debate and disagreements between Northern and Southern Representatives, the Tallmadge Amendment managed to make it through the House of Representatives with narrow support, by a vote of 79 to 67 (HISTORY.com editors, 2025a, Remini, 2008). However, it could not make it in the Senate because the southerners had a greater numerical strength as well as more sympathizers, thereby blocking the passage of the bill by 31 to 7 votes (Remini, 2008, p. 83). Consequently, the Tallmadge Amendment failed to become a law, and congressmen had to find an alternative to obviate the stalemate.

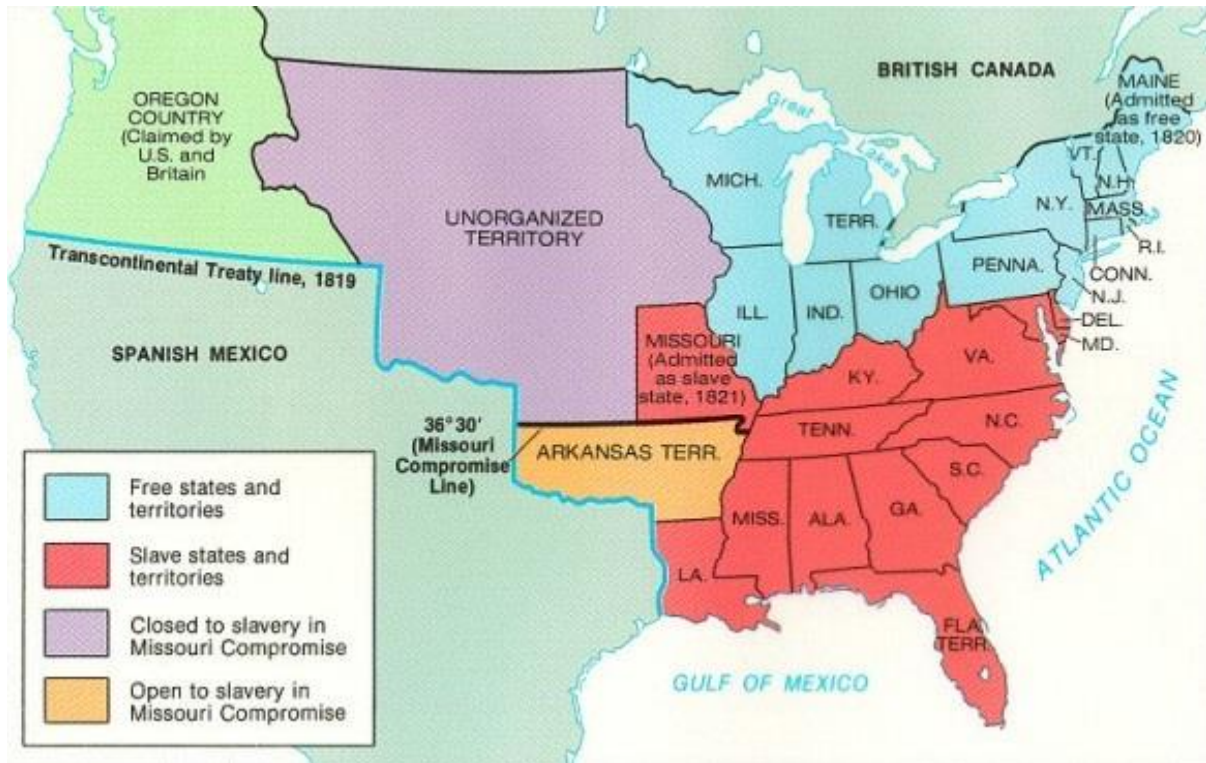


Figure 12. The Missouri Compromise 1820

Source: <http://www.compromise-of-1850.org/missouri-compromise-1820/>

Effectively, after this impasse caused by the failure to pass the Tallmadge Amendment, Missouri reapplied for statehood in late 1819. This time, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, Henry Clay³⁰ (1777-1852), felt the looming danger over the nation's unity, maintaining to a friend of his that "The words, civil war and disunion...are uttered without almost emotions" (Remini, 2008). Fortunately for the Americans, Maine, the northern province of Massachusetts, petitioned Congress to join the Union as a separate and non-slave state, thereby maintaining the numerical balance between slave and non-slave states in the Senate.

³⁰ Henry Clay (April 12, 1777 – June 29, 1852) was an American attorney and politician who served Kentucky in both the House of Representatives and the U.S. Senate. He was the seventh Speaker of the House and also held the position of the ninth Secretary of State. Clay made unsuccessful bids for the presidency in the elections of 1824, 1832, and 1844. He was instrumental in the establishment of both the National Republican Party and the Whig Party. Due to his efforts in resolving regional conflicts, he became known as the "Great Compromiser" and was part of the "Great Triumvirate" in Congress, which included fellow Whig Daniel Webster and Democrat John C. Calhoun.

Furthermore, the stalemate was overcome thanks to a Compromise proposed by Senator Jesse Thomas (1797-1853) of Illinois, who suggested the admission of Missouri as a slave state but prohibiting the expansion of slavery to the north and west of Missouri or rather to the north of 36° 30' parallel of latitude, as displayed in Figure 12. Accordingly, the United States managed to shun division and the civil war, but temporarily only.

6. States' Rights Argument

The Missouri Compromise did not end disputes over slavery among the American states. Effectively, such debates over slavery revived following the imposition of tariffs in 1828. These tariffs were imposed on imported goods to protect the young American industry from the strong competition with foreign goods. The Northerners supported the tariffs because they protected their economy based on industry. Placing tariffs on imported goods made their prices very high and thus became affordable by American consumers, thereby increasing the demand for locally manufactured goods, which boosted industry in the North. The Southerners, however, were against the tariff because it negatively affected their economy, based mainly on agriculture. Additionally, the Southerners relied greatly on foreign manufacturers to secure their necessities and luxuries of many kinds. In other words, the imposed tariffs would significantly raise the prices of such important goods. Therefore, these tariffs were hated, or rather abominated by Southerners, thereby dubbing them the tariff of abominations. Thus, once again, Southerners and Northerners were at odds.

During the argument over the tariff of 1828, a politician called John C. Calhoun³¹ (1782-1850) of South Carolina raised a more serious issue as he claimed that any state had the right

³¹ John Caldwell Calhoun (March 18, 1782 – March 31, 1850) was an American politician and theorist who held the position of the seventh vice president of the United States from 1825 to 1832. Hailing from South Carolina, Calhoun initiated his political journey as a nationalist, advocate for modernization, and supporter of a robust federal government alongside protective tariffs. However, in the late 1820s, his ideology changed, and he emerged as a prominent supporter of states' rights, limited government, nullification, and resistance to high tariffs, while also becoming a vocal champion of American slavery. Calhoun believed that Northern acceptance of these principles was essential for the South's continued participation in the Union. His convictions played a significant role in the South's decision to secede from the Union in 1860 and 1861. Calhoun was the first vice president in history to resign from his post, followed later by Spiro Agnew, who stepped down in 1973.

to disobey any federal law if it was against its best interests. To say it differently, John Calhoun believed that any state could refuse to apply a federal law if the latter harms its interests. This idea was championed by the Southern states and became termed the “states’ rights doctrine” (O’Callaghan, 1990, p. 45). Further, John Calhoun argued that the United States was not formed directly by people but by individual states whose people are American citizens. He therefore posited that the states ought to have more power than the federal government, and thus a state has the right to object to any federal law passed by the majority in Congress. In plain English, Calhoun contended that a state has the right to declare invalid any federal law and thus refuse to enforce it within its boundaries if the law in question harms its interests until overruling its decision by three-quarters of the states. If overruled, the state could either yield to the will of the other states or secede from the Union (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1678).

In response to Calhoun’s argument, Senator Daniel Webster of Massachusetts (1782–1852) responded in a historic speech by maintaining that the Constitution was drafted directly by the people and represents the supreme law in the country. Additionally, he argued that the power to decide whether the federal authorities were acting correctly or wrongly belongs to the Supreme Court not to the local states. If states were given the power to disobey federal authorities, he said, the whole system would be just like a rope of sand and thus the federal government would lose its power to hold the nation together (O’Callaghan, 1990, p. 45). Consequently, Webster’s speech was a serious warning to Americans that the states’ rights doctrine would genuinely threaten the Union if it persisted in widening the gap between the Northerners and Southerners.

7. The Compromise of 1850

After gaining California as part of the territories acquired thanks to defeating Mexico in the Mexican-American War and signing the Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty, Americans soon discovered gold in this new territory, causing the migration of thousands of people who came into the territory to chase their dreams by prospecting for gold; as a result, the local population zoomed up from 6,000 inhabitants to 85,000 inhabitants, thereby enabling them to draft their constitution that banned slavery and then submit it to Congress to apply for statehood (McNeese, 2010, p. 33). At that time, President Zachary Taylor (1784-1850; served 1849-1850) planned to admit California and New Mexico to the Union as two slave states. Again, the admission of California reignited the debate over the expansion of slavery. Both Northerners

and Southerners resolved to make the admission of California a testing ground for expanding slavery to the western part of the United States (McNeese, 2010).

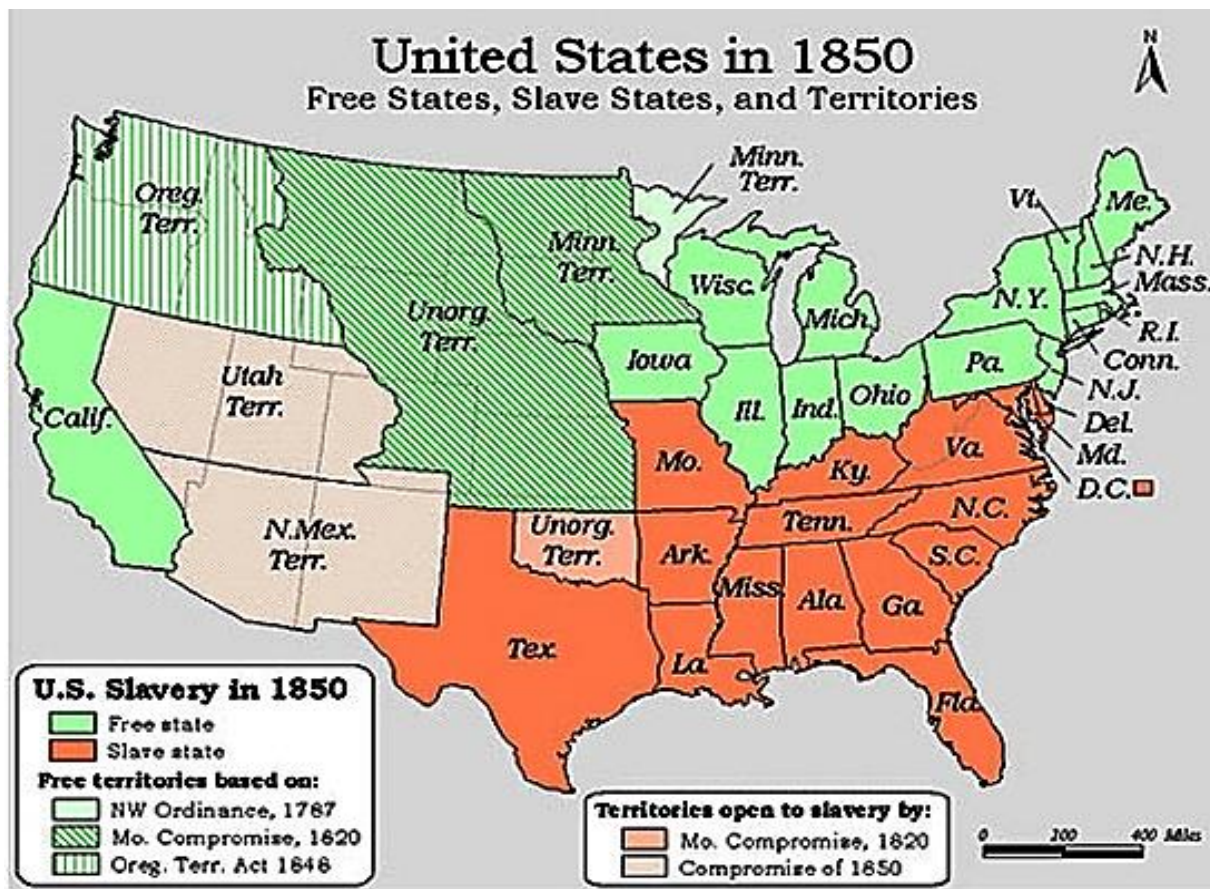


Figure 13. The Compromise of 1850

Source: <http://www.thomaslegion.net/thecompromiseof1850andthefugitiveslaveact.html>

To solve the disagreement, the seventy-year-old Kentuckian Representative Henry Clay, dubbed “the Great Compromiser,” once again saved the Union by cobbling together a complicated compromise on the 29th of January, 1850, historically known as the Compromise of 1850. This compromise comprised abolishing slavery in the Capital Washington D.C., admitting California as a free state, establishing territories of Utah and New Mexico, leaving the decision of allowing slavery or not to their respective people according to popular sovereignty, settling the argument over the border between Texas and New Mexico, loading up the federal government with \$10 million of Texas’ debt, and passing a severe fugitive slave law (McNeese, 2010).

8. The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850

As aforesaid, the Compromise of 1850 comprised a tough Fugitive Slave Act. The latter required the Northern states to help in recapturing and handing over fugitive slaves who escaped from the Southern states to the Northern states and then to Canada in their bid to get safe from the U.S. law-enforcement officials and runaway hunters who could not cross the international borders with Canada. This not only angered the abolitionists but also a great portion of other Americans uncommitted to the issue of slavery. In this regard, abolitionist newspapers started reporting stories of slaves who found liberty in the North but were returned to the South and slavery under the said Act (McNeese, 2008, p. 94). Furthermore, this Act placed heavy punishments on those who helped runaway slaves. In response, the abolitionists in the North established the Underground Railroad (Benson et al., 2009). The latter was a hidden network of people who agreed to assist runaway slaves to escape to the North. This system comprised freed slaves along with sympathetic abolitionists who usually worked in darkness and disguise and helped the runaways by showing them directions and providing them with food, money, and shelter (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1603).

9. Dred Scott Case

The *Dred Scott v. John F. A. Sanford Case* was decided by the U.S. Supreme Court on the 6th of March, 1857. The case was controversial as the decision concerned not only the slave Dred Scott but concerned all African Americans in the whole American territory, particularly those in the North. To start with, Dred Scott was a slave owned by an army surgeon called John Emerson, who was first stationed in the Northern state of Illinois, then in Wisconsin, and last in the Southern state of Missouri. Dred Scott accompanied Emerson in all states where laws regarding slavery were different from one state to another. When Emerson died in Missouri in 1846, Scott resolved to pursue his freedom, believing that his residency in the free states of Illinois and Wisconsin freed him from slavery, and thus he moved to Missouri as a freed slave, not as a slave. Accordingly, Scott began his long trip for freedom in 1846 in the Missouri courts. Missouri local courts ruled for his freedom, but Missouri's Supreme Court reversed the verdict. Scott did not give up and took the case to the federal Supreme Court, where the decision would not only concern Scott but all slaves across the American territory.

The Supreme Court finally handed down its final verdict in 1857. However, the majority opinion was unclear because each of the nine judges wrote a separate opinion about the case.

Still, one aspect of the case won the majority of seven to two: that a slave remains the property of his master and could never become an American citizen. Overall, the final verdict of the Supreme Court comprised three main aspects. First, African Americans could never become American citizens. Second, the Missouri Compromise that banned slavery to the north and west of Missouri was unconstitutional because it went against the Fifth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, which protects all citizens' properties, including slaves who were considered properties of their masters. However, the third and most controversial decision was that an African American already freed under the laws of a free state would return to slavery when returning to a slave state (Benson et al., 2009). Hence, according to the Supreme Court's decision, Dred Scott returns to slavery in Missouri. Accordingly, this verdict from the Supreme Court began unraveling the Union because it meant that the Northern states were not right to pass laws that abolished slavery within their respective territories. To say it differently, all the laws passed by the Northern states regarding the abolition of slavery were unconstitutional, according to the Supreme Court. It also implied that the institution of slavery was not only safe in the South but also in the North. This greatly angered the Northern States and had a significant political impact.

10. The Road to War

10.1 The Bleeding Kansas

The Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854 contributed largely to the outbreak of the American Civil War (1861-1865). After one year of its passage, proslavery and antislavery settlers began fighting against each other in Kansas, thereby dubbing the case the "Bleeding Kansas" (Benson et al., 2009). The whole story began in 1854 when the Democratic Party controlled the federal government, with the Southerners controlling the party. Ambitious Northern Democrats, like the Illinoisan Stephen A. Douglas (1813-1861), tried to shun any disagreement with his fellow Southern members about slavery, and when pushed often stood with Southerners.

In 1854, Stephen Douglas tried to get the support of his party and the federal government for the project of building a railroad that went from Chicago in his home state, Illinois, to San Francisco in California. Therefore, to get national support for the project, he needed to gain the support of the Southern branch of his party, the Democratic Party. Effectively, to achieve so, he suggested splitting the territory of Nebraska into two states: the state of Kansas, located west of the state of Missouri, and the state of Nebraska, located west of the states of Iowa and

the Whig Party and the Free Soil Party, the Free Democrats buried their disagreements and worked on creating the Republican Party, dedicated chiefly to expanding slavery to the western territories. Shortly after its creation, the party gained momentum and swept the Democratic Party in the local, state, and congressional elections of 1854 and 1855.

10.3 The Rise of Abraham Lincoln

Following the creation of the Republican Party, Abraham Lincoln³² (1809-1865) quickly joined its ranks and became an active member. The Republican Party was committed to a political agenda chiefly dedicated to banning further extension of slavery to the western territories. Additionally, the party adhered to developing a government that labors for a developing economy and the banking system (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1310).

10.4 The Seven Debates

As aforementioned, Abraham Lincoln quickly joined the ranks of the Republican Party and shortly after that, he became one of its main leaders in his home state, Illinois. Angered by the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, Lincoln decided in 1855 to run for the U.S. Senate, but he lost. Thereafter, after handing down its final verdict regarding the *Dred Scott v. John F. A. In the Sanford Case* in 1857, Abraham Lincoln got very angry and once again decided to run for the U.S. Senate. This time, Lincoln's political rival was his fellow Illinoisan Senator Stephen Douglas, the Democratic sponsor of the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854. As he was facing a difficult political race and campaign, Abraham Lincoln challenged Douglas by inviting him to engage in a series of seven debates. This series of seven debates proved to be popular and drew

³² Abraham Lincoln (February 12, 1809 – April 15, 1865) served as the 16th president of the United States from 1861 until his assassination in 1865. He guided the nation through the American Civil War, overcoming the Confederate States and playing a significant role in ending slavery. Born in poverty in Kentucky and raised on the frontier, Lincoln was largely self-taught and eventually became a lawyer, a state legislator in Illinois, and a U.S. representative. Frustrated by the Kansas–Nebraska Act of 1854, which allowed slavery in the territories, he emerged as a prominent figure in the newly formed Republican Party. His debates during the 1858 Senate campaign against Stephen A. Douglas brought him national attention. Lincoln was elected president in 1860, leading many slave states to secede and establish the Confederate States. Just a month after he took office, Confederate forces launched an attack on Fort Sumter, marking the beginning of the Civil War.

the attention of large crowds and national press coverage, thereby proving their effectiveness in drawing the Illinoisan voters. During the debates, Douglas tried to depict Lincoln as a radical abolitionist; Lincoln, however, responded by explaining his conservative antislavery stance that centered on maintaining slavery where it already existed and banning its expansion to the newly admitted states. The elections resulted in the victory of Stephen Douglas, who returned to Congress in Washington, D.C. Though defeated in the Senatorial elections of 1858, Abraham Lincoln won a good reputation as an eloquent politician and became known across the national territory, thereby paving the way for his accession to the U.S. Presidency in the Presidential elections of 1860.

10.5 Presidential Elections 1860

In the presidential elections of 1860, Abraham Lincoln won the ticket of his political party and became the official nominee of the Republican Party. Once again, he found himself campaigning against Stephen Douglas, who ran for Presidency as the nominee of the Democratic Party, after winning its ticket in the Party's national convention in Charleston, South Carolina. However, due to his political stances about the Kansas-Nebraska Act of 1854, the Bleeding Kansas, along with other issues, Douglas lost the support of the delegates of the Deep Southern states who disagreed with his political viewpoints and therefore nominated another candidate called John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky. Also, other southerners who objected to the ever-increasing desire to secede from the Union created a new political party called the Constitutional Union Party and nominated John Bell of Tennessee to be their candidate for the 1860 presidential election (McNeese, 2008, p. 105). Accordingly, the Southerners had three candidates, Stephen Douglas, John C. Breckinridge, and John Bell, while the Northerners, or rather the abolitionists, had only one candidate, Abraham Lincoln. This fact helped Abraham Lincoln to win the elections, as the votes of the Southerners were divided among the three candidates. As a result, Abraham Lincoln was proclaimed as the 16th President of the United States of America.

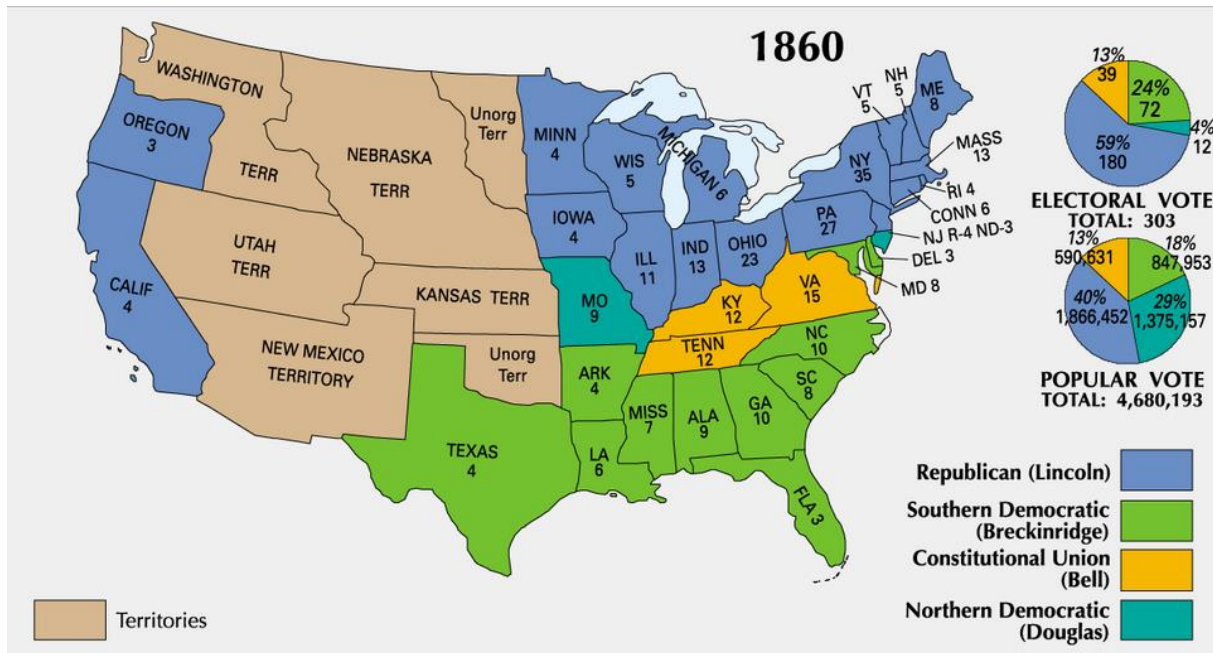


Figure 15. Presidential Elections of 1860

Source: <https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/f/f9/ElectoralCollege1860-Large.png>

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10.6 The Secession of the Southern States

Following the resounding victory of Abraham Lincoln as the 16th President of the United States, fear swept the southern states that the newly elected Republican President would emancipate slaves throughout the whole country and strengthen the control of the federal government over the state governments. Consequently, South Carolina was the first Southern state to break away from the Union on the 20th of December, 1860. Thus, before the inauguration of Abraham Lincoln on the 4th of March, 1861, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and Mississippi all seceded from the Union and joined South Carolina to form a new Union called the Confederate States of America (CSA) (Benson et al., 2009, p. 908).

In his bid to maintain calm and avert further secession of other states, Abraham Lincoln refrained from making a public comment before his inauguration. Instead, he and other Republicans sought to reassure the Southern states that they do not pose any threat to them or to their business and properties. Unconvinced of Lincoln's calls, the Southerners continued the formation of their Union and Confederate government. They chose Davis Jefferson (1808–1889), for Senator from Mississippi, to be their first president. They also wrote their constitution, organized elections, and authorized an army.

11. The Outbreak of the Civil War, 1861

In his inauguration speech on the 4th of March, 1861, Abraham Lincoln reiterated his commitment not to interfere in the institution of slavery where it already existed and stressed that the secession of the Southern states was completely wrong. He also pledged to maintain the Union, and “to hold, occupy, and possess federal property, and to collect all federal taxes and fees” (Benson et al., 2009, p. 909). Additionally, Lincoln stressed that the Southern states had to handle the constitutional and political crisis of secession from the Union. He also affirmed that the federal government had no interest in initiating a civil war, calling on the southern states to work on solving the disagreements rather than insisting on breaking the bonds of the Union.

As the President of the United States, Abraham Lincoln resolved to maintain the federal properties in the Confederate states. This conviction was challenged by the South Carolina Governor, who asked Lincoln to withdraw his troops stationed in South Carolina, exactly in Fort Sumter in Charleston. But Lincoln did the opposite and favored sending military support to the federal troops at Fort Sumter. Davis Jefferson, the President of the Confederate States, discussed the matter with his cabinet and demanded that Fort Sumter surrender. This demand, however, was met with a firm rejection from Abraham Lincoln and destroyed most of Fort Sumter, leading to its surrender on the 14th April, 1861. As a result, other states, Arkansas, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia, broke away from the Union, thereby sparking the beginning of the American Civil War, which lasted till 1865.

12. Conclusion

After four years of fighting between the Northern and Southern States, the war ended with a victory of the Northern States over the Southern States. On the 9th of April, 1865, the leader of the Confederate army, General Robert E. Lee (1807–1870), surrendered to the General of the Unionist Army, Ulysses S. Grant (1822–1885) at the Appomattox Courthouse, Virginia. The end of the Civil War in favor of the Northerners meant the victory of their viewpoint on the main issue, slavery. That is, the antislavery supporters won over the proslavery supporters. Effectively, during the war, Abraham Lincoln issued the Emancipation Proclamation Act of 1863, which declared all slaves to be free. After the war, the Thirteenth Amendment was added to the U.S. Constitution on December 6, 1865, which declared all African Americans to be free and banned the institution of slavery altogether.



13. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

The state that was added to the Union along with Missouri is:

- a) The state of Vermont
- b) The state of Illinois
- c) The state of Maine

The American statesman who came up with the States' Rights Doctrine was:

- a) Daniel Webster
- b) John Calhoun
- c) Henry Clay

What was the impact of the Tariffs of Abomination on the northern and southern states?

How did the Dred Scott Case impact the bitter debate over slavery?

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Lecture 7: The Reconstruction Era 1865-1877

Learning Objectives: By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the presidential and Congressional efforts to readmit the seceding southern states.

Key Concepts: Abraham Lincoln's Reconstruction Plan, the Freedmen's Bureau, the 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments, The Proclamation of Pardon and Amnesty, Black Codes in the South, The Ku Klux Klan,

Teaching Strategy: Lecturing.

Teaching Material: Maps, videos, pictures, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

After the end of the Civil War, the United States entered a new era, historically called the Reconstruction Era. The latter refers to the political measures and the arsenal of laws passed by the federal government to reconstruct the Union and readmit the Southern states with new conditions. Also, the Reconstruction Era refers to the social and political measures taken by the federal government in order to protect the rights of freed African Americans and provide them with the necessary services and tools to initiate their life as free American citizens in the United States.

2. From Slave to Contraband

Following the secession of the Southern States from the Union, President Abraham Lincoln refused to acknowledge their secession and insisted on bringing them under the control of his federal government. Therefore, when asked to withdraw his troops from Fort Sumter in Charleston, South Carolina, he refused and sent military support instead. This was not just a political stance but was a political conviction and belief that he had to defend and maintain the unity of the whole country. Therefore, fighting against the seceding states fell within this political framework and seized every opportunity to defeat the Confederate states and bring them again under the Unionist flag.

As the Civil War broke out, freeing slaves was not likely to happen in the early months of the war. Both Unionist and Confederate states denied that the institution of slavery was the issue that led to the outbreak of the Civil War. As for the white Southerners, they claimed that they were fighting for their independence, just like their ancestors who fought against British colonizers and were defending their homes, lands, and properties from the Unionists' aggression. The Unionists, however, asserted that they were fighting to maintain the Union and put down a rebellion against a legitimate federal government legally elected by the majority of Americans according to a democratic process (Zuczek, 2006, p. 10). However, slaves believed that they were the main cause behind the outbreak of the conflict between the Unionists and Confederates, and therefore constantly thought about transforming the war into a war of liberation.

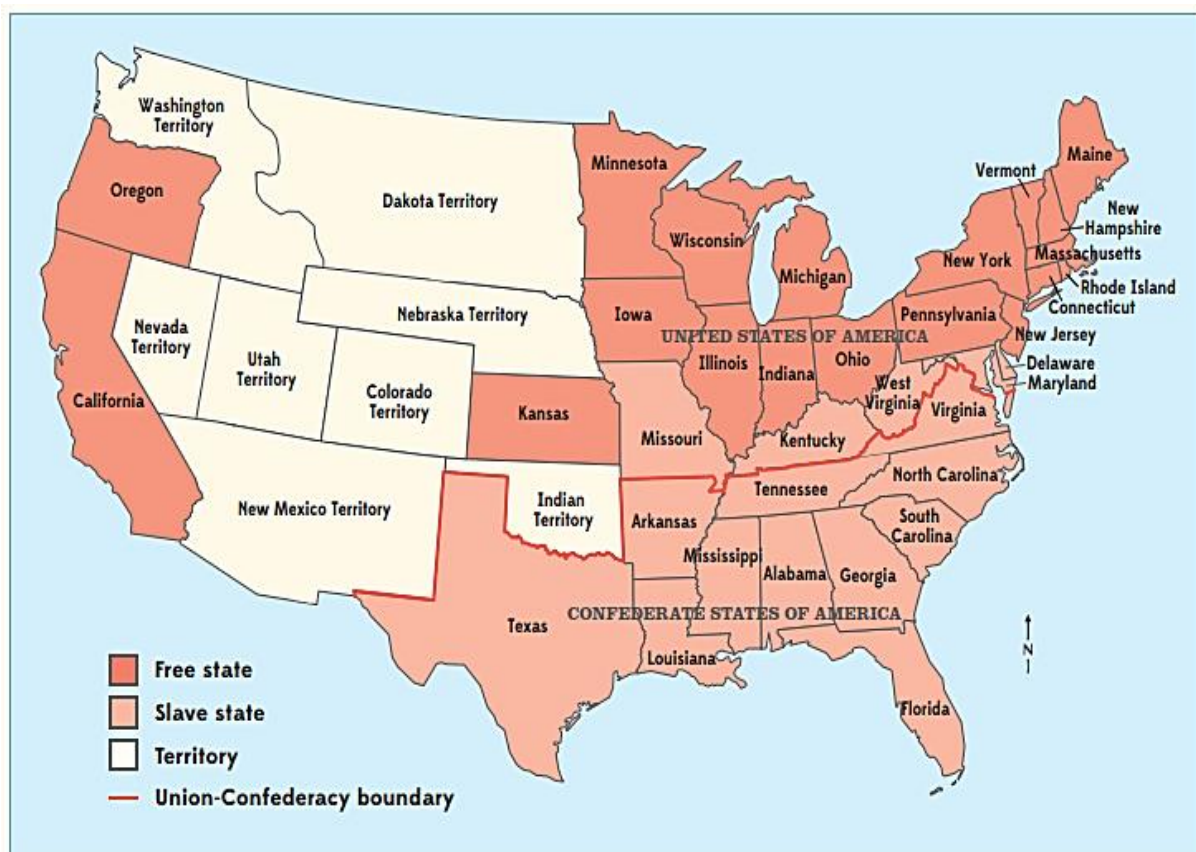


Figure 16. Free and Slave States during the Civil War 1861-1865

Source: (Latta, 2015, p. 8).

During the early days of the war, the Unionist officers found out that slaves in the South were a military asset for the Confederate Army as they could help with doing many tasks such as digging entrenchments, providing personal service to the Southern army, delivering supplies,

and keeping the plantation system operative despite the absence of most of the white men who left their plantations for fighting against the northerners. Therefore, providing the runaways with a safe refuge was so beneficial to their cause as it would deprive the Southerners of all the services provided by the slaves, in addition to making their labor available for the Northerners to benefit from in different domains. Thus, having realized the slaves' military usefulness, the Unionist officers declared slaves who entered the northern states to be contraband of war; that is, to ban the Southerners from using slaves in their war against them, the Union army was authorized to capture slaves as contraband of war and refused to return them to their Southern owners (Zuczek, 2006).

3. Lincoln's Reconstruction Plan

3.1 The Emancipation Proclamation of 1863

During the Civil War, President Abraham Lincoln made a plan to reconstruct the Union and reunite the United States and the Confederate States. In this respect, President Lincoln made a plan called the Reconstruction, which aimed to rebuild the nation after the end of the Civil War (Latta, 2015). The first step of this plan was made in 1862 and consisted in the Emancipation Proclamation Order issued in 1862, which became effective on the 1st of January, 1863. This Proclamation declared all slaves across the Confederate states that remained at war with the Union to be free. To tell the truth, the Proclamation did not apply to states that remained under the Union, but states themselves passed laws to emancipate slaves within their boundaries (Benson et al., 2009, p. 1553). Accordingly, the Proclamation played a key role in changing the course of the ongoing Civil War as many slaves joined the Union army, thereby leading to the victory of the Union over the Confederate Army (Latta, 2015, p. 10).

3.2 The Ten and Fifty Percent Laws

By the fall of 1863, President Lincoln issued a law called the Ten Percent Law. The latter consisted in allowing the rebellious states to rejoin the Union after having 10 percent of their white males pledge their loyalty to the U.S. federal government. Additionally, they had to promise never to rebel again against the Unionist government and obey the U.S. laws regarding slavery. In response to this plan, right-winger congressmen of the Republican Party believed that the President had to be tougher on the rebellious states. Therefore, they came up with their own plan to reunite the country. Effectively, the right-wingers congressmen of the Republican Party toughened Lincoln's plan to reunite the country by requiring 50% of the white males in

the former Confederate states to pledge their loyalty to the U.S. government. President Lincoln vetoed this plan, however. Thereafter, both the President and Congress debated the best strategies and measures to reunite the country till the end of the Civil War and Lincoln's death (Marsico, 2014, p. 11).

4. The Assassination of Abraham Lincoln

Less than a week after the end of the Civil War on the 9TH of April 1865, President Abraham Lincoln was shot to death. Effectively, on Friday evening, on April 9, 1865, President and Mrs. Lincoln, along with two guests, went to Ford's Theater in Washington, D.C. to attend a comedic play entitled *Our American Cousin*. At around 10:13 p.m., John Wilkes Booth managed to slip into the President's box and pointed his pistol at the President, thereby shooting him to death. Immediately, the President lost consciousness and died the next morning, at 7:22 a.m. (Slavicek, 2004, p. 82). It was the first time in U.S. history that a president was assassinated; besides, Lincoln's assassination came after a long and terrible Civil War that resulted in the death of over than 600,000 people. At his funeral, Abraham Lincoln was given a historic farewell the likes of which had never been seen before in the history of the United States.

5. The Thirteenth Amendment

The efforts to reunite the country continued after the end of the Civil War and the death of President Lincoln in April 1865. Having the intention to ban slavery altogether across the country's national territories, the Senate crafted and suggested the Thirteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution in 1864, but the House of Representatives refused to approve it until the Republicans gained the Majority in 1865. Having been supported by President Andrew Johnson³³ (1808-1875; served from 1865 to 1869), the Thirteenth

³³ Andrew Johnson (December 29, 1808 – July 31, 1875) served as the 17th president of the United States from 1865 to 1869. He became president after the assassination of Abraham Lincoln, having previously been the 16th vice president. A War Democrat, Johnson ran alongside Lincoln on the National Union Party ticket in the 1864 presidential election, taking office as the Civil War came to an end. Johnson advocated for the rapid reintegration of the seceded states into the Union without safeguards for the newly freed individuals who had been enslaved,

Amendment was approved on the 6th of December, 1865, after being ratified by three-fourths of the states.

Section 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction. Section 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation. (Arnold, 2018, p. 119)

Afterwards, Congress required approving the Thirteenth Amendment as a condition to readmit the rebellious states. Thus, the 13th Amendment greatly impacted the United States in the aftermath of the Civil War, as slavery as well as involuntary servitude were made illegal (Benson et al., 2009). Consequently, millions of African Americans, now called freedmen, who were separated from their relatives after being sold to different masters, could reunite again thanks to this Amendment. Furthermore, marriages that were forbidden to slaves became allowable. Also, the emergence of churches and black communities was based on strong family ties (Marsico, 2014).

6. The Freedmen's Bureau

To help the freedmen's transition to freedom, Congress created the Freedmen Bureau in March 1865. Its main task was to aid and protect the four million former slaves freed by the 13th Amendment. It provided them with the necessary everyday supplies such as food and clothes. It also provided aid to the white poor people in the Southern states in order to help them start a new life following the end of the Civil War (1861-1865).

Following its creation under the direction of General Oliver O. Howard (1830-1909), the Freedmen's Bureau undertook its work in the South by dividing the Southern States into ten districts and focused its work on achieving five main goals which consist in: providing relief for all citizens in devastated areas, including the blacks; regulating the black labor; managing

and supported the pardon of former Confederates. This stance led to significant conflict with a Republican Party-controlled U.S. Congress, resulting in his impeachment by the House of Representatives in 1868. He was acquitted in the Senate by a single vote.

the abandoned and confiscated properties; administering justice for blacks; and educating former slaves (Benson et al., 2009, p. 585). Despite its poor funding and inadequate staffing, the Freedmen's Bureau managed to provide the much-needed aid. Thanks to its varied pragmas destined to achieve the five aforesaid goals, the bureau succeeded in distributing over than twenty-two million rations of food to the white and black poor people in the South. Besides, it provided medical aid to over than one million freedmen. As to education, the Bureau managed to create 61 schools and 11 colleges, and universities (Benson et al., 2009). In a nutshell, the Freedmen's Bureau had a pivotal role in helping former slaves to achieve freedom by providing them with the necessary assistance and protection till the end of its charter in 1869, while its educational components lasted until 1872 (Benson et al., 2009).

7. Proclamation of Pardon and Amnesty

The Freedmen's Bureau, however, was less successful in its efforts to establish courts to protect the civil rights of the freedmen. Similarly, it failed to make land ownership a reality for the former slaves. As a matter of fact, Congress intended to transform the ownership of much of the confiscated lands in the South to the freedmen, by this was impeded by President Andrew Johnson's Proclamation of Pardon and Amnesty. The latter provided for returning much of the confiscated lands to the Southerners who were willing to pledge their loyalty to the Union. Therefore, the Freedmen's Bureau was forced to oversee the creation of sharecropping arrangements to work these lands instead of transforming their ownership to the African Americans.

The reconstruction efforts changed under the administration of President Andrew Johnson. The latter believed that there was no need to blame all southerners for the war. Instead, he put the whole blame on the wealthy whites in the South. Therefore, he believed that white Southerners had only to pledge not to rebel again against the United States as a condition before being able to restore their properties, restore their right to vote, and get back their right to hold government offices (Marsico, 2014). As for the wealthy White people in the South, they were required to personally ask pardon from the President, which he usually offered. Also, congressmen wished that the President would help them to improve freedmen. To their disappointment, it soon became clear that the President was unwilling to grant former slaves equal rights. His conviction became clearer when he stated that "white men alone must manage the South" (Marsico, 2014, p. 16).

President Andrew Johnson had no interest in helping former slaves build their new lives. He stood by the side of the white Southerners who feared that the freedmen would take their jobs. He did not believe in the equality between blacks and whites; therefore, he wanted the whites to control the government in the South. Accordingly, he chose a temporary governor for each state that seceded from the Union. Each governor was required to develop a new state constitution that outlaws secession and supports the 13th Amendment. Thus, by the fall of 1865, all the Southern states followed the President's plan. As a result, President Andrew Johnson announced that the Reconstruction of the country had finished and that the country was reunited. The Southern states, for their part, prepared to send their newly elected Senators and Representatives to Congress in Washington, D.C. in December 1865 (Marsico, 2014).

8. Civil Rights Act of 1866

President Andrew Johnson's announcement of the end of the Reconstruction Era did not gain the approval of all Americans. Effectively, right-winger Republicans, along with other politicians, disagreed with the President's announcement because slavery had ended, but little was achieved in terms of protecting the civil rights of African Americans. The Southern states did not accept the new status of the freedmen and started resisting it by passing the black codes. The latter were state laws designed to restrict the rights and freedoms of the freedmen and obstruct their integration into the white society. Therefore, to protect and facilitate the integration of the freedmen into American society, Congress passed the Civil Rights Act of 1866. This Act came up with the first definition of American citizenship by basing it on birth in the United States. Additionally, the Act listed the rights guaranteed to all American citizens, regardless of their color or race. For instance, the rights of making contracts, inheriting, suing others, purchasing and selling properties, and accessing court procedures were all guaranteed to all Americans, including the freedmen (Benson et al., 2009).

Some radical Republican congressmen went further and wanted to strengthen the bill by adding protection to African Americans' voting rights, as well as continuous federal scrutiny of state and local actions. In February 1866, the bill gained unanimous support of both chambers of Congress, the House of Representatives and Senate; yet, President Andrew Johnson vetoed it. Congress, however, overrode the President's veto on the 9th of April, thereby making the Civil Rights Act of 1866 the first bill in U.S. history to be passed over presidential veto.

9. The Fourteenth Amendment

Enforcing the Civil Rights Act of 1866 proved to be difficult. Congressional debates over the adoption of the Civil Rights Act pushed Congress to prepare to add an amendment to be added to the Constitution to provide a solid foundation for the Civil Rights Act. Thus, proposed on June 13, 1866, and ratified on July 9 of the same year, the 14th Amendment was crafted and added to the U.S. Constitution, providing the following:

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws. (Arnold, 2018, p. 122)

Accordingly, this Amendment supplied a permanent definition of American and state citizenship by guaranteeing it to all Americans born within the United States. Also, the 14th Amendment protected all Americans, including African Americans, against federal and state abridgment of the civil rights guaranteed thereof.

10. The Fifteenth Amendment

The 15TH Amendment to the U.S. Constitution came to extend and guarantee the right to vote to all American citizens, including African Americans. Several proposals were made in both chambers of Congress before reaching the final draft of the 15TH Amendment. In the lower chamber of Congress, Republican Representative of Massachusetts, George S. Boutwell (1818-1905), suggested an amendment to the Constitution banning federal and state governments from depriving citizens of their basic right to vote on the grounds of their race, color, or previous condition of servitude. His suggestion was approved in January 1869. A similar proposal was made in the Senate by the Republican Senator of Nevada, William M. Stewart (1827-1909), to protect the right to vote as well as the right to hold office. Another proposal was made by Senator Henry Wilson (1812-1875) of Massachusetts suggested a different proposal which manifested in outlawing altogether all restrictions on the right to vote based on birthplace, education, property holding, or religious belief. The Senate, however, adopted Stewart's proposal. Thus, to choose the appropriate draft for the 15TH Amendment, the House and Senate formed a conference committee to consider Stewart's and Boutwell's proposals. In the end, the committee came up with the final text of the 15TH Amendment by adopting Stewart's proposal after dropping the part related to guaranteeing the right to hold office (Benson et al., 2009, p.

556). Consequently, the 15TH Amendment made it illegal for federal and state governments to abridge this right based on citizens' color or race. Hence, it provided the following:

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 the power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation. (Arnold, 2018, p. 139)

Still, after being passed in Congress, the 15TH Amendment had to gain the approval of three-quarters of the states. In this respect, Republicans dominated Northern and Southern legislatures, which made it easier for them to get the required approval of state legislatures. Besides, the 15TH Amendment gained the support of the newly elected Republican President, Ulysses Grant³⁴ (1822-1885; served 1869-1877). Hence, the Amendment gained the approval of the required number of states, twenty-nine states, thereby being ratified on February 3, 1870.

11. Resistance to the Emancipation of the African Americans

Emancipating former slaves across the whole nation was not welcomed by the Southern states, who started taking local measures to obstruct the enforcement of federal laws that freed former slaves and provided them with equal rights under the U.S. Constitution.

³⁴ Ulysses S. Grant, originally named Hiram Ulysses Grant, was the 18th president of the United States, serving from 1869 to 1877, and was born on April 27, 1822, passing away on July 23, 1885. As the commanding general in 1865, Grant led the Union Army to triumph in the American Civil War. During his presidency, Grant helped stabilize the economy in the aftermath of the war, supported congressional Reconstruction along with the Fifteenth Amendment, and took action against the Ku Klux Klan. Under his leadership, the Union was fully restored. Grant, an influential advocate for civil rights, signed legislation to establish the United States Department of Justice and collaborated with Radical Republicans to safeguard African Americans during the Reconstruction era. In 1871, he established the inaugural Civil Service Commission, making significant advancements in civil service compared to previous presidents. Although Grant was re-elected in the 1872 election, his second term was marred by numerous executive scandals. His handling of the Panic of 1873 was inadequate in preventing the onset of the Long Depression, which led to the Democrats regaining the House majority in 1874. Grant's policy towards Native Americans aimed at integrating them into Anglo-American society. In terms of foreign affairs, Grant peacefully settled the Alabama Claims with Britain but saw his proposal to annex Santo Domingo rejected by the Senate. In the contentious 1876 presidential election, Grant assisted Congress in reaching a peaceful compromise.

11.1 Black Codes in the South

In the aftermath of the American Civil War (1861-1865), which marked the victory of the Union over the Confederacy, the Southern states began passing laws, called black codes, denying freedmen's freedom and equality with whites. These black codes were chiefly designed to obstruct the integration of freedmen into American society and deprive them of their rights guaranteed under the 13TH, 14TH, and 15TH Amendments. Additionally, through the black codes, the Southerners aimed to restore, as much as possible, the free labor of the African Americans as well as their radical control over slaves (Benson et al., 2009, p. 165). So, black codes represented the Southern states' objection to the emancipation of former slaves although slavery was already abolished altogether throughout the American territory (Marsico, 2014).

The black codes were unfair to the freedmen. The latter had to agree to bad and unjust labor contracts. These contracts made it obligatory for the freedmen to ask the permission of their employers if they wanted to travel anywhere. Besides, these contracts allowed employers to hold back the wages of the freedmen; they could even beat them. For instance, freedman Henry Adams maintained "I saw white men whipping colored men just the same way they did before the war," implying that things did not change for African Americans (Marsico, 2014, p. 20). Another important testimony was presented by an official with the Freedmen Bureau who stated, "Blacks are frequently beaten unmercifully and shot down like wild beasts" (Marsico, 2014, p. 20).

11.2 Ku Klux Klan

The Southern states' refusal to emancipate African Americans was not expressed through passing black codes only. Extremism and Terrorist acts found their way to the South after the creation of the terrorist organization called the Ku Klux Klan (KKK). Founded in 1866 in Polaski, Tennessee, under the leadership of former Confederate General Nathan Bedford Forest, the KKK was aimed chiefly to restore white supremacy and rule in the South through lawlessness and violence against the freedmen and counter the reconstruction efforts undertaken by the federal government (Remini, 2008, p. 165). Therefore, the KKK was credited with being the first organization to initiate domestic terrorism in the United States. Its violent acts varied from intimidating and attacking freedmen to murdering them and attacking even those who assisted and supported freedmen's rights, namely in the Southern states. Consequently, hanging and Lynching became daily aspects, especially during elections, just to

ban Africans from exercising their right; as a result, it was estimated that occurrences of lynchings and hangings of African Americans amounted to approximately 400 between 1868 and 1871, reflecting the harshness and brutality towards the freedmen following the Civil War.

12. Conclusion

The Reconstruction Era represented an important stage in U.S. history as it aimed to reunite and rebuild the divided and devastated country, torn by the four years of fighting during the Civil War (1861-1865). Several measures and Acts were passed to facilitate the integration of former slaves into American society. Therefore, the Emancipation Proclamation was issued in January 1863, freeing all slaves throughout the South. This Proclamation was reinforced by the 13TH Amendment in 1865 that abolished slavery altogether throughout the American territory. Three years later, the 14TH Amendment was added to guarantee civil rights to all Americans, including African Americans. This was upheld by the 15TH Amendment that guaranteed the right to vote to all Americans, regardless of their color or race. However, Reconstruction efforts were met with a radical refusal and objection from the Southern states, who started passing their black codes, aiming at obstructing the Reconstruction efforts undertaken by the federal government and restoring the slave institution and their radical control over freedmen, thereby paving the way for the emergence of racism and segregation that would span the next century of American history.



13. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

- What are the main conditions Lincoln's Reconstruction Plan imposed on the Southern states?
- Which of the following Amendments granted freedom to African Americans?
 - a) The 13th Amendment
 - b) The 12th Amendment
 - c) The 14th Amendment
- Why did the Southern states pass the Clack Codes?
- What were the main contributions of the Freedmen's Bureau?

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Lecture 8: The Gilded Age

Learning Objectives: By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the different features of industrial and economic growth that characterized late 19th-century America.

Key Concepts: Industrial Development, Economic Growth, Urbanization, Immigration, Construction of Big Cities, and New Foreign Policy.

Teaching Strategy: Lecturing.

Teaching Material: Maps, videos, pictures, and PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

The Reconstruction Era (1865-1877) was full of reforms and laws that were introduced to facilitate the assimilation of the African Americans into the American society through entitling them to the rights guaranteed to the white under the U.S. Constitution, and adopting measures to protect their civil rights and provide them with the necessary aid and assistance to pursue their new life as free American citizens. These measures helped significantly in integrating former slaves into American life thanks to the arsenal of laws adopted by Abraham Lincoln and Congress, thereby reuniting the country, providing relief to the African Americans and poor whites in the South, and paving the way for a new era called the Gilded Age.

2. What Is the Gilded Age?

The Gilded Age in American history represents the period of time that followed the Reconstruction Era. Approximately spanning 1877 to 1990, the Gilded Age was marked by economic growth and development in different fields, chiefly caused by the ongoing Industrial Revolution in Europe, particularly in Great Britain, thereby transforming America from an agrarian country whose economy depended chiefly on agriculture into a country whose economy depended on industry and business (Benson et al., 2009, p. 632).

Samuel L. Clemens, or rather Mark Twain (1835-1910), was an American author credited with coining the term the Gilded Age in his literary work entitled *The Gilded Age: A Tale of Today*. In his book, Mark Twain shed light on America when it was run by corrupt politicians and big business. In addition, Twain depicted the era that witnessed big changes in different fields, namely the economic and social ones, where poor people became even poorer while the rich got richer and increased their fortune. Therefore, Twain's book became a perfect chronicle of how the late 19th century would be remembered.

3. Characteristics of the Gilded Age

The Gilded Age had many features and characteristics that affected different aspects of American life. These features are explored below as follows:

3.1 Industry and Economic Growth

After the Civil War (1861-1865), American industry developed significantly. In 1876, America's 18th President, Ulysses S. Grant (1822-1885; served 1869-1877), moved to Philadelphia to inaugurate an industrial exhibition on the occasion of the hundredth anniversary of the nation's independence. Called the Centennial Exposition, the exhibition was destined to show and celebrate the achievements and technological advances of the United States. The exposition showed the latest American inventions, such as the telephone and the typewriter, in addition to a number of other machines for different uses. The exposition remained open for six months, where almost ten million visitors visited it. They looked in awe and pride at the incredible inventions American inventors made. In this regard, the newspaper *The Times* was impressed and reported the following: "The American invents as the Greek sculpted and the Italian painted... It is genius" (O'Callaghan, 1990, p. 72).

In 1876, the United States' economy was still dependent on agriculture, but industry grew rapidly in the years that followed, namely that of coal and iron, which were the two main raw materials in the 19th century. In actual fact, late 19th-century America was characterized by the discovery of new deposits of coal and iron in the 1880s and 1890s. For instance, brothers called Merritt discovered deposits of iron in 1887 and became the world's biggest iron ore producers (O'Callaghan, 1990). The deposit of iron was close to the surface and pure of chemical impurities, thereby making it easy and cheap to mine and thus profitable. Meanwhile, coal production skyrocketed tenfold by 1900 compared to its production in the 1860s. Boosting

the production of both coal and iron contributed significantly to the industrial development and economic growth of the United States during that era.

3.2 Infrastructure Development

The increase in coal and iron production led to the need for a large network of railroads and car roads. To this end, great quantities of the mined iron were used to make the steel for these railroads, wagons, locomotives, and passenger cars. As a result, railroads spread rapidly throughout the country. For instance, the railroad mileage developed from 35,000 miles in 1860 to over 200,000 miles in 1900 and around 600,000 miles in 1920 (Carlisle, 2009, p. 5). Accordingly, railroads became paramount to the industrial growth and the interstate transportation of both people and cargo to many national markets. Also, railroads played a key role in developing commerce as they facilitated linking sellers and buyers across the entire country, resulting in the creation of big industrial centers like those in Chicago and Pittsburgh (O'Callaghan, 1990).

3.3 The Inflow of Immigrants

Decades before the Civil War (1861-1865), Americans began moving to the area west of the Mississippi River, especially after the Louisiana Purchase in 1803, establishing new settlements and founding new states. This pushed new waves of immigrants to come to the United States in order to find jobs and better their living conditions, but their inflow decreased during the Civil War and the years before. However, the number of immigrants increased following the Civil War. Many of them came from northern and western Europe, especially from Germany and Ireland, which remained the largest sources of European immigrants in the 1870s. In the 1880s, however, more immigrants hailed from eastern and southern Europe. They came to the United States after signing labor contracts. Other than the availability of jobs and the economic growth in the United States, this inflow of immigrants was encouraged by the transport improvement in steam shipping, which made the long journeys to the United States more bearable.

The number of Chinese immigrants had also proliferated during the Gilded Age. Over 20,000 Chinese immigrants came to the western seaports after discovering gold in California in 1849 (Teitelbaum, 2005). After the Gold Rush, thousands of Chinese immigrants moved to work in railroad construction projects. They proved themselves to be skillful, dedicated, and hardworking (Benson et al., 2009, p. 99). In 1880, the number of Chinese immigrants in the

United States was estimated at 105,000. They used to come to America in great numbers; for instance, in 1881, more than 40,000 Chinese immigrants entered America (Teitelbaum, 2005). However, after being welcomed, the Chinese presence in the United States caused deep resentment among Americans due to a number of reasons, mainly for undercutting wages and considering them as dangerous to American social standards. As a result, the Chinese Exclusion Act was passed in 1882, which banned altogether the inflow of Chinese immigrants for ten years. Only teachers, students, merchants, tourists, and American-born Chinese were allowed to enter the United States. This Act had a big impact on the inflow of Chinese immigrants, which dropped significantly to be estimated at 50 Chinese immigrants per year (Teitelbaum, 2005, p. 46).

3.4 Cities and Urban America

As aforementioned, the industrial development, economic growth, and the spread of railroads all over the country helped turn America from a rural country into an urbanized one. Big cities had been created in different parts of the country, and thousands and millions moved to live there. Accordingly, the number of city dwellers of the country skyrocketed from 6,000,000 in 1860 to 44,000,000 in 1910 (McNeese, 2010, p. 20). For instance, the dwellers of the northern city of Detroit in Michigan shifted considerably between 1870 and 1900 from 80,000 to 285,000 inhabitants; Similarly, the inhabitants of the southern city of Atlanta increased from 22,000 to 90,000, while the population of Philadelphia city doubled between 1870 and 1900 from 675,000 to 1,300,000 (McNeese, 2010).

3.5 Foreign Policy

The economic growth of the United States had a great impact on the nation's foreign policy in the first decades of the 20th century. American leaders adopted a new aggressive approach based on direct involvement with other countries. Presidents Theodore Roosevelt

(1858-1919; served 1901-1909)³⁵, William Howard Taft (1857-1930; served 1909-1913)³⁶, and Woodrow Wilson³⁷ (1856-1924; served 1913-1921) each made their own contribution to implement and enforce a progressive policy based on supporting America's commercial interests as well as expanding overseas through facilitating commercial treaties. Therefore, to implement this new foreign policy that aims to increase the country's commercial presence overseas, along with a higher political involvement in the other countries' affairs, the United States' leaders were ready to back up their diplomatic stances and positions (McNeese, 2010). This was reflected, for instance, in gaining control of the Panama Canal in November 1903 after threatening to use military force. America signed a treaty that granted it total control over the Panama Canal after a down payment of \$10 million, with a payment of an additional \$250,000 yearly and perpetually (McNeese, 2010).

4. Conclusion

To sum up, after a destructive Civil War (1861-1865) and the Reconstruction era that followed it, the United States went through a period of industrial and economic growth. The latter was characterized by the development of a widespread network of railroads and car roads. Additionally, the industrial development led to the creation and spread of urban cities all over the American territory. Besides, the economic growth led to an increase in the inflow of immigrants from different countries and continents. Furthermore, the country's foreign policy

³⁵ Theodore Roosevelt Jr. (October 27, 1858 – January 6, 1919), commonly referred to as Teddy or T. R., was the 26th president of the United States, holding office from 1901 to 1909. Before his presidency, Roosevelt was active in the political landscape of New York, including a two-year term as the state's 33rd governor. He served as the 25th vice president under President William McKinley for six months in 1901, stepping into the presidency following McKinley's assassination. During his time in office, Roosevelt became a prominent leader of the Republican Party and played a significant role in advocating for anti-trust measures and Progressive Era reforms.

³⁶ William Howard Taft (September 15, 1857 – March 8, 1930) was the 27th president of the United States, holding office from 1909 to 1913, and he served as the tenth chief justice of the United States from 1921 to 1930. He is unique in being the only individual to have occupied both positions.

³⁷ Thomas Woodrow Wilson (born December 28, 1856, died February 3, 1924) was the 28th president of the United States, holding office from 1913 to 1921. He was the sole Democrat to occupy the presidency during the Progressive Era, a time when Republicans predominated in both the presidential office and legislative branches. As president, Wilson transformed the country's economic policies and guided the United States into World War I. He was the primary architect of the League of Nations, and his approach to foreign policy became known as Wilsonianism.

changed to adapt it to the new interests and aims, consisting in commercial objectives, overseas expansion, and higher political involvement with the affairs of foreign countries.



5. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

- What were the American Leaders' motives behind changing their foreign policy?
- Why did America limit the inflow of Chinese immigrants?

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Part II: American Literature

Lecture 1: Literary Movements

Lecture 2: Types of Literary Genres

Lecture 3: Characterization

Lecture 4: Elements of the Plot

Lecture 5: Literary themes

Lecture 1: Literary Movements

Learning Objectives: By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the features and basis of each literary movement.

Key Concepts: Literary movement, Romanticism, Realism, Naturalism

Teaching Strategy: Lecturing.

Teaching Material: PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

Shedding light on the history of Literature is of great importance owing to its benefits to the students, as it provides them with a historical overview as well as the historical context and circumstances that led to the rise of each literary movement. Besides, it will instill the desire to broaden their knowledge about each literary movement or period through reading books and other references about them. Furthermore, having a clear historical overview would help students understand the literary texts they read, and thus help them provide a textual and historical interpretation. Moreover, studying the history of literature shows the literary evolution of a particular language by highlighting the significant changes it has gone through. Accordingly, when casting light on the history of the literature of a given language, the following aspects would be tackled:

- A summary of the key events as well as the social conditions that characterize each literary movement.
- A brief study of each literary period with a focus on its impact of the following literary period and its relation to the previous literary period.
- A brief biography of the main author, shedding light on his/her major works, how s/he succeeded, and how his/her writings influenced his/her epoch, and how s/he was influenced by his/her epoch.
- A brief introduction to the main writers of that epoch.

- ❑ The history of literature is segmented into ages and periods. Ages or eras refer to larger periods of time, while periods are usually named after key political events, leaders, or authors.

- ❑ The history of literature comprises several literary movements that differ from the prevalent literary scene. In other words, the literary movement refers to a group of writers who pursue the same common cause during the same period of time, like defending the same political ideology, artistic style, and challenging the prevalent literary form, beliefs, and norms.

2. Definition of Literary Movements

A literary movement is defined as a group of writers with the same aim of writing, approximately published their works in the same era; therefore, the phrase “birds of the same feathers flock together” is the best expression that defines a literary movement. Accordingly, writers of the same ideas, preoccupations, and writing styles come together to bring to light the main preoccupations of society in their hope to bring about a suitable and favorable change to the whole society. Thus, literature is an influential weapon in the hands of writers, through which they can contribute greatly and positively to the development of society via the great impact of their writings on readers.

3. Literary Movement vs Literary Period

Both literary movements and literary periods are part of literary history. As for the literary period, it refers to a portion of time in literary history wherein historical classification occurs in terms of periods. Further, periodization in literary history is flexible and changes according to the availability of new historical data. However, it is notable to point out that a literary period is shorter than a literary era though they are sometime used interchangeably.

On the other hand, a literary period in literary history usually represents a reaction to political rule in a particular country or geographical territory such as the Edwardian Period. Literary movements, however, usually refers to a group of writers or artists’ tendency to follow a certain style. These writers of the same period usually share common goals pertaining to style, ideology, form, and literary aims, etc. by unifying their efforts to spread their artistic and literary ideas and concepts they defend and believe in. Very often, literary movements and literary periods are used interchangeably.

3.1 Some Literary Movements

Literary history comprises a series of literary movements that marked the long and continuous evolution of literature that accompanied the social and political changes humanity went through over centuries. These literary movements are elaborated below as follows:

3.1.1 Metaphysical Movement

The metaphysical movement emerged in the seventeenth century. This literary movement stressed meditating on some important themes such as God, love, death, and human frailty. As its name indicates, the word metaphysical comprises two parts: *meta*, which means *beyond*, and *physical*, which means *understanding*. The literature of this movement was difficult for the common people and beyond their ability to understand. The main characteristics of the literature of this movement are as follows:

- ✎ It was full of wit, irony, and paradox.
- ✎ It was highly philosophical
- ✎ Writers were skillful in using the conceits.
- ✎ Writers used to approach the subject matter with ease to prove point.

Many writers contributed with outstanding literary works. John Donne was one of them who proved to be the master of this movement through his significant literary works entitled: *A Valediction Forbidding Mourning*, *The Sun Rising*, *Death Be Not Proud – Holy Sonnet X*, *Woman’s Constancy* and *Love’s Alchemy*. proved to be master of this movement. Another writer was George Herbert who contributed with his famous works such as *Easter Wings*, *The Collar* and *The Windows*. Andrew Marvell’s is also one of the main writers of this literary movement. He contributed with *The Mower’s Song*, *The Mower to the Glo-Worms*, *The Mower Against Gardens*, *The Garden* and *To His Coy Mistress*.

3.1.2 Transcendentalism

Transcendentalism is an American philosophical and religious movement. Based in New England in the USA, Transcendentalism spanned the period between 1835 and the American Civil War (1861-1865). It was a form of Romanticism that originated in the works of European writers such as Thomas Carlyle, Samuel Coleridge, and Johan Wolfgang von Goethe. The transcendentalists emphasized the importance of intuition and subjective

experience in communication with God. Furthermore, they rejected religious texts and doctrines; instead, they stressed on scientific naturalism and mysticism.

3.1.3 Romantic Movement

Unlike the metaphysical movement, the romantic movement was expressed in the common language, stressing the common life. It emerged in the nineteenth century, spanning the period from 1790 to 1830. Literary works of this movement are highly emotional. To put it differently, romanticism was generally characterized by the use of natural imagery, empowering human imagination to escape society's constraints, established authority, and the fear of death. Therefore, the ideals of romanticism generally included an intense focus on human subjectivity, an exaltation of Nature, which was seen as a vast repository of symbols, of childhood and spontaneity, of primitive forms of society, of human passion and emotion, of the poet, of the sublime, and of imagination as a more comprehensive and inclusive faculty than reason. The most fundamental literary and philosophical disposition of romanticism was irony, an ability to accommodate conflicting perspectives of the world; the Romantics frequently insisted on artistic autonomy and sought to liberate art from moralistic and utilitarian constraints.

3.1.4 The Symbolic Movement

The symbolic movement was connected to a group of French authors between around 1880 and 1895. It may be interpreted as a response to the prevailing naturalist and realism trends in literature in general and, in the case of poetry, to the Parnassians' "objectivity" and descriptive accuracy. The symbolists emphasized that suggestion and evocation were more important than clear analogy and exact description. Symbolist writers had a strong interest in all forms of art and were greatly impacted by the synthesis ideals of Wagner's music dramas, but they were especially interested in investigating the musical qualities of language through the interaction of connotative sound relationships. The movement was also influenced by Nerval, Baudelaire, Poe, and Swedenborg's mystical writings.

The symbolist movement was characterized by several features listed as follows:

- ✎ This movement is viewed as a link between romanticism and modernism.
- ✎ Literary works in this movement tend to be obscure at the beginning of the story but contain deep symbols and intuitive associations.

- ✎ Dreams are depicted through symbols.
- ✎ Relying on synaesthesia as a major mode, which refers to the use of one sense to describe another, namely the French writers who were skillful in using words with several simultaneous meanings, thereby creating resonance between groups of these words.

3.1.5 Realism

Realism is a literary movement that can be defined as the faithfulness to reality. To put it differently, the realistic literary works rely on a literary technique that is based on depicting reality on the ground as it is, without exaggerating or adding or removing facts or traits. This literary movement coincided with Victorianism, an English literary movement in England that spanned the period from 1837 to 1901 and was regarded as a shift towards realism, social commentary, and moral earnestness, thereby mirroring the era's rapid economic and social development caused by the Industrial Revolution. Therefore, Realism as a literary movement is characterized by the following:

- ✎ Detailed representation of reality.
- ✎ Accurate description of events and reality (verisimilitude)
- ✎ Simple language and diction.
- ✎ Omniscient narration.
- ✎ Social critique and commentary.
- ✎ Insights into motives and actions of the characters.
- ✎ Close connection between realism and novels.

In the United States, realism was style in art, literature, and music. It was used essentially to reflect common people's social reality and daily problems, issues, challenges, and preoccupations. The movement began in the midst of the 19th century, namely following the American Civil War (1861-1865). The main writers of this movement were Henry James, and Mark Twain who wrote fictional stories about American lives in different contexts with accurate representation.

3.1.6 Naturalism

Naturalism is another literary movement that is considered to be an extreme version of realism. It emerged at the end of the 19th century as a style in art, movies, and literature. The

famous French writer was the one who coined the term Naturalism, who defined it as a deep observation and complete and utterly realistic portrayal of people's daily life, challenges, issues, and preoccupations. Frank Morris posited that Realism is the opposite of Romanticism, while Naturalism is the mixture of the two. Naturalism emphasized philosophical pessimism, suggesting that individuals' destiny is already predetermined by the surrounding environment. To say it differently, Naturalism held the belief that characters (individuals)' actions and decision are dictated to them by nature (the surrounding environment). Accordingly, Naturalism is characterized by the following traits:

- ✎ Determinism, a philosophical concept that means that a person's fate or destiny is predetermined by the surrounding environment.
- ✎ Pessimism, which is expressed very often by one or two characters through repeating a phrase or statement that tends to have a pessimistic connotation, sometimes alluding to the inevitability of death.
- ✎ Objectivism, which refers to the absence of the author's subjectivity.
- ✎ Employment of scientific attitudes to life and universe.
- ✎ A sudden twist of events at the end of the story which usually comes against the expectations of readers.

3.1.7 Modernism

Modernism is a literary movement that emerged in England around 1920 as a reaction to Romanticism in the aftermath of the WWI (1914-1918). As a matter of fact, the shift from Romanticism to modernism was regarded as a huge shift in the history of poetry. Some historians credited the imagists with the shift from romanticism to modernism. The imagists believed that they were realistic writers whose literary works relied on vernacular language to address concrete subjects, considering the romantics as being behind the time as their works relied on the embellished language and idealism. Besides, the imagists believed that the romantics' works were dedicated to the upper class, expressing their desire to write for and about the common people (Milne, 2009, p. 416).

Modernism suggests that people got tired of the past and are longing for a better future. Therefore, it emphasized writing about real subjects or shed light on how individuals' future lives would be as they dream. In other words, modernists wanted to come up with a new trend

through focusing on the present and the future, not on the past; therefore, exploration and experimentation became its focus.

3.1.8 Post Modernism

Since the early 1980s, several critics have used this phrase to describe the collection of cultural traits typical of Western cultures following Modernism. As a result, “postmodernity” begins to emerge about 1956 with the exhaustion of Beckett’s work, among other things, and the significant cultural influence of popular music and television. Although many critics contend that literary works classified as “postmodernist” are actually continuations of the Modernist tradition, some general literary characteristics of the era have been identified as typical, such as tendencies toward parody, pastiche, skepticism, irony, fatalism, the blending of “high” and “low” cultural allusions, and an indifference to the Modernist pioneers’ vision of art’s redemptive mission. Thus, postmodernism promotes random play rather than planned action, surface rather.

3.1.9 Stream of Consciousness

Fiction writing was influenced by psychoanalytic theories in the 20th century. Some contemporary novelists saw life as a sequence of distinct experiences and events rather than a continuous flow. Dorothy Richardson, James Joyce, and Virginia Woolf all explored the depths of human awareness. For them, human consciousness traveled forward and backward. Carl Jung and Sigmund Freud’s psychological theories had an impact on these authors. According to Freud, human psyche have two divisions-the conscious mind and the unconscious mind. The sub-conscious mind is free from control and repressive forces. The stream-of-consciousness novel’s key characteristics include the portrayal of a changing mind rather than a character, evocative symbolism, compulsive imagery, the fading of narrative structure, the rejection of the unities of time, and location.

4. Conclusion

Literary movements brought about a big development to the style and quality of literary works, allowing readers to enjoy reading about different topics that obsessed people throughout different eras and times. These movements had also chronicled the cultural and socioeconomical development humanity witnessed over centuries and decades, rendering

literary works the best chronicles and historical references readers and students can resort to get knowledge.

5. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

- How do you define the literary movements?
- How can a literary movement affect the plot of the story?
- Which of the following literary movements represents life as it really is?
 - a) Modernism
 - b) Symbolism
 - c) Realism
 - d) Romanticism
- Which of the following literary movements is characterized by a strong interest in nature, individuality, and emotions?
 - a) Modernism
 - b) Romanticism
 - c) Post-modernism

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Lecture 2: Types of Literary Genres

Learning Objectives:	By the end of the lecture, students will grasp the different types of the literary genres.
Key Concepts:	Poetry, drama, prose
Teaching Strategy:	Lecturing.
Teaching Material:	PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

The term literature witnessed a variety of definitions that evolved over time. DiYanni (1999, as cited in Sandika, 2020, p. 6) defined it as “compositions that tell stories, dramatize situations, express emotions, and analyze and advocate ideas” (p. 2). Four centuries ago, the term literary used to refer to all written books and materials. Thereafter, this definition changed during the Romantic period to refer explicitly to all imaginative literature. Etymologically, the word literature is derived from the Latin word *litteratura*, which means the written and spoken texts. DiYanni and other writers consider that people, or rather readers, read literature for pleasure and benefit from others’ experiences; they also read literary texts for the sake of getting knowledge and educational purposes.

2. What is a Literary Genre?

The literary genre is the organization of literary works into categories according to the type of writing. Etymologically, the word genre is derived from the French word *genre*, which originated in Latin word *generis* or *genus*, which means *type*. (Abrahams et al., 2012, as cited in Sandika, 2020). Broadly, the word genre means classifying literary works or artistic works into specific domains. To say it differently, Genre categorizes works of art, including literature, based on a specific criteria to distinguish them according to the text or discourse.

Genre is important as it aids readers to engage literature according to there preferred style or specific domain. To say it differently, to arrange writings according to their form, topic,

and style, genre is crucial. For example, this lets readers to judge whether or not the events being written about in a text are factual or fictional. Genre also defines the objective of the piece and the way in which it is to be conveyed. In other words, plays are designed to be performed and speeches are supposed to be presented orally whereas books and memoirs are meant to be read.

3. The Four Major Genres of English Literature

Literature comprises four major genres, which consist in: poetry, prose, drama, and fiction.

3.1 Poetry

Poetry is historically one of the oldest literary genres. This literary genre emerged from interplaying between words' meaning and their placement in the text. Samuel Taylor Coleridge, an English poet, defined it saying that "poetry is the best words in the best order" (Nagy-Kolozsvári et al., 2021, p. 7). Poems come in different shapes and sizes, and are characterized by overuse of imagery, symbols, and metaphors to convey the right meaning. Actually, just like other literature, poetry is a literary genre through which poets try to communicate their emotions and intellectual responses to their experiences. In other words, poets put words together to make readers feel what they felt and experience what they experienced.

When studying poetry, it is notable to consider the theme it tackles and its development throughout the poem. However, the kind of theme development that occurs throughout the poem hinges considerably on the poem's type; therefore, it is essential to take into account the two distinctions: narrative poetry and lyric poetry.

3.1.1 Narrative Poetry

Narrative poetry advances characters through a plot by providing a verbal depiction of a series of related events in verse. There is always a storyteller. A love story (like Tennyson's *Maud*), the tale of a father and son (like Wordsworth's *Michael*), or the actions of a hero or heroine (like Walter Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel*) are examples of narrative poetry.

3.1.1.1 Epic

One of the oldest literary genres is the epic. It is a lengthy story written in an elegant language that addresses a significant and weighty topic. Epics normally function on a grand scale, both in length and content, such as the birth of a nation (Virgil's Aeneid) or the beginning of world history (Milton's Paradise Lost); they tend to utilize an elevated form of language along with supernatural beings that take part in the action. While Milton's Paradise Lost and Beowulf are examples of English literature, Homer and Virgil's works serve as the models for classical literature.

Epics are characterized by the following traits (Nagy-Kolozsvári et al., 2021):

- ✎ The hero is a figure of great importance.
- ✎ The setting of the poem is ample in scale;
- ✎ The action involves superhuman deeds in battle or a long and arduous journey.
- ✎ Supernatural beings' gods have an interest or active part in the action.
- ✎ There are catalogues of some of the principal characters, introduced in formal detail.
- ✎ The narrator begins by stating his theme and invoking a muse.
- ✎ The narrative starts in medias res, that is 'in the middle of things', when the action is at a critical point.

3.1.1.2 Ballad

A ballad is a song, originally delivered orally, which conveys a story. It is an important form of folk poetry that was modified for literary usage from the 16th century forward. The ballad stanza typically consists of four lines that alternate between trimeter and tetrameter. ABCB or ABAB is the rhyme system.

3.1.2 Lyric Poetry

A lyric poem is a fairly brief, non-narrative poem in which a single speaker portrays a state of mind or an emotional condition. Lyric poetry retains some of the features of a song which is claimed to be its origin: for Greek writers, the lyric was a song accompanied by the lyre. Subcategories of the lyric are, for example, elegy, ode, sonnet, dramatic monologue and most occasional poetry.

3.1.2.1 Elegy

Up to the 17th century, any poem with a somber meditation theme was referred to as a “elegy”. Thenceforth, it has been used to describe poems in which the speaker laments the loss of what he cherished or the death of a specific person (such as Tennyson's “In Memoriam A.H.H”). In a broader sense, the word “elegy” can also refer to somber reflections, frequently concerning mortality, like Gray's “Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard” (Nagy-Kolozsvári et al., 2021, p. 8). An example of elegy is Walt Whitman’s “O Captain, My Captain,” which Whitman wrote following the assassination of the American President Abraham Lincoln:

O Captain! My Captain! rise up and hear the bells;
Rise up—for you the flag is flung—for you the bugle trills;
For you bouquets and ribbon'd wreaths—for you the shores acrowding;
For you they call, the swaying mass, their eager faces turning;
Here captain! dear father!
This arm beneath your head;
It is some dream that on the deck,
You've fallen cold and dead.
My Captain does not answer, his lips are pale and still;
My father does not feel my arm, he has no pulse nor will;
The ship is anchor'd safe and sound, its voyage closed and done;
From fearful trip, the victor ship, comes in with object won;
Exult, O shores, and ring, O bells!
But I, with mournful tread,
Walk the deck my captain lies,
Fallen cold and dead.

3.1.2.2 Ode

An ode is a lengthy lyric poem written in an elevated style about a serious subject. Odes speak to a particular individual, object, or occasion. It is thought that the ancient Greeks, who would sing their odes, developed the ode. The first odes were penned by the Greek poet Pindar in the 5th century B.C. In 17th-century England, a form of the ode that mimicked the Pindaric ode in content and style but streamlined the stanza structure gained a lot of popularity. Modern odes follow an irregular pattern and are not needed to rhyme. Modern odes follow an irregular

pattern and are not required to rhyme. Keats' Ode to a Grecian Urn and Wordsworth's Hymn to Duty are well-known examples. By the middle of the Victorian period, however, it was deemed old-fashioned and had fallen out of use. "Ode to the West Wind" by Percy Bysshe Shelley is an example of ode:

Scatter, as from an unextinguish'd hearth
ashes and sparks, my words among mankind!
Be through my lips to unawaken'd earth
the trumpet of a prophecy! O wind,
if winter comes, can spring be far behind?

3.1.2.3 Sonnet

A sonnet is a 14-line poem usually written in iambic pentameter (Milne, 2009). Etymologically, the word sonnet comes from the Italian word 'sonetto', which means 'little song or sound'. The sonnet was initially a love poem that dealt with the lover's pains and hopes. It started in Italy and gained popularity in England during the Renaissance when Thomas Wyatt and the Earl of Surrey translated and copied Petrarch's sonnets (Petrarchan sonnet). From the seventeenth century onwards, the sonnet was often employed for other issues than love, for instance for religious experience (by Donne and Milton), thoughts on art (by Keats or Shelley), or even the military experience (by Brooke or Owen). The sonnet employs a single stanza of (typically) fourteen lines and an elaborate rhyme structure (Nagy-Kolozsvári et al., 2021).

Sonnets are practically synonymous with Shakespeare, but there are actually two different kinds of this famous poetic form. Having originated in 13th century Italy, the sonnet usually deals with love and has two common forms: the Petrarchan (named for its famous practitioner, the poet Petrarch) and the Shakespearean (also known as the English sonnet). Each type contains fourteen lines but comes with its own set of rules. Sonnets are often about love, namely lost love, married love, forgotten love, the longing for love, etc. They are written in iambic pentameter (Nagy-Kolozsvári et al., 2021).

3.1.2.3.1 Characteristics of Petrarchan Sonnets

- ✎ Two stanzas.
- ✎ Presents an argument, observation, or query in the opening 8 lines (octave).
- ✎ Turn (or "volta") between 8th and 9th lines.

- ✎ The topic or problem raised in the first stanza is addressed in the second stanza (6 lines, or the sestet).
- ✎ Rhyme Scheme: ABBA, ABBA, CDE CDE

3.1.2.3.2 Characteristics of Shakespearean Sonnet

- ✎ Three quatrains (4 lines each) and a couplet (2 lines).
- ✎ Couplet usually forms a conclusion.
- ✎ Rhyme scheme: ABAB, CDCD, EFEF, GG.

The Following is Shakespeare's Sonnet 130

My mistress' eyes are nothing like the sun;
coral is far more red than her lips' red;
if snow be white, why then her breasts are dun;
if hairs be wires, black wires grow on her head.
I have seen roses damask'd, red and white,
but no such roses see i in her cheeks;
and in some perfumes is there more delight
than in the breath that from my mistress reeks.
I love to hear her speak, yet well i know
that music hath a far more pleasing sound;
i grant i never saw a goddess go;
my mistress, when she walks, treads on the ground:
and yet, by heaven, i think my love as rare
as any she belied with false compare.

3.2 Prose

Prose is a sort of writing that is written via the use of sentences. These phrases are joined to form paragraphs. This type of writing is vast and encompasses both fiction and non-fiction.

3.2.1 Fiction

Fiction is a type of prose that is not real. The ability to write a story based on fictional characters or events is granted to authors. The stories that fiction tells are imaginative in nature, even though it may be based on actual events. This genre use metaphorical language, just like

poetry, but it is more structural and adheres to grammatical rules. Freytag's plot pyramid, which consists of an exposition, inciting incident, rising action, climax, falling action, resolution, and dénouement, is frequently used in fiction.

3.2.2 Nonfiction

Another kind of prose that is factual rather than creative is called nonfiction. Because it is more factual and less imaginative, it may utilize fewer metaphorical language. Nonfiction, however, differs from work to work. It could be purely factual, like a history textbook, or it could tell a story through a memoir.

3.3 Drama/Play

The word 'drama' refers to any work that is meant for performance by actors on stage. Because the written text—what we refer to as the play—is only one part of the work, it is a sort of writing or genre that differs greatly from poetry or fiction. To make a dramatic text come to life, additional components are required, including the actors who are the people who interpret the parts of the play, the director who is the person who decides how the play should be performed, and the audience who are the people who watch the play.

Every time we read a play, we ought to consider how it might be performed on stage. Seeing as many live or recorded performances of the play as you can is always beneficial. A stage is where a play is performed. On the stage, a set reflecting the place where the action takes place is erected. The set usually comprises props, stage furniture, artifacts, coloured backcloths, etc. The set will immediately provide us with details about the play, such as the historical era it takes place in.

4. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

- What are the four major types of literary genres?
- What distinguishes fictional prose from the non-fictional one?
- What makes the literary genre important for writers?
- To which literary genre does "The Red Badge of Courage" belong?

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Lecture 3: Elements of the Plot

Learning Objectives:	By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the five elements of a story's plot.
Key Concepts:	Exposition, rising action, climax, falling action, resolution
Teaching Strategy:	Lecturing.
Teaching Material:	PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

Writing stories is an artistic job that requires skillful writers with ability to weave the chain and sequence of events, called the plot. In a word, “the plot is the foundation of a story” (Muniz, 2025). Besides, drafting a plot requires following a certain logic and ordering the events to make it plausible and triggers the attention of the audience. Therefore, five elements are quite important and essential and have to be part of each plot in each narrative.

2. Structure of the Plot

The plot structure, also called the dramatic structure, of a story, novel or script includes the events that make up the idea of the writing. These are often laid out as a series of beginning, middle and end details and include five basic elements as well as a conflict. Conflict is necessary to the plot of any story, novel or script, and comes in two types: internal or external, and four kinds: man vs. man, man vs. circumstances, man vs. society and man vs. self. The idea of a plot containing these five elements first originated in 1863 in the “Technique of the Drama” by Gustav Freytag, who was building on the ideas of Aristotle from “The Poetics”.

2.1 Introduction or Exposition

The introduction is the part of the story where the main characters and plot points, including the locale, are introduced. Although secondary plot conflicts may be introduced later, the main conflict of the tale, novel, or script is typically also hinted at in the start. The introduction occurs in the first few paragraphs of a shorter work, whereas it occurs in the first

few chapters of a longer work, like a novel. The opening frequently contains the narrative hook, or the point in the story where the author really grabs the reader's attention.

2.2 Rising Action

The rising action, which occurs in the first third of a tale, novel, or screenplay, is also where the main issue or conflict is introduced. The key characters have been defined and situations begin to get problematic for them. They may take actions against the conflict yet it will probably not be solved yet. Excitement, suspense, and a crisis arise in this section of the story. Also, this stage is mainly characterized by the introduction of the conflict between the protagonist and the antagonist. This conflict can be either external or internal.

2.2.1 External Conflict

The external conflict can take three forms: man vs man, man vs society, and man vs nature. They are explored as follows:

2.2.1.1 Man vs. Man

The conflict between man and man is also referred to as the conflict between the protagonist and antagonist or between a character and another character. This conflict is the most common type that pervades literary works. This conflict hinges on the differences between the protagonist and antagonist in terms of goals, desires, and will. This clash of wills and objectives engenders a series of events that attract the audience's attention till the end of the story.

2.2.1.2 Man vs. Society

In this conflict type, the struggle lies between the protagonist and his/hers society. To say it differently, the protagonist struggles with the customs, beliefs, traditions, social norms and rules of their society.

2.2.1.3 Man vs. Nature

In this conflict type, the protagonist struggles with a nonhuman antagonist or one of the nature's forces such as flood, earthquake, etc.

2.2.2 Internal conflict

The inner conflict refers to the struggle between the protagonist and his inner thoughts and feelings. At the beginning, the protagonist has his/her set way of perceiving things, but over the course of the story, some challenges to their set way appear, where the protagonist has to face them, thereby testing their set way and showing whether they would change their set way or they would stick to it.

2.2.3 Man vs. Self

In this conflict type, the protagonist struggles with his/her beliefs or trauma. By the end of the story, the protagonist will undergo some changes regarding their set way of perceiving things and their way of thinking about important thoughts.

2.3 Climax

A tale, novel, or script's climax is its pivotal moment. It is the point at which the protagonist appears to be in danger or may even be unable to resolve the issue. The acts at this stage of the process can be either physical or mental, depending on the type of conflict (man against. man, man vs. self, etc.).

2.4 Falling Action

The falling action, which follows the climax, contains incidents that contribute to the conflict's complete resolution. Both the outcomes of the main character's activities and decisions—whether favorable or unfavorable for the character—are shown.

2.5 Resolution

The resolution is the final plot point in a tale, novel, or screenplay. This is when tensions are resolved, loose ends are tied up, results are disclosed, and a happy or tragic ending occurs. As many of the final activities have already taken place, a resolution might be made up of an only a synopsis of where the main character will end up in the future, instead of incorporating any more active events.

3. Conclusion

To sum up, each story's plot comprises five elements that are indispensable. These elements are the introduction or exposition, rising action, climax, falling action, and resolution. The exposition is the part of the story dedicated to the presentation of the characters and the setting, and the context of the story to familiarize readers with the story. The rising action is the part of the story dedicated to presenting the conflict that keep getting complicated till it reaches its climax where suspense reaches its peak. Thereafter, the conflict starts its way to get solved and handled during the stage of the falling actions till it became completely solved in the end of the story, also referred to as the resolution.

4. Quiz and Activities Designed for Classroom Interaction

- What are the five elements of the plot?
- In which part (element of the plot) suspense peaks?
- What should be presented in the exposition part of the plot?
- What is the climax in the *Red Badge of Courage*?
- What type of conflict does exist in *The Red Badge of Courage*?

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Lecture 4: Characterization

Learning Objectives:	By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the notion of characterization, its importance for the plot, and the component of each character.
Key Concepts:	Characterization, types of characters, components of characters
Teaching Strategy:	Lecturing.
Teaching Material:	PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

A character is a literary device that consists of a succinct description of a generic type of person, as a “boaster” or a “malcontent”. The form was created in the third century B.C. by the Greek author Theophrastus, and then was modified and made popular in 17th-century England by Joseph Hall (*Characters of Virtues and Vices*, 1608) and Sir Thomas Overbury (*Characters*, 1614) (Quinn, 2006, p.73). In brief, characters in the story are “the personalities, voices, and perspectives that bring a story to life” (Ringo, 2024). In other words, a character is “any person, animal, entity that takes part in the action of the narrative” ().

Hence, writers cannot dispense with characters to weave the sequence of events of their story’s plot because they are essential to the plot as they carry out the behaviours, actions, reactions, interactions, and decisions that keep the story moving forward to reach its end. Accordingly, no story can be written and expressed without using different types of characters that are necessary to depict the events of the story.

2. Components of a Character

2.1 Physical Appearance

The character’s physical appearances refer to his/her physical attributes, including the appearance, clothes, language, behaviour, etc. These traits can be of great importance because it would have a great impact on how each character is perceived by the audience. Thus, perfect description of the characters can help shape a vivid mental image the audience would have about each character, making it easier to memorable (Annette, 2025).

2.2 Background/Backstory

The background or the backstory of a character refers to his/her history and previous experiences that shape his/her personality, mentality, behaviors, motivations, and priorities in life. Thus, knowing the character's backstory is quite important as it helps in understanding why he/she behaves in a certain way.

2.3 Personality Traits

The personality traits are important in terms of defining how the characters feel, think, proceed, and behave. These traits distinguish characters from each other, rendering each one of them unique.

2.4 Wants and Needs

A character's wants and needs, also referred to as motivations, refer to his/her set of objectives and desires that drive his/her actions throughout the story. They are paramount as they aid the audience to shape a vivid mental image of characters' tendencies and determination to achieve their goals.

3. Types of Characters

Characters in a narrative can be categorized according to their complexity and development throughout the story, and according to their role in the story.

4. Categorizing Characters by Their Role in the Story

Categorizing characters according to their role in the story refers to the job each character does in the story. To say it differently, every role in the story matters a lot as it helps readers classifying and knowing the importance of the character.

4.1 Protagonist

The protagonist is the main character who drives the story. In other words, the story centers on the protagonist's development, growth, and their main objectives, dreams, and challenges (Annette, 2025). Hence, through the protagonist's lens, readers can see and experience the challenges this main character undergoes during the whole story of the narrative.

4.2 Antagonist

The antagonist in the story represents the chief opposing power to the protagonist. Together with the protagonist, the antagonist creates conflict, tension, and stakes, thereby forcing the protagonist to develop throughout the chapters of the story (Annette, 2025). This does not mean that the protagonist has to be an evil person; that is, it could be something that causes obstacles and challenges to the protagonist.

4.3 Contagonist

The contagonist is a character who is neither a friend nor a foe of the protagonist. Furthermore, the contagonist contributes to complicating the protagonist's challenges; therefore, their actions blur the line between a supporter or oppose to the protagonist (Annette, 2025).

4.4 Deuteragonists

Deuteragonists are characters of the second level who either support or oppose the protagonist. They assist advance the plot, expose aspects of the main character, and influence important plot points. They are considered as the emotional anchors or the second-in-command.

4.5 Antihero

An antihero character is the one who is morally doubtful or imperfect protagonist. Even though they battle with ethics or make dubious decisions, they are nevertheless essential to the plot. Their unpredictable nature keeps readers interested and speculating (Annette, 2025).

4.6 Confidant

The confidant is the person the protagonist confides in and resorts to ask advice when needed. They serve as a sounding board for decisions, offer emotional support, and disclose inner ideas. They frequently aid in the audience's deeper comprehension of the protagonist.

4.7 Guide/Mentor

The guide or the mentor is the person who provides the protagonist with pieces of advice to help him/her to find solutions to their changes and issues. In other words, the guide offers

his/her wisdom, experience, insight, or tools that aid the protagonist to settle their issues and overcome the obstacles they obstruct their way.

4.8 Sidekicks

Sidekicks are the protagonist's companions who assist him/her overcome all obstacles in their way to meet his/her goals. They show traits of the main characters, and thus their presence is quite important to the emotional resonance of the whole story (Annette, 2025).

4.9 Love Interest

The love interest is the protagonist's main object of desire. To say it differently, the love interest helps driving romantic tension and emotional stakes for the protagonist. This type of character are usually accessory to the plot. However, love interest characters quite important as their decisions gravely impact the journey of the protagonist throughout the story. Accordingly, a well-depicted love interest character can reveal other important aspects about the protagonist through complicating their challenges or inspiring them (Annette, 2025). An example of love interest character is Daisy Buchanan in *The Great Gatsby*.

4.10 Foil

The foil character is the one that contrasts with the protagonist (or another character) to highlight his/her traits, strengths, weaknesses. In plain English, the foil's existence in the story aims to highlight the protagonist's qualities; therefore, the foil is exactly the opposite of the main character, the protagonist.

4.11 Temptress

The temptress is a character whose main role is to test the protagonist's morals, loyalty, or concentration by challenging or diverting them. They create suspense, mystery, or moral quandaries. Hence, characters are frequently forced by their role to face shortcomings or impulses they would prefer to avoid.

4.12 Henchmen

Henchmen characters are those persons who support the adversary with abilities, strength, or mischief; they intensify the tension and lend credibility to the main villain's

schemes. If written with personality, even small henchmen can make an impression (Annette,2025).

5. Categorizing Characters according to their Complexity

The complexity of a character refers to the idea of how the character changes throughout the story or remains without changes; accordingly, some characters change, but others remain unchanged.

5.1 Dynamic/Changing Characters

Dynamic characters are those characters who undergo some changes, subtle or drastic, throughout the course of the story. Changes that occur to the characters trigger the attention of readers; therefore, characters' challenges, choices, and growth keep readers attached to the story till its end.

5.2 Static/Unchanging Characters

Unlike the dynamic characters, static characters remain unchanged throughout the story. In other words, static characters do not experience any growth during the story; still, they provide consistent point of tension. To say it differently, static characters are usually the foil to the dynamic characters, thereby facilitating highlighting the important changes that occur to dynamic characters (Annette, 2025).

5.3 Round Characters

Round characters are more likely to seem real. They are complex and well-developed. In plain English, round characters have multiple facets and develop over the course of the story. These characters are usually the protagonists or the supporting characters (Annette, 2025).

5.4 Flat Characters

Unlike round characters, flat characters tend to be minor characters who do not undergo changes during the course of the story (Quinn, 2006).

5.5 Tertiary Character

Tertiary characters are background players. Such characters are paramount to creating a living and breathing environment. They are minor characters that appear once or twice (one

or two scenes) in the story to fulfill a specific aim, such as providing information. They are “one and done” figures or “bit players” who appear once or twice during the story, such as a waiter or guard.

5.6 Stock Characters

Stock characters are stereotypical or archetypal figures in literature, film, theater that the audience instantly recognize owing to their predictable features, appearance, and behaviors. They serve as narrative shortcuts, thereby helping writers to quickly establish roles without the need for deep development of the character. One may think of the “mad scientist,” the “wise mentor,” or the “damsel in distress” as examples of readily identifiable archetypes that make up stock characters. They are a helpful way to convey qualities to readers in shorthand, but be careful not to overuse them (Annette, 2025).

5.7 Symbolic Characters

Characters with symbolic meanings stand in for thoughts, ideas, or moral principles. They focus more on their meaning than their actions. When used effectively, they can increase the resonance of your story without requiring a lot of backstory.

6. The Twelve Types of Characters in Fiction

Fictional characters frequently fit into identifiable stereotypes that advance plots. Thinkers like Carl Jung and Joseph Campbell have studied these archetypes, and generations of authors, filmmakers, and storytellers have honed them. Knowing these trends allows you to create characters who are both recognizable and unique. Even though not all twelve will appear in every story, being aware of these archetypes can help you create a cast that is memorable, dynamic, and well-balanced.

6.1 The Innocent

The innocent is a character who regards life and events with an optimistic perspective, hope, and a sense of wonder and care. They believe in the goodness of people. They frequently serve as the moral compass of the narrative since they think that people are good and try to act morally. Their unshakeable faith inspires others and sets the tone for the trip ahead, even though their naivete can leave them vulnerable.

6.2 The Lover

Seeking intimacy and meaningful relationships, the Lover archetype is driven by passion, emotion, and connection. They value beauty, romance, and closeness, and they frequently serve as the emotional core of a story, generating both tension and poignant moments with their vulnerability and desire (Annette, 2025).

6.3 The Hero

The Hero in a narrative is the character who is brave, resolute, and prepared to fight for a cause; they confront obstacles head-on and learn from them about their limitations and what it takes to succeed. The Hero of a story frequently serves as an inspiration to others, but their path is rarely simple, with many drawbacks that try their resolve and character (Annette, 2025).

6.4 The Outlaw

In a story, the outlaw is the rebel who refuses to follow social norms. Though not necessarily, the outlaw might be a villain. Independent thought and skepticism are among the outlaw's strong points. Criminality and self-involvement may be among their flaws. Humbert Humbert, Dean Moriarty, and Han Solo are a few of the well-known criminals (MasterClass, 2021).

6.5 The Explorer

The explorer is a character that is naturally motivated to push limits and discover new things in life. Their strong points that characterize them consist in their curiosity, drive, and self-improvement motivation. They are unsatisfied, restless, and untrustworthy, which makes them weak (MasterClass, 2021). Their travels emphasize themes of freedom and self-realization and are as much about within exploration as they are about outward adventure.

6.6 The Everyman

In a story, the everyman character is a likeable figure who seems familiar from everyday life. Concerning their strengths, they are relatable and grounded. In terms of shortcomings, they usually don't have any exceptional abilities and are frequently unprepared for future events. Everymen serve as examples of the average individual in unusual situations, frequently

demonstrating that anyone can achieve bravery and personal evolution. They are a stabilizing factor in a story because of their dependability and empathy (Annette, 2026).

6.7 The Magician

The magician is a strong character who has used the universe's methods to further their objectives. Their faults are corruption and conceit, while their strengths can be omniscience, omnipotence, and discipline. The magician, who frequently acts as a catalyst or guide, changes people, circumstances, and realities. S/he see possibilities that others do not, and they possess vision and insight. Their interventions are essential for releasing potential and promoting revolutionary change, despite the fact that they might occasionally be cryptic or ambiguous (Annette, 2026).

6.8 The Ruler

In a narrative, the ruler is a figure who has emotional or legal control over other people. The omnipotence, prestige, and wealth are among its advantages. Their shortcomings include being distant, unpopular with others, and constantly appearing out of touch. Also, the ruler, who is authoritative, accountable, and commanding, aims to maintain order and control. They help organizations work toward common objectives and provide order to otherwise chaotic environments. They frequently struggle to preserve leadership while avoiding tyranny by striking a balance between justice and power (Annette, 2026).

6.9 The Creator

In a story, the person who is creative, inventive, and motivated to construct is the creator. To put it succinctly, they give concepts life. They thrive on being creative, expressing themselves, and making a difference in the world. Their road may be complicated by obsession or perfectionism, but their vision inspires and leaves a lasting impression on stories (Annette, 2026).

6.10 The Sage

The sage in a narrative is a knowledgeable and wise character who answers questions. The sage's strengths are insight, experience, and wisdom. The sage may be too cautious and reluctant to actually participate, which is a sign of weakness (MasterClass, 2021).

6.11 The Jester

A story's jester is a purposefully humorous figure who offers comedic relief while occasionally delivering poignant messages. Among the strengths are the capacity for humor, disarming, and insight. One of their weaknesses is their propensity to be annoying and shallow (MasterClass, 2021).

6.12 The Caregiver

Selfless, caring, and compassionate, the caregiver aims to safeguard and assist others. They frequently prioritize the needs of others over their own because they are driven by empathy and a desire to lessen suffering. Their presence emotionally grounds a narrative by offering warmth, stability, and moral guidance (Annette, 2026).

7. Conclusion

To conclude, it's just half the fight to comprehend character kinds and archetypes. The story one may write is shaped by how they use them. One can create characters that come to life, advance their story, and connect with readers in any format if they understand the roles, the intricacy, and the archetypes.

8. Quiz and Activities designed for Classroom Interaction

- What is the difference between the flat and round characters?
- Can a foil character be round?
- Could writers dispense with the protagonist or the antagonist?
- How does the choice of characters impact the quality of the plot?
- What are the characters in "*The Red Badge of Courage*"?
- What is the combination of protagonist antagonist in *The Red Badge of Courage*?

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Lecture 5: Literary Themes

Learning Objectives:	By the end of the lecture, students will be able to understand the notion of a literary theme and acquainted with the major themes in a narrative
Key Concepts:	Literary theme, theme of love, justice, loneliness, ...etc.
Teaching Strategy:	Lecturing.
Teaching Material:	PowerPoint.

1. Introduction

The theme of a story is the main concept or lesson it conveys. To put it another way, a theme is not the storyline or the events themselves, but rather the underlying meaning that underpins and determines the story's happenings. Because of this, a story devoid of ideas may make the reader laugh, but it rarely sticks in their mind. Themes engage readers by raising questions, revealing facts, and imparting valuable life lessons. Furthermore, a book's concepts are what make it a favorite rather than just a book to read. A redemption narrative might remind someone of a second opportunity they took, but a survival story might inspire perseverance. As a result, a story without themes could make you laugh, but it rarely affects your feelings or sticks with you.

2. Common Themes in Literature

Literary works are full of themes that most of them appear and reappear in different stories. This is because they are common and highlight individuals' shared experiences that revolve around their main concerns in their daily lives. As such, themes can be like good vs. evil, loyalty and betrayal, faith and doubt, power and corruption, family, love, beauty, survival, justice, death and morality, freedom and oppression, fate and free will, prejudice, war, tradition vs. change, identity, revenge and forgiveness, loneliness, self-destruction, to name few.

2.1 Good vs. Evil

Perhaps, this theme is the oldest and the most well-known them that pervaded stories since the whole life revolves around the struggle between good and bad people.

2.2 Loyalty and Betrayal

Loyalty and betrayal is another theme that entrenched most of the stories. Loyalty refers to the one's faithfulness and commitment to another person, belief, or a cause, while betrayal is the opposite and thus refers to the breaking of the trust, thereby causing others to feel bitterness and emotional turmoil towards betrayers.

2.3 Faith and Doubt

Another important theme is that of faith and doubt. Faith refers to the idea of believing in god, a religion, a cause, thoughts, principles, to name a few. In a story, the theme of faith usually revolves around questions about trust and individuals' convictions.

2.4 Power and Corruption

Since ancient times, people tended to look for power in its different shapes or forms. People regard power as an essential element in their lives to survive, prosper, defend themselves, and reach their needs. Accordingly, literary works tackled this theme, showing how it shapes people's lives and affects the course of whole societies (Villirilli, 2025).

2.5 Family

Family is another essential theme that is entrenched in a great deal of literary works. This theme explores family ties and relationships between members of the same family. Besides, this theme shows the commitment of the family members to assisting each other when facing difficulties and obstacles.

2.6 Love

The theme of love is probably one of the oldest themes tackled in literary works, as it is purely human. It explores family bonds and the affection between lovers. Love stories usually revolve around how such beautiful emotions of affection can bring happiness, peace, growth, and comfort to lovers but also explores how it could cause painful feelings to lovers.

2.7 Beauty

The theme of beauty deals with the impact of the nature's beauty on people. It also tackles the power of love and its influence on lovers. It also examines how the society values

or misvalue the beauty, highlighting people's tendency to get easily inspired or deceive each other.

2.8 Survival

The human instinct to confront difficulties, persevere through adversity, and survive in the face of adversity is the main focus of survival theme. The latter examines the mental, emotional, and physical challenges that humans face in harsh environments.

2.9 Justice

Fairness, morality, and doing what is right are the main focuses of justice. The challenges of achieving equality, the effects of injustice, and the intricacies of social, legal, or individual accountability are all explored in stories about justice. Readers are frequently prompted to think about ethics and the harmony between morality and the law by this theme.

2.10 Death and Morality

Humanity has always looked for purpose in the face of our impending demise, from ancient epics to sacred writings. Can we learn how to live properly by facing our mortality? How do we handle losing a loved one? Is it possible for us to die with honor?

2.11 Freedom and Oppression

The human desire to escape oppression, social norms, or mental prisons is the subject of this issue. Both personal and governmental revolutions are fueled by the conflict between liberty and control. For freedom, how much are we willing to pay? In what ways do oppressed people participate in their own oppression? What does being genuinely free mean?

2.12 Fate and Free-Will

This theme of fate and free-will examines our concerns about meaning and agency as well as the conflict between fate and free will. Do we forge our own paths or are we molded by other forces? Is it possible to avoid what appears to be written in the stars? Where does free will, and hence, responsibility, start and fate stop?

2.13 Prejudice

The issue of prejudice explores our natural tendency to categorize individuals into "us" and "them," showing how this prejudice can take the form of overt acts of hatred or subtle, commonplace presumptions that injure and alienate others in silence. How do we come to reject or be afraid of things we don't understand? Is it possible to unlearn prejudice? When we consider others to be less than human, what do we lose?

2.14 War

War is one of the most prevalent subjects in literature since it is a significant aspect of human history, whether we like it or not. The finest and worst of humanity at its most extreme are explored in war stories, from Homer's Iliad to contemporary battle narratives. What aspects of human nature are exposed by war? How do regular individuals develop amazing bravery or, conversely, extraordinary violence? Is it possible for anyone to come out of combat unaltered?

2.15 Tradition vs. Change

This theme examines the generational clash between respecting the past and looking to the future, between what has always been and what may be. At what point does tradition stop being a foundation and start acting as a prison? Before losing its identity, how much change can a culture withstand? Is it possible for us to proceed without turning our backs on our origins?

2.16 Identity

Numerous stories are motivated by the desire to find out "Who am I?" and "Where do I belong?" How can we tell the difference between who we really are and what other people think we should be? Will we ever know ourselves completely? What if figuring out who we are means losing everything else?

2.17 Revenge and Forgiveness

Literature has examined the dual drives to return damage and let it go, from ancient blood feuds to contemporary grudges. These conflicting forces raise important issues regarding human nature, justice, and healing. Does seeking retribution lead to never-ending cycles of retaliation, or does it actually satisfy? Is forgiveness the greatest strength or a sign of weakness? Is it possible to forget without forgiving or to forgive without forgetting?

2.18 Heroism

In literature, heroes abound, ranging from dragon slayers and demigods to regular humans in unusual situations. What exactly qualifies as heroism is questioned in contemporary literature. Is it about silent perseverance or big gestures? Is it possible for reluctant heroes to be more valiant than eager ones? What distinguishes martyrdom from heroism?

2.19 Loneliness

Loneliness as a literary theme examines physical isolation as well as the incapacity to be fully known. Can being surrounded by people make us feel lonely? Are loneliness and isolation the same thing? When we lose the ability to let people in, what happens?

2.20 Self-Destruction

The contradictory ability of humans to be our own worst enemies has long been explored in literature. These tales explore the ways in which we undermine our own happiness. Why do we destroy what we have created? When life seems out of control, is self-destruction a way to gain control? Can someone who is determined to fall be saved?

3. Conclusion

To conclude, themes in a literary work are essential to writers because they explore the ideas and messages they want to convey through the story of the work. These themes usually highlight the values, principles, beliefs, and convictions people adhere to in their daily lives. Also, through themes, writers can stress some values people ought to stick to in their societies to prosper and evolve.

4. Quiz and Activities designed for Classroom Interaction

- Can writers write stories without setting the themes they ought to explore through their work?
- How can themes affect author's choice of characters?

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