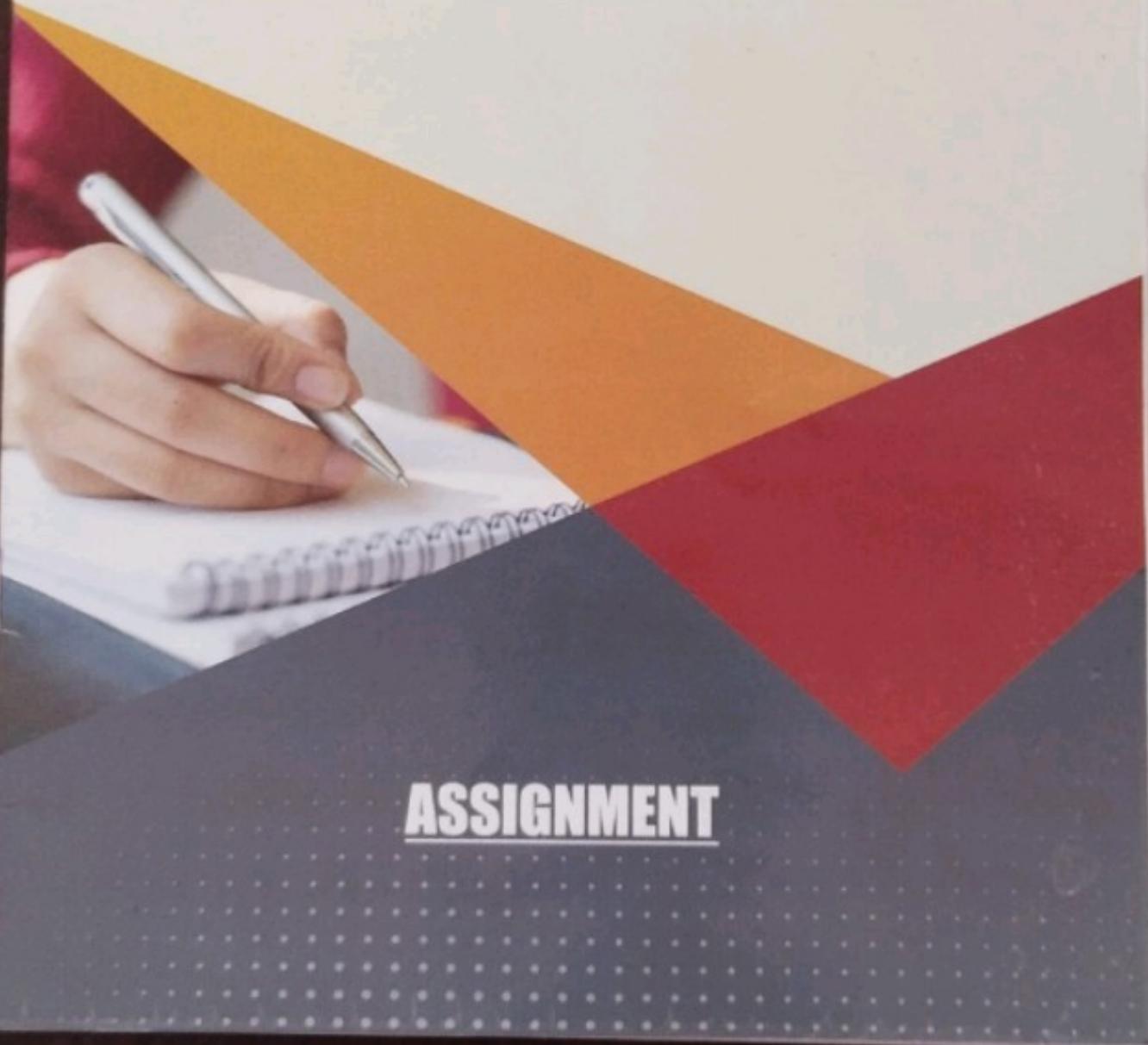




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R.K. VIGYAN P.G. MAHAVIDHYALAYA



Affiliated to University of Rajasthan, Approved by Govt. of Raj.)

Kalwar Road, Kalwar, Jaipur (Raj.)

Website : rkgroupofcollege.com , Mob. No. : 9314501146

E-mail : hrshreebalajieducationsamiti@gmail.com

B.A. / B.Sc. / B.Com.

ASSIGNMENT WORK / MIDTERM TEST

Session 20 24 - 20 25

Semester IInd

Name of Student Amitu Kisanlwal Father's Name Mr. Lalchand Kisanlwal

Roll No. Enrollment No.

Year 2025 Semester IInd

Q.NO. 1 The American Revolution Causes & Consequences

Q.NO. 2 The Role of Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Cavour in the Unification of Italy

Q.NO. 3 The Russian Revolution of 1917: Causes and Consequences

Q.NO. 4 Circumstances Leading to the Birth of the United Nations (UN)

The American Revolution (1765–1783)

The American Revolution was a period of political upheaval during the latter half of the 18th century, in which the Thirteen Colonies of North America overthrew the rule of the British Crown and established the independent United States of America.

I. Causes of the American Revolution (Kāraṇ)

The causes of the American Revolution were multifaceted, stemming from political, economic, and ideological differences that accumulated over decades.

A. Political and Administrative Causes

1. Salutary Neglect and Its End:

- **Prior to 1763:** Britain generally followed a policy of "Salutary Neglect," allowing the colonies a high degree of self-governance and economic freedom. This fostered a strong sense of autonomy and self-reliance among the colonists.
- **After 1763 (Seven Years' War/French and Indian War):** The war left Britain deeply in debt. The British government, under King George III, abandoned salutary neglect and sought to assert greater direct control, leading to conflict with the established colonial legislatures.

2. Lack of Colonial Representation ("No Taxation Without Representation"):

- The core political grievance was the colonists' belief that the British Parliament had no right to levy taxes on them because the colonies were not directly represented in Parliament.
- Parliament, however, argued for "virtual representation," claiming that all members of Parliament represented the interests of all British subjects, including the colonists. This was vehemently rejected by the Americans.

3. The Proclamation of 1763:

- Issued by King George III after the Seven Years' War, it forbade colonists from settling west of the Appalachian Mountains.
- The goal was to prevent costly conflicts with Native American tribes, but the colonists viewed it as an infringement on their freedom and economic opportunity.

4. The Intolerable Acts (Coercive Acts of 1774):

- A set of punitive laws passed by the British Parliament in response to the Boston Tea Party.
- **Key components:** Closure of Boston Harbor, restriction of Massachusetts self-government, allowing British officials to be tried in Britain rather than the colonies, and the Quartering Act (requiring colonists to house British soldiers).
- These acts galvanized inter-colonial unity and were seen as a direct threat to colonial liberty.

B. Economic Causes (Taxation and Trade Restrictions)

1. The Sugar Act (1764):

- Aimed to raise revenue by increasing duties on non-British foreign goods like sugar, coffee, wine, and textiles. It was also designed to crack down on smuggling.

2. The Stamp Act (1765):

- The first direct tax levied on the colonists. It required a stamp on all paper documents, including legal documents, newspapers, playing cards, and calendars.
- Generated widespread protest, boycotts, and the formation of groups like the **Sons of Liberty**. Its repeal in 1766 provided temporary relief but was followed by the Declaratory Act (1766).

3. The Townshend Acts (1767):

- Imposed duties on imported goods like glass, lead, paper, paint, and tea.

- Led to renewed boycotts and the use of **Writs of Assistance** (general search warrants) to enforce customs laws, which colonists saw as a violation of their rights.

4. The Tea Act (1773) and the Boston Tea Party:

- The Tea Act was an attempt to save the financially struggling British East India Company by granting it a monopoly on tea sales in the colonies. This undercut colonial merchants.
- In protest, colonists disguised as Native Americans dumped 342 chests of tea into Boston Harbor on December 16, 1773 (The Boston Tea Party).

C. Ideological and Social Causes

1. Enlightenment Influence:

- Ideas from Enlightenment thinkers like **John Locke** (natural rights: life, liberty, and property; government by consent) and **Montesquieu** (separation of powers) were widely read and adopted by colonial leaders.
- **Thomas Paine's pamphlet, Common Sense (1776)**: This influential work made a clear and compelling case for immediate independence and republican government, persuading many fence-sitters.

2. Growth of an American Identity:

- Over 150 years of colonial life, a distinct American culture and identity emerged, separate from that of Great Britain. Geographic distance, unique experiences, and a shared struggle against British policies fostered a "common cause."

3. The Boston Massacre (1770):

- British soldiers fired into a crowd of protestors, killing five colonists. This event was used as powerful propaganda by colonial leaders to portray the British as cruel and tyrannical oppressors.

II. Consequences of the American Revolution (Pariṇām)

The American Revolution had profound and far-reaching consequences, both immediately and in the long term, for the United States and the world.

A. Political and Constitutional Consequences

1. Establishment of the United States of America:

- The most significant outcome was the formal independence of the Thirteen Colonies, recognized by the **Treaty of Paris (1783)**.
- The colonies transitioned into sovereign states, uniting under the **Articles of Confederation (1781)** and later the **Constitution of the United States (1787)**.

2. Creation of a Democratic Republic:

- The new nation was founded on principles of popular sovereignty (rule by the people), republicanism, and a written constitution.
- The Constitution established a system of **Checks and Balances** among the three branches of government (Legislative, Executive, Judicial) to prevent tyranny, embodying Enlightenment ideals.

3. The Bill of Rights (1791):

- The first ten amendments to the Constitution, guaranteeing fundamental individual liberties (freedom of speech, religion, press, right to a fair trial, etc.), protecting citizens against potential government abuse.

4. Shift in Political Power:

- The war led to the decline of the Loyalist (pro-British) faction and a rise in the political power of the Patriot (pro-independence) faction, often resulting in broader democratic participation (though initially limited to white male property owners).

B. Economic Consequences

1. End of Mercantilism:

- The newly independent United States was free from British mercantile policies (such as the Navigation Acts) that had restricted its trade and manufacturing.

- This led to increased economic opportunities and the ability to trade with any nation, fostering rapid commercial growth.

2. **Financial Instability and Debt:**
 - The war was financially crippling for the Continental Congress, leading to massive debt and inflation.
 - Resolving the national debt and establishing a stable national currency were key early challenges for the new government under the Constitution.
3. **Confiscation of Loyalist Land:**
 - Land owned by Loyalists was often confiscated and redistributed, sometimes creating opportunities for new landholders.

C. Social and Ideological Consequences

1. **Influence on Global Revolutions:**
 - The American Revolution served as an inspiring precedent and a model for subsequent revolutions, notably the **French Revolution (1789)** and independence movements in Latin America. It demonstrated that Enlightenment ideals could be put into practice.
2. **Limited Expansion of Rights (Slavery and Women):**
 - The Revolution's rhetoric of "liberty" and "all men are created equal" raised moral questions about the institution of slavery. While Northern states gradually abolished slavery, the Southern states entrenched the institution, creating a fundamental contradiction in the new republic.
 - The concept of "**Republican Motherhood**" emerged, giving women a new, albeit limited, role in educating future republican citizens, leading to slight improvements in female education. However, women did not gain the right to vote.
3. **Impact on Native Americans:**
 - The Revolution resulted in disastrous consequences for Native American tribes. The removal of the British as a check on colonial expansion opened the floodgates for westward settlement, leading to decades of conflict, land seizures, and displacement of indigenous populations.
4. **Separation of Church and State:**
 - The Revolution spurred a move towards greater religious freedom. Many states moved to disestablish (remove state financial support from) official state churches (like the Anglican Church), laying the groundwork for the First Amendment's guarantee of religious liberty.

The Role of Mazzini, Garibaldi, and Cavour in the Unification of Italy (Risorgimento)

The unification of Italy (known as the **Risorgimento**, meaning 'Resurgence') was a complex process from 1815 to 1871. It was achieved through the combination of ideological inspiration, popular revolution, and skillful diplomacy, largely driven by three key figures: **Giuseppe Mazzini (The Soul)**, **Giuseppe Garibaldi (The Sword)**, and **Count Camillo di Cavour (The Brain)**.

I. Giuseppe Mazzini (The Soul and Ideological Founder)

Mazzini (1805–1872) was the intellectual and spiritual force behind the Risorgimento. He provided the fervent ideology of a unified, republican Italy.

A. Key Contributions and Philosophy

1. **Visionary of a United Republic:** Mazzini fiercely advocated for a single, centralized **republican** Italy, free from foreign control (especially Austrian) and the rule of monarchs. He believed that unification was a divine mission and a moral duty for all Italians.
2. **Founding of Young Italy (Giovine Italia):** In 1831, he established this secret society to replace the older, less effective Carbonari movement.
 - o **Motto:** "God and the People" (Dio e Popolo).
 - o **Goal:** To educate and inspire the Italian youth to lead a popular insurrection against the regional monarchies and Austrian domination. He understood that unity required the commitment of the common people.
3. **The "Prophet" of Italian Unity:** Through his writings, pamphlets, and tireless political activism from exile, Mazzini kept the flame of nationalism burning across the peninsula, providing the necessary **emotional and moral justification** for the struggle.
4. **Practical Failure, Ideological Success:** While his numerous attempts at revolts in the 1830s and 1840s (like the one in Savoy and Genoa) were unsuccessful and brutally suppressed, his ideas successfully permeated Italian society, shaping the revolutionary spirit of future leaders like Garibaldi. His vision of a unified nation became the essential blueprint for the political reality achieved later.

II. Count Camillo Benso di Cavour (The Brain and Diplomat)

Cavour (1810–1861) was the Prime Minister of Piedmont-Sardinia (since 1852) and the architect of unification. He was a master pragmatist, diplomat, and statesman who believed unification must be achieved through shrewd politics and military alliances under the leadership of the House of Savoy.

A. Key Contributions and Strategy

1. **Strengthening Piedmont-Sardinia:** Cavour first focused on making Piedmont-Sardinia the undisputed leader of the Italian movement.
 - o **Economic Modernization:** He introduced free trade, built railways and factories, modernized the army, and reformed the tax system, turning Piedmont into a prosperous and stable constitutional monarchy.
 - o **Secular Reforms:** He limited the power of the Catholic Church, further cementing the liberal, modern image of Piedmont compared to the reactionary governments of other Italian states.
2. **Internationalizing the "Italian Question":** Cavour realized that Italian unification could not succeed without foreign help and international recognition.
 - o **Crimean War (1855–1856):** He sent a small Piedmontese contingent to fight alongside Britain and France against Russia. This gave him a seat at the **Congress of Paris** where he could bring the "Italian Question" (i.e., the problem of Austrian rule) to the attention of major European powers.
3. **The Alliance with France (Pact of Plombières, 1858):** Cavour secretly negotiated an alliance with French Emperor Napoleon III. In exchange for French military support against Austria, Piedmont promised to cede Nice and Savoy to France.
4. **War against Austria (1859):** Cavour deliberately provoked Austria into declaring war. The resulting victories at Magenta and Solferino, though costly, forced Austria to cede Lombardy to Piedmont (via France). This marked the first major step toward North Italian unification.
5. **Annexation of Central Italy (1860):** Following the war, Cavour encouraged and facilitated popular revolts in Parma, Modena, Tuscany, and Romagna. He then organized plebiscites (public votes) in these regions, which overwhelmingly voted for annexation by Piedmont, dramatically expanding the kingdom.

III. Giuseppe Garibaldi (The Sword and Popular Hero)

Garibaldi (1807–1882) was the revered military leader and the embodiment of popular revolution. A dedicated Mazzinian republican, he nonetheless worked with the monarchical Cavour for the sake of national unity.

A. Key Contributions and Military Campaigns

1. **The Campaign of the Thousand (I Mille, 1860):** This was Garibaldi's most famous and decisive campaign.
 - **The Expedition:** In May 1860, Garibaldi, with a small force of about 1,000 volunteer "Red Shirts" (I Camicie Rosse), sailed to Sicily to support local uprisings against the Bourbon King of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.
 - **Success in the South:** Despite being heavily outnumbered, Garibaldi's charismatic leadership and the support of the local population led to the rapid conquest of Sicily and then the mainland Kingdom of Naples. He liberated the entire southern half of Italy in a few months.
2. **Loyalty to the Monarchy (The Teano Meeting, 1860):** After conquering the South, Garibaldi faced the choice of marching on Rome (which would have meant war with France) or handing over his conquests to King Victor Emmanuel II of Piedmont.
 - **The Historic Handover:** Garibaldi, prioritizing national unity over his republican ideals, met King Victor Emmanuel II at Teano and voluntarily surrendered control of Southern Italy. This crucial act prevented a civil war between monarchists and republicans and ensured that the newly conquered territories were annexed by Piedmont.
3. **Symbol of Popular Will:** Garibaldi's daring exploits made him an international hero and energized the masses, adding the necessary element of **popular, revolutionary momentum** that Cavour's diplomacy alone could not have generated.

IV. Conclusion and Summary of Roles

The Unification of Italy was a successful collaboration of three distinct approaches:

The Russian Revolution of 1917: Causes and Consequences (Detailed Summary)

The Russian Revolution of 1917 was a watershed event in global history that saw the collapse of the Tsarist autocracy and the rise of the world's first communist state. It was not a single event but a sequence of two major revolutions: the **February Revolution** (March 1917), which overthrew the Tsar, and the **October Revolution** (November 1917), which brought the Bolsheviks to power.

I. Causes of the Russian Revolution (Kāran)

The Revolution was the result of a confluence of long-term socio-economic issues, political repression, and the immediate pressures of World War I.

A. Political Causes: The Autocracy of Tsar Nicholas II

1. **Absolute Monarchy (Autocracy):** Russia was the only major European power still ruled by an absolute monarch, **Tsar Nicholas II**, who believed in his divine right to rule. There was no elected parliament with real power, and political opposition was brutally suppressed.
2. **Lack of Political Reform:** Despite the 1905 Revolution, which resulted in the establishment of the **Duma** (a legislative assembly), the Tsar repeatedly undermined its authority, retaining ultimate political power and ignoring the calls for a constitutional monarchy.
3. **Ineffective Government:** The Tsarina Alexandra's reliance on the mystical healer **Grigori Rasputin** further discredited the royal family and led to unstable and incompetent ministerial appointments, alienating the educated elite.

B. Socio-Economic Causes: Deep Divisions in Russian Society

1. **Agrarian Problem (Peasants):**

- The vast majority of the population were poor **peasants** who lived under grueling conditions. Despite the emancipation of serfs in 1861, they still suffered from land hunger, heavy redemption payments, and primitive farming methods. They craved land ownership and freedom from debt.

2. **The Industrial Working Class (Proletariat):**
 - Rapid industrialization in the late 19th and early 20th centuries created a small but concentrated class of factory workers in cities like St. Petersburg and Moscow.
 - They faced extremely harsh working conditions: low wages, long hours (12–15 hours a day), dangerous environments, and lack of basic rights. They became a fertile ground for revolutionary socialist ideas, particularly Marxism.
3. **Social Inequality:** Russian society was rigidly stratified, with the nobility and the Orthodox Church holding most of the wealth and power, while the vast majority lived in poverty.

C. Immediate Cause: The Impact of World War I

1. **Military Defeats and Casualties:** Russia's participation in **World War I (1914–1918)** was disastrous. Poorly led, ill-equipped, and poorly supplied, the Russian army suffered catastrophic losses (millions killed, wounded, or captured). The Tsar's decision to take personal command of the army in 1915 was a major mistake, as he was blamed directly for the defeats.
2. **Economic Disruption and Famine:**
 - The war effort strained the Russian economy to the breaking point. Inflation soared, food production dropped drastically, and the railway network collapsed under the pressure of moving military supplies.
 - By 1917, severe **food and fuel shortages** in the cities led to widespread starvation and freezing, fueling mass protests.
3. **Demoralization of the Army:** The continuous defeats and lack of supplies led to massive demoralization. Soldiers lost faith in the Tsar and the war effort, leading to mass desertions and a growing willingness to side with the protestors.

D. The Role of Revolutionary Parties

- **Bolsheviks (Lenin):** Led by **Vladimir Lenin**, they advocated for a small, disciplined party to lead the revolution and establish the dictatorship of the proletariat (a communist state). Their simple slogans, "Peace, Land, and Bread," resonated deeply with the masses.
- **Mensheviks:** Believed in a broader, mass-based party and a gradual transition to socialism.
- **Socialist Revolutionaries (SRs):** Primarily focused on peasant issues, advocating for land distribution.

II. Consequences of the Russian Revolution (Parinām)

The Revolution had profound and transformative effects, radically changing Russia's political, economic, and social structure, and influencing global politics for the rest of the 20th century.

A. Political and Structural Consequences

1. **End of Tsarist Autocracy:** The February Revolution (1917) led to the **abdication of Tsar Nicholas II** and the end of the 300-year-old Romanov dynasty.
2. **Establishment of the Bolshevik (Communist) Regime:** The October Revolution (1917) led to the seizure of power by the Bolsheviks.
 - **Dictatorship of the Proletariat:** The Bolsheviks dissolved the Constituent Assembly and established a one-party state, suppressing all political opposition.
 - **Creation of the USSR:** After the devastating **Russian Civil War (1918–1922)**, the Bolsheviks consolidated their power and established the **Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR)** in 1922.
3. **Withdrawal from World War I:** Lenin fulfilled his promise by signing the punitive **Treaty of Brest-Litovsk** with Germany in March 1918, taking Russia out of the war.

B. Economic and Social Consequences

1. **Nationalization of Industry and Banks:** The Bolsheviks implemented their socialist program by seizing private property. All major industries, banks, and means of transport were nationalized and placed under state control.
2. **Land Redistribution:** The Decree on Land (1917) abolished private land ownership and redistributed noble land to the peasants, fulfilling one of the revolution's key demands.
3. **The Rise of Communism as an Alternative Model:** The Russian Revolution established the first communist state, offering a radical alternative to Western capitalism and democracy. This became a powerful ideological force worldwide, inspiring socialist and anti-colonial movements.
4. **Creation of the Comintern (Third International):** Established in 1919, the Comintern was an international organization that sought to promote world revolution and spread communism globally, leading to deep divisions with Western powers.

C. Global and Long-Term Consequences

1. **The Beginning of the Cold War:** The ideological hostility between the communist USSR and the capitalist Western nations (particularly the US and UK) defined the Cold War era (1945–1991).
2. **Influence on Decolonization:** The Soviet Union's anti-imperialist stance and economic model influenced many newly independent nations in Asia and Africa in the mid-20th century.
3. **Mass Repression and Totalitarianism:** While initially promising "Peace, Land, and Bread," the revolution ultimately devolved into a totalitarian system under Lenin and his successor, Joseph Stalin, characterized by mass political purges, forced collectivization, and suppression of fundamental human rights. The system created massive human suffering under the guise of socialist progress.

Circumstances Leading to the Birth of the United Nations (UN)

The establishment of the United Nations (UN) in 1945 was a direct response to the catastrophic failures of the international system and the devastating consequences of two World Wars. It was born out of a profound global desire for permanent peace, security, and a structured mechanism for international cooperation.

I. The Failure of the League of Nations

The UN was created to correct the structural and political flaws of its predecessor, the **League of Nations**, established after World War I.

1. **Lack of Universal Membership:**
 - The League was fundamentally crippled from the start by the **non-participation of major powers**, most notably the **United States**, whose Senate refused to ratify the Treaty of Versailles.
 - Key aggressive powers like Germany and Japan withdrew from the League in the 1930s, further weakening its authority.
2. **Structural Weakness:**
 - The League lacked its own armed forces and relied on the collective security principle, which failed to materialize when major powers ignored its rulings.
 - Its decisions required **unanimity**, making it extremely difficult to take decisive action against aggressive states.
3. **Failure to Stop Aggression:**
 - The League proved utterly ineffective in the face of major international crises in the 1930s, such as **Japan's invasion of Manchuria (1931)**, **Italy's invasion of Abyssinia (Ethiopia) (1935)**, and **German rearmament and territorial expansion**. These failures demonstrated that the League was incapable of preventing a major war.

II. The Cataclysm of World War II (1939–1945)

The scale of destruction and human suffering caused by World War II created an undeniable imperative for a new, stronger international body.

1. Unprecedented Global Devastation:

- The war resulted in an estimated **70-85 million deaths**, the first use of **nuclear weapons** (Hiroshima and Nagasaki), and the systematic extermination of millions in the Holocaust.
- The sheer horror and scale of the conflict convinced global leaders that the next world war, fought with atomic weapons, could mean the end of human civilization.

2. The Need for Collective Security:

- The concept of **collective security**—that an attack on one nation is an attack on all, requiring a united response—needed to be institutionalized with greater teeth and commitment from the major world powers.

3. The Rise of Allied Cooperation:

- The collaboration among the **Allied Powers** (US, UK, USSR, China, and France) during the war, particularly after the bombing of Pearl Harbor and the entry of the US, demonstrated that a coalition of nations could work together toward a common goal. This cooperation became the political foundation for the future UN Security Council.

III. Ideological and Diplomatic Foundation

The groundwork for the UN was laid through a series of wartime conferences and declarations by Allied leaders.

1. The Atlantic Charter (August 1941):

- Signed by US President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill, this document laid out the **vision for the post-war world**.
- It affirmed principles such as the right to **self-determination**, freedom of the seas, economic cooperation, and, most importantly, the goal of creating a "wider and permanent system of general security." This was the conceptual birth of the UN.

2. The Declaration by United Nations (January 1942):

- Representatives of 26 Allied nations met in Washington, D.C., and pledged to continue fighting the Axis Powers and uphold the principles of the Atlantic Charter.
- This was the **first official use of the term "United Nations,"** coined by President Roosevelt.

3. Moscow, Tehran, and Yalta Conferences (1943–1945):

- At these key meetings, the **"Big Four"** (US, UK, USSR, and China) made concrete decisions regarding the structure of the new organization, including the crucial agreement on the establishment of a **Security Council** with permanent members holding **veto power**. This pragmatic concession was necessary to ensure the participation of the Soviet Union.

4. The Dumbarton Oaks Conference (August–October 1944):

- The US, UK, USSR, and China met here and drafted the **first concrete proposal for the UN charter**, outlining the purpose, structure (General Assembly, Security Council, International Court of Justice), and functions of the organization.

IV. The Final Step: The San Francisco Conference (1945)

1. Drafting the Charter:

- The conference, officially the **United Nations Conference on International Organization (UNCIO)**, brought together 50 nations in San Francisco in April 1945.
- Delegates debated and finalized the **UN Charter**, which was formally adopted on **June 26, 1945**.

2. Inauguration:

- The UN officially came into existence on **October 24, 1945**, when the Charter was ratified by China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, the United States, and a majority of the other signatories.

Conclusion: A Response to Global Need

The birth of the United Nations was not merely an administrative exercise; it was an urgent, practical necessity driven by the unprecedented failure of 20th-century diplomacy. The organization was deliberately designed to overcome the weaknesses of the League of Nations by:

- **Securing the mandatory participation of the world's major powers** (the permanent members of the Security Council).
- **Establishing a robust framework** for addressing global issues beyond security, including economic development, human rights, and social progress.

The UN represented the global community's collective realization that **peace is indivisible** and requires continuous, institutionalized international cooperation.

