



MARKSCHEME

May 2012

HISTORY

Route 2

Higher Level

**Paper 3 – Aspects of the history
of Asia and Oceania**

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*Paper 3 markbands: The following bands provide a précis of the full markbands for paper 3 published in the History guide (2008) on pages 77–81. They are intended to assist marking but must be used in conjunction with the full markbands found in the guide. **For the attention of all examiners: if you are uncertain about the content/accuracy of a candidate’s work please contact your team leader.***

0:	Answers not meeting the requirements of descriptors should be awarded no marks.
1–2:	Answers do not meet the demands of the question and show little or no evidence of appropriate structure. There is little more than unsupported generalization.
3–4:	There is little understanding of the question. Historical knowledge is present but the detail is insufficient. Historical context or processes are barely understood and there are little more than poorly substantiated assertions.
5–6:	Answers indicate some understanding of the question but historical knowledge is limited in quality and quantity. Understanding of historical processes may be present but underdeveloped. The question is only partially addressed.
7–8:	The demands of the question are generally understood. Relevant, historical knowledge is present but is unevenly applied. Knowledge is narrative or descriptive in nature. There may be limited argument that requires further substantiation. Critical commentary may be present. An attempt to place events in historical context and show an understanding of historical processes. An attempt at a structured approach, either chronological or thematic has been made.
9–11:	Answers indicate that the question is understood but not all implications considered. Knowledge is largely accurate. Critical commentary may be present. Events are generally placed in context, and historical processes, such as comparison and contrast, are understood. There is a clear attempt at a structured approach. Focus on AO1, AO2 and AO4. Responses that simply summarize the views of historians cannot reach the top of this markband.
12–14:	Answers are clearly focused on the demands of the question. Relevant in-depth knowledge is applied as evidence, and analysis or critical commentary are used to indicate some in-depth understanding but is not consistent throughout. Events are placed in context and there is sound understanding of historical processes and comparison and contrast. Evaluation of different approaches may be used to substantiate arguments presented. Synthesis is present but not always consistently integrated. Focus on AO3 and AO4.
15–17:	Answers are clearly structured and focused, have full awareness of the demands of the question, and if appropriate may challenge it. Accurate and detailed historical knowledge is used convincingly to support critical commentary. Historical processes such as comparison and contrast, placing events in context and evaluating different interpretations are used appropriately and effectively. Answers are well structured and balanced and synthesis is well developed and supported with knowledge and critical commentary.
18–20:	Answers are clearly focused with a high degree of the awareness of the question and may challenge it successfully. Knowledge is extensive, accurately applied and there may be a high level of conceptual ability. Evaluation of different approaches may be present as may be understanding of historical processes as well as comparison and contrast where relevant. Evaluation is integrated into the answer. The answer is well structured and well-focused. Synthesis is highly developed.

Colonialism in South and Southeast Asia and Oceania — late eighteenth to the mid nineteenth century

- 1. Compare and contrast the reasons for, and the effects of, colonial rule from the late eighteenth century until the mid nineteenth century in *two* of the following: Indo-China; the Philippines; Indonesia; Australia; New Zealand.**

Candidates may first identify and discuss what they consider to be the main reasons why imperial powers established their rule in two countries. These may include: strategic reasons; trade and commerce; increasing industrialisation in Europe and the desire for new markets as well as the search for raw materials; and emigration and settlement schemes. Candidates will also need to examine the effects of colonial rule in these two countries. This may include an examination of the impact of the imperial powers' presence: the political structure; the type of rule, direct or indirect; the structure of the bureaucracy; the economy, including land distribution and the effect on local agriculture; trade and commerce; the lifestyles of the colonial masters; the presence and activities of missionaries; further immigration, particularly in the mid nineteenth century; and the attempt to replicate the society and institutions of the mother country. The official policies towards the indigenous/colonial people may be compared and contrasted, but also how these were implemented: the way the imperial powers may have handled rebellions and resistance; and the level of violence used to control the colonized people. Answers may focus on the military strengths and the technological advancement of the colonizers. Candidates may identify the relative popularity of the rule of the imperialist powers in some sectors of the indigenous/colonial population. The colonial powers' policies of divide and rule and the diversity of some societies such as religious and ethnic differences made unified resistance more difficult. There are a few examples where revolts and resistance occurred. There was resistance to the Dutch in Java in 1825. In the Philippines there was a steady resistance on a small scale ever since the arrival of the Spanish: the Palaris Revolt of 1762–1765 was the largest revolt and then the Ambaristo Revolt in 1807. The Spanish policies of repression both helped cause as well as curb resistance in the Philippines.

For Australia: there were six colonies established, each for different reasons; South Australia was the only one free of convict transportation; there were no formal treaties with the indigenous people. For New Zealand: it was initially considered part of New South Wales until 1841; the 1840 Treaty of Waitangi was a formal treaty with Maoris, but there was the First Maori War (1843–1848). Essentially, these two became European settler societies.

Answers may focus on comparisons, but some contrasts should also be identified.

If only reasons or effects is addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

If only one colony is addressed, mark out of a maximum of [7 marks].

2. **“The Great Revolt (Indian Mutiny) of 1857 was a turning point in the British administration of India.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?**

Candidates may initially establish how India was governed before the Great Revolt (Indian Mutiny) of 1857, but the main focus of the response should be on whether there was significant change in the way the British governed India afterwards. Prior to the Great Revolt the British administration was essentially the operations of the British East India Company under the auspices of the Crown rather than a colonial settlement. Candidates may refer to differing policies of various Governor-Generals: Wellesley created subsidiary alliances with the princes; Bentinck’s “reforms” included the abolition of *sati* and *thuggee*, marriage reform and the extension of education; Dalhousie introduced the Doctrine of Lapse which annexed the princely states without heirs. The economic changes such as the opening of India to free trade had a negative impact on native industry and production; land reform and land taxation also caused difficulties for Indian peasants. The nature of the administration was paternalistic. British policies could all be considered as being aimed at extending and consolidating British trade. After the Great Revolt, the British East India Company was abolished and the British government took direct control of areas previously administered by it and established indirect control over the princely states. The Government of India Act 1858 created a new British government office and the Governor-General became the Viceroy and was answerable to the Secretary of State for India. The nature of the relationship between the British and Indians changed and, although the British became increasingly more socially elitist, the government policy aimed to involve Indians in administration and this led to the opening of entry into the Indian Civil Service. There was a growth in secular education, including universities, for Indians and the rise of a new Indian middle class and intelligentsia. Religious tolerance was decreed. The changes in infrastructure and communications contributed to the increase in prosperity for some and to a growing sense of Indian national identity. Candidates should make some assessment of the extent to which the Great Revolt was a turning point.

Traditional East Asian societies — late eighteenth to the mid nineteenth century

3. To what extent did the outcome of the First Opium War contribute to the causes of the Second Opium War?

Candidates may start by discussing the Treaty of Nanjing (Nanking) in 1842 and list the conditions: indemnity payments; abolition of the Canton system of trade; five treaty ports opened to the trade and residence of British officials and traders; Hong Kong was ceded to Britain; equality in status between British and Chinese officials recognized; a fixed tariff was established. This was followed by the supplementary Treaty of the Bogue in 1843 which also included most favoured nation status for Britain; extra-territoriality; allowed the presence of British warships in the treaty ports. In 1844, the Treaty of Wangxia (Wanghsia) with the United States was signed: banned the US opium trade; granted extra-territoriality; the right to maintain churches and hospitals in the treaty ports; a most favoured nation clause; and treaty revision in twelve years. The Treaty of Huangpu (Whampoa) with France was also in 1844 and this added the right to freely spread Catholicism. Candidates will need to examine whether the grievances of the Western powers that led to the First Opium War were satisfied by these treaties. The impact on China will also need to be assessed: humiliation; decay of the Qing dynasty; effects of the continuation of the opium trade; refusal to appreciate the cultural differences between China and the West; different commercial needs. Sino–Western relations deteriorated further between 1849 and 1856 due to a number of issues: the entry of the British into Guangzhou (Canton) city; foreign desire to extend trade beyond the five treaty ports; foreign demands for tariff revision; the request to establish foreign legations in Beijing (Peking); the Western desire for treaty revision; the coolie trade. The Arrow incident in 1856 was the catalyst that led to the Second Opium War. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion about the extent to which the Second Opium War was caused by the outcome of the First Opium War.

4. In what ways, and to what extent, was the Tokugawa Shogunate’s authority undermined by forces from within Japan before the arrival of Commodore Perry in 1853?

Candidates may discuss the nature of the isolation policy (*shakoku*) of the Tokugawa Shogunate and should show knowledge and understanding of how, by the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries after a long period of peace, internal changes in Japanese society challenged the Shogunate’s authority. Expect reference to the powerful Western *tozama* clans (Satsuma, Choshu, Hizen and Tosa) originally defeated at the beginning of the Tokugawa period; the rising cost of the alternative attendance of the *daimyo*; the changing social and economic status of the merchants and the samurai; the internal expansion of trade and commerce; currency changes; famine; debt; increased taxation; the increase in peasant rebellions; the floating world (*ukiyo*) and the counter culture. The Japanese had contact with Europe only through the Dutch trading factory at Deshima in Nagasaki harbour. By the nineteenth century this contact had prompted the rise of Dutch Learning (*rangaku*) amongst the samurai and this created an awareness that scientific and technological developments in the West posed a challenge to Japan. The social and economic changes had weakened the traditional feudal structures which supported the Tokugawa Shogunate and the National Learning (*kokgaku*) school of thought called for a restoration of the Emperor. Increasing pressure came from the Western powers, particularly Britain, Russia and the United States, for trade and some of the *tozama* clans already had some limited trade with them. Some assessment of the extent to which the Shogunate’s authority had been undermined is needed. Mention of the arrival of Commodore Perry and the opening of Japan to the West are relevant only in the context of an analysis of the weakness of the Shogunate’s rule.

If only “ways” or “to what extent” is addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

Developing identities — mid nineteenth to early twentieth century

5. Analyse the factors that contributed to the growth of national identity between the late nineteenth century and early twentieth century in *one* of the following: the Philippines; Australia; New Zealand.

For the Philippines candidates may choose initially to discuss some factors that contributed to the growth of national identity during nineteenth century. Throughout the century there was increasing tension between the native born Filipinos of Spanish descent and the Spanish administrators of the colony. This led to many disputes: in the Church over the appointment of clergy; in the military there was the Cavite Mutiny in 1872 when the native born soldiers protested about a new tax. The Cavite Mutiny was put down brutally and the leaders were executed. The Spanish Governor-General's intent was to crush the growth of Filipino nationalism. Some intellectuals of mixed descent were also drawn to the Filipino nationalist movement. Candidates may then identify the roles of various nationalist leaders who contributed to the growth of national identity at the end of the nineteenth century. Candidates may look at their beliefs about how independence should be achieved; their actions; and their deaths. Jose Rizal gained a reputation as a writer and poet. His 1887 novel, *Noli Me Tangere*, described Filipino suffering under Spanish rule. He became a dedicated reformer, writing articles for *La Solidaridad*, the journal published by the Propaganda Movement, organized by Filipinos in Spain who wanted greater liberty for the Philippines. His second novel, *El Filibusterismo*, raised the question of revolution without advocating it. He returned from Spain in 1892, founded the Filipino League, an organization advocating peaceful reform, was arrested by the Spanish authorities and sent to Mindanao. In 1896, the Spanish authorities ordered the arrest of revolutionary leaders, sparking revolt. Although not involved in the revolt, Rizal was arrested, tried for treason and executed, making him a nationalist martyr. Andres Bonifacio was another leader, who initially joined Rizal's Filipino League, but he became disillusioned and abandoned the idea of a peaceful struggle and founded the Katipunan in 1892, a secret society dedicated to rebellion. He also published his ideas and supported the Revolution which began in 1896. The Katipunan split into two groups and leadership conflicts between Emilio Aguinaldo and Bonifacio culminated in the execution of Bonifacio in 1897. Aguinaldo and his followers surrendered to the authorities and went into exile in Hong Kong. In the meantime the Spanish-American War broke out. Aguinaldo became the President of the First Philippine Republic returned to the Philippines and led resistance to the Americans in the Philippine-American War, 1899–1902. The United States took control of the Philippines until 1935, but in this time introduced the Philippine Assembly in 1907 and promised independence.

For Australia or New Zealand candidates may choose initially to analyse the factors that contributed to the growth of national identity before the First World War. In Australia: the movement towards and the achievement of Federation in 1901; the celebration of Australia's uniqueness with reference to the flora and fauna; the adoption of the bushman image despite the fact that most people lived in towns and cities; the art and writing of this period; the different strands of nationalism, radical republicanism and dual loyalty to both Australia and the British Empire. In New Zealand a similar set of factors and sentiments prevailed: involvement in the Boer War; granting of Dominion status in 1907; the rugged and enterprising man alone versus nature; egalitarianism; double patriotism; cultural nationalism. The impact of Australia's or New Zealand's involvement in the First World War on the growth of national identity may then be discussed. For both: the initial enthusiasm for the war; the idea that Gallipoli was a defining moment in nationhood, for Australia "Baptism by fire" and for New Zealand "Baptism of blood"; the soldiers come to represent the typical Australian or New Zealander in uniform with his values of resourcefulness and mateship; war correspondents and cartoonists popularized this image. Despite the fact that the Gallipoli campaign ended in withdrawal, the Anzac legend came to symbolize Australia's or New Zealand's involvement in the First World War and subsequent wars and Anzac Day became a public holiday and de facto national day. After the war, in both countries, the sense of national identity was now linked with commemoration and remembrance and it became part of a conservative imperialist nationalism in the 1920s; an example of this was the establishment of returned servicemen's associations which became the keepers of the legend.

6. Explain why the Siamese monarchy was able to maintain its independence from full European control up to the end of the First World War.

Candidates should be aware of the role and importance of the characters and policies of King Mongkut (1851–1868), King Chulalongkorn (1868–1910) and King Vajiravudh (1910–1925) in respect to Thailand retaining its independence from European rule. The Thai government was able to survive through a combination of good government and diplomacy until the height of European imperialism had passed. The reasons may include the policies of these monarchs to modernize the state; introduce reform measures; and make concessions of the less important areas of Siam to French and British interests. They realised that to ensure the survival of Thai independence modernisation was crucial and they were strategic enough to use Western advisers to help in this process. These reforms targeted the structure of government administration; promoted commerce; expanded transport and communications infrastructure; and developed education. The diplomatic agreements established Siam as a neutral area between the British territories of Burma and Malaya and French Indochina. Details about this diplomacy may include the treaty between Siam and Great Britain in 1855, which established terms favouring British trade and representation. In 1893, Siam signed a similar treaty with France and, in 1907, ceded the provinces of Battambang and Siem Reap to France. In 1909, Siam ceded the provinces of Perlis, Kedah, Kelantan and Trengganu to Britain (today these are part of Malaysia). In 1917, the Siamese willingness to participate in the First World War strengthened the bonds of friendship between Siam, France and Great Britain. These territorial concessions were made by Siam in order to maintain its independence.

Early modernization and imperial decline in East Asia — mid nineteenth to early twentieth century**7. Analyse the reasons for, and the consequences of, the Boxer Rebellion (1900–1901) in China.**

Many candidates may use Immanuel Hsu's overall analysis of why the Boxer Rebellion occurred: strong anti-foreign sentiment; national humiliation; antipathy towards Christianity and its spread; public anger about Western imperialism, particularly after the scramble for concessions of the late 1890s; economic hardship caused by foreign domination of trade, domestic markets and industrial expansion; and natural disasters. The Boxers or the "Society of Harmonious Fists" originally emerged in Shandong (Shantung) province. They had links with earlier anti-Qing (anti-Ch'ing) secret societies, but by the late 1890s they had become pro-Qing (pro-Ch'ing) and anti-foreign militias, with the encouragement of the conservative Manchu Governors of the province. These governors were replaced due to foreign pressure and Yuan Shikai (Yuan Shih-K'ai) suppressed the Boxers in December 1899, but by 1900 the Empress Dowager, Cixi (Tz'u-hsu), and reactionary Manchu officials endorsed them. The Boxers advanced towards Beijing and demonstrated their hatred of foreign intervention by killing Christian missionaries and their converts and destroying railways and telegraph lines. They received considerable support along the way and in Beijing they besieged the foreign embassies. Amidst the chaos Cixi (Tz'u-hsu) and the Qing (Ch'ing) court fled to Xian (Sian). Foreign governments, including Japan, sent troops, lifted the siege and forced on the Chinese the humiliating Boxer Protocol. China had to pay huge indemnities; lost territory; a two year ban on the importation and manufacture of armaments was imposed; and its sovereignty was violated in that the forts could not be rebuilt, officials were to be punished, memorials had to be erected, the examination system was abolished, foreign troops were stationed indefinitely in Beijing (Peking) and other places to protect Western interests. Wider consequences include: the Late Qing Reform Movement that attempted to implement administrative, educational, military and constitutional changes; the railway recovery movement; the re-emergence of anti-Qing sentiment; and the growth of revolutionary attitudes, including Sun Yixian's (Sun Yat-sen's) Alliance League or Tongmenghui (T'ung-meng hui). Some candidates may argue that the 1911 Double Tenth Nationalist Revolution was a long-term consequence of the Boxer Rebellion. Others may mention that it contributed to the later warlordism because of the division amongst provincial leaders about how to handle the Boxers. Award discussion based upon historical evidence.

If only reasons or consequences are addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

8. Examine the causes, and the consequences for Korea and the region, of the Sino–Japanese War (1894–1895).

Candidates may initially discuss the causes of the Sino–Japanese War. The rapidly industrializing and modernizing Meiji Japan was interested in Korea as a possible future possession: in order to emulate the imperialist nature of the Western powers; as a source of raw materials; as a steady market for Japanese exports; as a “granary” to feed the rising Japanese population; for protection from an expanding Russia; for strategic advantages in dealing with both Russia and China. Japan forced Korea to open its ports in 1876 with the Treaty of Kanghwa. Japan recognized Korea as an independent state, but Korea still considered itself to be under Chinese control. Within the Korean government different factions favoured either China or Japan. On several occasions prior to 1894 Japan had sent troops to Korea to protect their interests. The presence of troops from both countries to help suppress the Tonghak Rebellion was the catalyst for the outbreak of war. Initially, China was expected to win the war, but Japanese modernisation in the decades prior to the war had been more thorough than China’s and its armed forces and their command were more efficient. Even so, Japan was ready to make peace in 1895 because of the economic effects of the war. China’s traditional claim to superiority had been decisively discredited. The Treaty of Shimonoseki was unequal in Japan’s favour with China being forced to concede territory, pay an indemnity, open new ports to Japanese trade and recognize the independence of Korea. The Treaty also gave Japan more trading ports in Korea. Japan began to dominate the internal politics of Korea. The Japanese murdered Empress Min who had sought Russian help. The Treaty of Portsmouth following the Russo–Japanese War (1904–1905) recognized Japan’s political, economic and military interests in Korea. Finally, Japan formally annexed Korea in 1910. Candidates need also to discuss the consequences for the region. In 1894 the major powers in the region were Britain, France, the United States and Russia. The Triple Intervention in 1895 of Russia, France and Germany forced Japan to return the Liaodong (Liaotung) Peninsula to China. This indicated that Russia, in particular, was feeling threatened by Japan. After the Sino–Japanese War the balance of power had shifted towards Japan, to the extent that Britain saw it as a useful potential ally against her traditional rival, Russia. The Anglo–Japanese alliance of 1902 suited both Japan and Britain, but Japan was not regarded as an equal. The war with Russia in 1904–1905 further upset Western interests, because the defeat of Russia left Japan dominant in Northeast Asia.

Weaker candidates may be fairly general about the consequences but better candidates should be specific about the consequences for both Korea and the region.

If only causes or consequences are addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

Impact of the World Wars on South and Southeast Asia to the mid twentieth century

9. Evaluate the contribution of *one* leader to the achievement of independence for *one* country in South Asia between the end of the First World War and the mid twentieth century.

Popular choices will probably be Mahatma Gandhi or Jawaharlal Nehru for India or Jinnah for Pakistan.

Gandhi

Candidates may start by discussing his involvement in the Indian nationalist movement. This may include: Gandhi's ideas and philosophy; first satyagraha campaign 1917; second and third satyagraha campaigns; Gandhi's support for the Khilafat issue; his continuation of non-cooperation; boycott of foreign goods; khadi movement; impact of jailing Gandhi; causes and consequences of the Salt March 1930 and the Civil Disobedience campaign; the development of a mass support for independence; Gandhi-Irwin Pact March 1931; Round Table Conferences and Gandhi's popularity in Britain; Second Civil Disobedience campaign; Gandhi jailed 1932–1933; Gandhi's use of fasting; deterioration of relationships between Hindus and Muslims and Gandhi's attempts at unity; Quit India Campaign 1942. The importance of his contribution needs to be evaluated in the light of other factors which may have also contributed to the achievement of Indian independence in 1947. These may include: Gandhi's relationship with Congress; the roles of Motilal Nehru and Jawaharlal Nehru; the Government of India Acts 1919 and 1935 and those for and against; the impact of the Second World War; the role of Jinnah and the revival of the All India Muslim League; Gandhi's relationship with Jinnah; the demands for the creation of a separate Muslim state; the change of government in Britain; Wavell and Mountbatten. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion as to how effective or otherwise Gandhi's contribution was to the achievement of Indian independence in 1947. Better candidates may make distinction between Gandhi's popular and symbolic appeal and the actual political process.

Nehru

Candidates may start by discussing his involvement in the Indian nationalist movement. This may include: his interest in Gandhi's ideas and philosophy; his involvement in non-cooperation campaigns; his arrest and imprisonment by the British nine times; his role as Secretary of the United Provinces Congress Committee 1926–1928; his demand for full independence rather than Dominion status; his presidency of the Congress Party in 1929, 1936, 1937 and 1946; his involvement in the 1942 Quit India Campaign; the part he played in the final negotiations with Wavell and Mountbatten. The importance of his contribution needs to be evaluated in the light of other factors which may have also contributed to the achievement of Indian independence in 1947. These may include: Nehru's relationship with Gandhi; actions of other members of Congress; the role of his father, Motilal Nehru; the Government of India Acts 1919 and 1935 and those for and against; the impact of the Second World War; the role of Jinnah and the revival of the All India Muslim League; the demands for the creation of a separate Muslim state; Nehru's relationship with Jinnah; the change of government in Britain after the Second World War. Nehru became India's first Prime Minister on 15 August 1947. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion as to how significant Nehru's contribution was in the achievement of Indian independence.

Jinnah

The role of Jinnah is of great importance in the creation of the independent state of Pakistan. Candidates may start by discussing his life and political career and they should put it into the context of the events in India at the time. Jinnah was initially an active member of the Indian National Congress as well as joining the All India Muslim League in 1913. He was a supporter of inclusive Indian nationalism, but in the 1920s he moved away from that position. The 1928 Nehru Report did not endorse the continuation of separate Muslim electorates and it fuelled Muslim fears about Hindu domination. During the late 1920s and early 1930s the relationship between Hindus and Muslims deteriorated. In 1930 the President of the League, Iqbal, proposed the idea of a separate Muslim state and his Two Nation Theory gained support. Jinnah became disillusioned with politics and left India to practice law in Britain. He returned in 1935 to lead the League. The importance of his contribution needs to be evaluated in the light of other factors which may have also contributed to partition and the achievement of Pakistan's independence in 1947. These may include: the Government of India Act 1935 and those for and against; the role of Congress and Nehru; the impact of the Second World War; the post-war change of government in Britain. The League's Lahore Resolution was adopted in 1940, and its principles formed the foundation for Pakistan's first constitution. During the Cripps mission in 1942, Jinnah demanded parity between the number of Congress and League ministers, the League's exclusive right to appoint Muslims and a right for Muslim-majority provinces to secede, leading to the breakdown of talks. Jinnah supported the British effort in the Second World War, and opposed the Indian National Congress' Quit India Movement. Gandhi's vision of an inclusive and united India may be mentioned. Talks between Jinnah and Gandhi in 1944 failed to achieve agreement and this was the last attempt to reach a single-state solution. Jinnah became Pakistan's first Governor-General on 15 August 1947. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion as to how significant Jinnah's contribution was in the achievement of Pakistan's independence.

10. Compare and contrast the impact of *both* the First World War *and* the Second World War on Indonesia *and* Vietnam.

Candidates may initially discuss the way in which the First World War was a catalyst for the fledgling nationalist movements in both Indonesia and Vietnam. A distinction may be made between the earlier resistance movements aimed at the foreign colonizers and the twentieth century goals to forge new nations. There are comparisons between Indonesia and Vietnam, which include repression and economic exploitation by the European colonial power, but also contrasts because in Indonesia religion played a significant role in the development of the nationalist movement and the Dutch tolerated more dissent than the French. In Indonesia the vast majority of the population was Muslim and in 1911 Sarekat Islam was founded. Dutch creation of the Volksraad did not satisfy Indonesian nationalism, fanned by the effects of the First World War and the Russian Revolution of 1917. In 1918 Sarekat Islam adopted a socialist programme. In 1920 Semaun and Darsono formed the PKI or Communist Party of the Indies. PKI members were expelled from Sarekat Islam. The latter campaigned against the suppression of Indonesians, and Islamic ideology became the foundation of its political struggle. A PKI revolt in 1926 was crushed. Nationalist support turned to the Indonesian National Party (PNI) founded by Sukarno in 1927. Sukarno and other leaders were arrested in 1929 and the party banned in 1931. On his release in 1931 Sukarno formed the Indonesia Party (Partindo) but was exiled to New Guinea in 1933. In 1934 Sarekat Islam split between Muslim conservatives and socialists. Moderate nationalists attempted to work through the Volksraad but their calls for a transition to independence were rejected. In 1939 they formed the Gobongan Politek Indonesia (GAPI).

Vietnam was the most important colony in Indo-China and French policies concentrated on the consolidation of political authority, assimilation and economic exploitation. Prior to the First World War there were numerous resistance groups and uprisings. Ho Chi Minh was influenced by the First World War and the Russian Revolution and in 1925 he created the Vietnamese Revolutionary Youth League in China. This put him into conflict with an early leader, Phan Boi Chau, who was influenced by Sun Yatsen's ideas, and whom he betrayed to the French authorities. In 1927 another group, the Viet Nam Quoc Dan Dang (VNQDD), modelled on the Guomindang, was formed and it led violent protests, but was crushed by the French in 1930. Ho Ch Minh founded the Indochinese Communist Party and they developed peasant support throughout the 1930s. A communist led coalition of Vietnamese nationalists, the Viet Nam Doc Lap Dong Minh (Vietnamese Independence League), known as the Viet Minh, was formed by Ho Chi Minh in 1941 with the aim of fighting both the French and the Japanese.

The Second World War and Japanese occupation may be seen as a watershed with the pre-war period of colonial rule where the nationalist movements initially developed. Although the nationalist movements in Indonesia and Vietnam did not follow exactly the same path there are some common themes. The Japanese expansion into both countries and the nature of the occupation will need to be examined. This may include: Japanese atrocities; resistance to Japanese rule; the way the Japanese used the colonial administration of both countries which were occupied by the Nazis; the opportunities for nationalists to acquire experience in administration and in the military; the impact of Japanese ideas such as "Asia for the Asians"; Japanese support for independence from Western colonial rule; the immediate declaration of independence after the defeat of the Japanese in an attempt to pre-empt the return of the colonial power; the subsequent struggle with the colonial power until the final achievement of independence. Candidates may also compare and contrast the roles of the charismatic nationalist leaders: Sukarno (Indonesia) and Ho Chi Minh (Vietnam).

Many answers will focus on comparisons, but some contrasts should also be identified.

If only Indonesia or Vietnam is discussed, mark out of a maximum of [7 marks].

There does not need to be an equal amount of material on both wars, but if only one war is discussed mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

The Republic of China 1912–1949 and the rise of Communism

11. Why did the First United Front (1924–1927) between the Chinese Communist Party and the Guomindang (Kuomintang) fail?

Candidates may initially identify the reasons for First United Front. The Chinese Communist Party (CCP) was formed in 1921 and this fledgling party was supported by the Comintern. Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) started to reorganize the Guomindang (Kuomintang) in 1923 and entered into negotiations with the Soviet Union for aid. The 1923 Sun-Joffe Declaration agreed that whilst Communism would not be substituted for Sun's Three Principles, there were certain shared aims for the GMD and the CCP. These included nationalism, ridding China of foreign domination, socialism, defeat of the warlords and the establishment of a unified government for China. Despite some objections the CCP members were ordered by Comintern to join with the GMD. Both parties differed about the ultimate form of government for China and they used the First United Front to further their own goals. The CCP members had to join the GMD as individuals and they could see the value of being part of a stronger party. The CCP and Comintern believed that the GMD could be subverted from within. Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) was fairly idealistic and he wanted to utilize the CCP's support among the peasantry and workers to gain popular support. The GMD felt that this would give impetus to the military advance against the warlords in the North. The CCP saw the opportunities created by the Northern advance to spread their ideology among the people. Support for the GMD came largely from the urban areas and the commercial classes. After Sun's death in 1925, tensions between the left and right factions within the GMD developed and Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek) became leader and military commander. Tensions were developing between the CCP members and the GMD over the issue of dual membership and the Communists' influence within the organisation. Resolutions were passed to limit the number of official positions they could hold. Stalin ordered the CCP members to accept this and remain in the GMD. The Northern Expedition 1926–1927 was successful and with the capture of Shanghai, Jiang gained access to the wealth and influence of the powerful business interests who were opposed to the trade union movements. With their support he turned on the Communists in the 1927 White Terror and the surviving CCP members fled to the countryside. Candidates may note that the purge of the Communists signified the failure of the First United Front despite Stalin continuing to support it. Candidates may conclude the failure was due to each party having its own agenda and that failure was the most likely outcome even if Jiang had not struck first. Some candidates may also examine the role of the leaders of each party and of the Comintern in the eventual failure.

Award credit for reasoned discussion based upon historical evidence. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion about why the First United front failed.

12. **“The main reason why the Guomintang (Kuomintang) lost the Chinese Civil War (1946–1949) to the Communists was that they were exhausted after fighting the Japanese in the Sino–Japanese War (1937–1945).” To what extent do you agree with this statement?**

Candidates may initially discuss the situation at the end of the Sino–Japanese War. The Second United Front collapsed during the Sino–Japanese War (1937–1945) and the Guomintang (Kuomintang) and the Chinese Communist Party forces each had control of different areas of China. The United States supported Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek) to accept the Japanese surrender. Marshall, on behalf of the US government, attempted to reconcile the two parties, but the talks broke down and the Civil War began in 1946. Despite their military superiority, US aid and their early victories the GMD (KMT) soon lost ground. Candidates may identify a variety of reasons: the narrow urban GMD (KMT) support base; the authoritarian nature of Jiang’s government; the corruption; the harsh treatment of the people; demoralized troops and mass defections; the failure to achieve Sun Yixian’s (Sun Yat-sen’s) Three Principles; the lack of political, economic and social reforms; and the withdrawal of effective US aid. On the other hand, the Sino–Japanese War had enabled the CCP to spread their influence and it had improved their military position, though initially the Red Army was smaller and less well-equipped. Other factors that may be considered are: the CCP’s ideological appeal based on their pro-peasant policies in the areas they controlled; their promises of land reform; their high morale; strong leadership; their freedom from corruption; their effective propaganda; Nationalist troop defections to the Red Army and the capture of much GMD (KMT) military equipment during the latter stages of the Civil War; and the favourable impression they had made upon Western journalists and observers. Mid 1947 was a turning point in the progress of the Civil War with the Red Army going on the offensive and winning several significant victories by January 1949 when Mao entered Beijing (Peking). Many candidates may use Immanuel Hsu’s overall analysis to structure their response: the deceptive impression of Nationalist military strength, war weariness and failures in Nationalist strategy; inflation and economic collapse; loss of public confidence and respect; the failure of American mediation and aid; and the retardation of social and economic reforms.

Candidates will need to address the question and discussion that is solely based on events in the 1930s should not score highly.

Imperial Japan: empire and aftermath 1912–1952**13. Evaluate the influence of the army on Japanese politics in the period 1927–1937.**

Candidates may initially mention that during the 1920s Japan appeared to be developing as a liberal democracy. Universal male suffrage in 1925 introduced into political life a mass electorate which could assert influence at elections and was open to manipulation by nationalistic and militaristic politicians and spokesmen for expansionist policies. Various army reforms also made access to officer ranks easier for young men of the urban and rural lower middle classes. Tanaka Giichi became Prime Minister in 1927 and he was pressured by the army to adopt more aggressive policies to protect Japanese interests in Manchuria in the face of the advance of Jiang Jieshi's (Chiang Kai-shek's) Northern Expedition. This led to the assassination of Zhang Zoulin (Chang Tso-lin) in Manchuria in 1928. Tanaka was forced to resign due to the Emperor's disapproval, but the influence of the army continued to increase. The collapse of the world economy in 1929 had a great impact on Japan and the new electorate turned against the often corrupt civilian politicians. There was opposition in Japan to the government's acceptance of the terms of the Washington Naval Conference in 1930. The rise of militarism and of political conservatism with its return to traditional Japanese values encouraged the invasion of Manchuria in 1931 and the creation of Manchuko in 1932 as a means of acquiring land for Japan's crowded population, minerals for its industries and a safe field for investment. There was also the attack on Shanghai in 1932 and Japan withdrew from the League of Nations in 1933. During the early 1930s there was a struggle in the army between the radical *Koda-ha* or Imperial Way faction and the *Tosei-ha* or Control Way faction of older more conservative officers. This led to a number of political assassinations and attempted military coups. The failed coup of 26 February 1936 routed the Imperial Way faction and the Control faction dominated the army and exerted power in politics. Under Prime Minister Hirota Koki the civilian element in the government was weakened. After this Japan turned to rearmament to encourage its industries; there was a revival of nationalism based on the military and the Emperor; strict control of education was introduced; the Anti-Comintern Pact with Hitler was signed in 1936; and there was a push for expansion into China for raw materials and markets. Opposition from the Diet proved ineffectual and war with China started in 1937.

14. Explain why, and with what success, Japan established the Co-Prosperity Sphere in the region between 1940 and 1945.

Candidates may identify a number of factors that gave rise to the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere. Japan had suffered from the effects of the Great Depression in the early 1930s and the failure of the rice crop in 1931. Both led to a desire for expansion into China and Southeast Asia for raw materials and markets to bolster its economy at home. The occupation of Manchuria in 1931 and the creation of Manchukuo in 1932 extended Japanese influence commercially and politically. Socially and politically the rise of militarism and extreme nationalism were strong influences. Powerful military interests controlled the government and after the invasion of China in 1937 it announced in 1938 the New Order in East Asia which was to be a mutually beneficial political, cultural and economic union of Japan, Manchukuo and China. The United States, opposed to the expansion, imposed trade embargoes in July 1940 and this intensified Japan's need for other sources of raw materials. In August 1940 the government announced that the New Order had been replaced by the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere and this endorsed Japan's imperialist ambitions and expansion into Southeast Asia. Military expenditure would boost the economy and provide employment in industry. Japan signed the Tripartite Pact with Germany and Italy in September 1940 and remained in dispute with the US over the trade boycott. Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in December 1941 and by May 1942 had control over the Eastern seaboard of China, Southeast Asia and many Pacific islands. Japan's initial victories resulted from its well-planned and coordinated surprise attacks by well-trained, experienced forces upon relatively weak and unprepared opponents at a time when the European colonial powers were either under German domination or, in the case of Britain, facing the threat of invasion. A significant factor in Japan's eventual failure was its inability to win the solid and active support of the colonial peoples in the territories it had "liberated" from the European powers. The Japanese slogan "Asia for the Asians" did inspire some local nationalist movements, but they viewed the notion of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere with suspicion and saw Japan as another imperialist nation. Other factors that contributed to Japan's failure were: lack of resources for a long war against a rapidly rearmed United States and its allies; overextension of its forces over a large area against persistent local resistance; and the loss of its most experienced personnel in the earlier fighting. The atomic bombs in 1945 ended an empire which was already doomed. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion about the success or otherwise of the Greater East Asia Co-prosperity Sphere.

If only reasons why or what success are addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

Developments in Australia and New Zealand, and in the Pacific Islands 1941–2000

- 15. “Australia looks to America, free from any pangs as to our traditional links or kinship with the United Kingdom.” Assess the reasons for, and the consequences up to 1971 of, this statement made in December 1941 by Prime Minister Curtin.**

Candidates may start by identifying why Curtin made this statement in December 1941. When Britain entered the Second World War in September 1939, Australia’s Prime Minister Menzies immediately committed Australia. In 1940–1941 Australian troops were sent to Europe and the Middle East to support Britain. During this time the threat of Japanese expansion in the Pacific region grew and this led to doubts about Britain’s ability to protect Australia. When Menzies visited Britain early in 1941 he was concerned about the apparent British disregard for security in the Pacific. Menzies’ United Australia Party government collapsed and Curtin, Labor, became Prime Minister in October 1941. In December Japan attacked the United States’ naval base at Pearl Harbor and Australia felt threatened. This prompted Curtin’s speech. Japanese expansion was rapid and by May 1942 Japan had much territory in the Pacific and Southeast Asia and the north of Australia had been bombed. Curtin recalled Australian troops and refused to comply with British military requests. He forged an alliance with the US and allowed Australian troops to be put under US command. The Pacific War caused Australia to realize that it could not depend on Britain and therefore Australia and New Zealand entered the ANZUS pact with the United States in 1951 providing for mutual defence. The rise of communism in Asia presented another perceived threat and again Australia allied with the US and others in order to meet it and formed the South East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO) in 1954. These agreements assumed a policy of forward defence so that Australia joined with the US to resist the invasion of South Korea by communist North Korea and the communist insurgency in Vietnam. Yet, Australia also supported Britain in Malaya and Borneo and remained a member of the British Commonwealth. Candidates may also note that independence from Britain was granted, in the period from 1947 to 1971, to many countries in the Indian sub-continent, Southeast Asia and the Pacific. Therefore, Britain’s withdrawal of a military presence from east of Suez in 1971 confirmed Australia’s trend of moving away from reliance on Britain for defence. Economically, Australia also developed closer links with Asia. Culturally, however, Australia still had close links with Britain and, despite post-war immigration from many European countries; the large number of British migrants initially reinforced the traditional kinship ties. The extent to which the defence policies reflected a change of loyalties is one which candidates will need to address.

If only reasons or consequences are addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

16. **“After the Second World War the foreign and economic policies of New Zealand altered considerably and became focussed on Asia and the Pacific Islands.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?**

Candidates may note that the Second World War caused New Zealand to realize that they could not depend on Britain for defence. This led to the ANZUS pact between Australia, New Zealand and the United States providing mutual defence. The rise of Communism in Asia presented another perceived threat and again New Zealand joined with others in order to meet it, this time entering the South East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO). These agreements assumed a policy of forward defence so that New Zealand sent forces to resist North Korea’s invasion of South Korea and to fight communist insurgents in Malaya, Borneo and Vietnam. New Zealand was involved with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries (Indonesia, Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, the Philippines and Brunei) and the Pacific Island states to promote regional cooperation on security issues. Britain’s entry into the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1972 reduced the access of former British colonies and dominions in the region to British trade and markets. This caused New Zealand to turn to East and South East Asia as economic partners, particularly to China. New Zealand formally recognized the People’s Republic of China in 1972 and this bilateral relationship grew to become one of New Zealand’s most important. New Zealand played a key role in the Colombo Plan, which provided developing nations in the region with aid and expertise. New Zealand was instrumental in establishing the South Pacific Forum in 1971, which in 1999 became the Pacific Island Forum. This group met annually to discuss issues of mutual concern to the region such as economic development, tourism, trade, security and education. New Zealand’s foreign policy did not vary greatly and there was a degree of consensus amongst the major political parties. Much of New Zealand’s foreign policy was focused on the Pacific region and economic assistance was given to projects in the South Pacific Island states. In the late twentieth century New Zealand followed an increasingly isolationist policy and a strong anti-nuclear stance opposed to French and US policies in the region. Despite these foreign policy and economic shifts, membership of the British Commonwealth still remained significant to New Zealand. Candidates will have to come to a conclusion about the extent to which New Zealand’s foreign and economic policies altered.

There does not need to be an equal amount of material on both Asia and the Pacific Islands, but if only one area is discussed mark out of a maximum of [12marks],

Developments in South and Southeast Asia from mid twentieth century to 2000

17. Analyse the policies and achievements of *either* Rajiv Gandhi (1984–1991) in India *or* Zia (1977–1988) in Pakistan.

Rajiv Gandhi

Candidates may start by outlining his political career. This may include: the pressure placed on him by his mother, Indira Gandhi, and the Indian National Congress Party to enter politics after the death of his brother, Sanjay, in 1980; his election to Parliament in 1981; being chosen by the Congress Party as Prime Minister after the assassination of his mother in 1984; the landslide victory of the elections shortly after in 1984; the Bofors corruption scandal that contributed to his defeat in 1989; and his assassination by a Tamil supporter whilst campaigning in 1991. Candidates will need to analyse his policies and achievements. Rajiv Gandhi moved away from the more socialist policies of his mother and encouraged the development of small businesses. He reduced taxes and import quotas on consumer goods and developed the information technology and telecommunications industries. Yet, during the course of his rule the value of the rupee dropped considerably. In education he gave support to science and technology, expanded higher education and established a programme to promote secondary education in rural areas. Internal security in the Punjab was a major issue and his government imposed martial law which was controversial. Rajiv Gandhi improved India's relationship with the US, whilst still maintaining friendship with the USSR. The most contentious of his policies was his government's involvement in the civil war in Sri Lanka. Under his mother's government India had supported the Tamil rebels, but after the Indo-Sri Lanka Peace Accord in 1987 the support shifted to the Sri Lankan government. The Indian Peace Keeping Force aimed to disarm the rebels and get them to accept the Accord. This proved unpopular in India and contributed to Rajiv Gandhi's defeat in 1989 and his death in 1991.

Zia

Candidates may start by outlining his political career. Zia was the Chief of the Army under Bhutto's government. Democratic elections were held in 1977 and the Pakistan People's Party won, but this was challenged by the opposition. Bhutto was accused of rigging the vote and was implicated in the murder of a political opponent. The military, led by General Zia, staged a coup, relieved Bhutto of power and had him executed for murder in 1979. Zia initially promised to hold new elections, but these were postponed and he maintained martial law. He became President in 1978, consolidated his power as head of state and introduced Islamic law. From 1980 to 1985 he ruled with the help of an advisory body, the Shoora, made up of intellectuals, technocrats and economists. In 1984 he held a referendum to ensure his continuation as head of state and then allowed elections in 1985. The new government ended martial law, but was essentially controlled by Zia. In 1988 he dissolved this government and promised to hold elections within 90 days, but he was killed in a suspicious aeroplane crash. Candidates will need to analyse his policies and achievements. Zia's government consolidated Pakistan's nuclear programme begun under Bhutto, but it changed his socialist policies and successfully encouraged private enterprise and the growth of industry. His government developed closer relations with the US and Pakistan benefitted from US aid. In part this was due to Zia's stance on the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979. He was anti-communist and supported the mujahedeen resistance. This gained the financial backing of the US under President Reagan. These policies are considered controversial because they encouraged Islamic fundamentalism and endorsed violence. This led to a more divided Pakistan and increased support for the Taliban and Al-Qaeda in the 1990s.

18. “The war in Vietnam (1955–1975) was a conflict about ideology not nationalism.” To what extent do you agree with this assessment of the Vietnam War?

Candidates may initially establish that the Vietnamese nationalist struggle began against the French and resulted in victory in the 1946–1954 First Indo-China War and then make comments to the effect that the Vietnam War (1955–1975) developed from the unsatisfactory resolution of this conflict at the 1954 Geneva Conference. Relevant points that may be considered include: Ho Chi Minh’s declaration of independence on 2 September 1945; President Truman ignored Ho’s letters and did not recognize the Democratic Republic of Vietnam; the 1954 Geneva Conference split Vietnam at the seventeenth parallel; South Vietnam was proclaimed the Republic of Vietnam (RVN) in 1955 under Ngo Dinh Diem and the United States began to provide military and economic aid; the elections promised for 1956 and the reunification of the country did not happen because both Diem and the US feared a communist victory. The regime in South Vietnam was unpopular: there was chaos and corruption; communist insurgencies were supported by North Vietnam and in 1960 Ho Chi Minh established the National Liberation Front (NLF) in South Vietnam; self-immolation protests against the Diem government by Buddhist monks; US Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) was implicated in the assassination of Diem in 1963. The reasons why the United States entered the conflict should be linked to the Cold War: the US viewed Ho Chi Minh as a communist threat in the light of the emerging Cold War tensions; 1947 Truman Doctrine, policy of containment; end of the Korean War in 1953 and the stalemate which existed there; the domino theory and the rollback policy of Eisenhower and Dulles; Kennedy’s commitment to liberty; the 1964 Gulf of Tonkin Resolution legitimized the introduction of US troops. In 1965 US forces and their allies arrived in South Vietnam. The USSR and China provided aid to North Vietnam and the Viet Cong. Ho Chi Minh was a charismatic nationalist leader. The widespread use of propaganda in North Vietnam depicted the war as both a nationalist and an ideological struggle. President Nixon’s Vietnamisation policy in 1969 initiated the beginning of the US withdrawal. The war ended with the defeat of South Vietnamese forces and the fall of Saigon to the communists in 1975. There is wide scope for candidates to discuss the ideological and nationalist aspects of the war and both should be addressed. Many students may challenge the assumption inherent in the question. Expect a variety of material and reward all relevant comment.

China: the regional superpower from mid twentieth century to 2000

19. “Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) was disappointingly inconsistent as a nation builder.” Is this a fair appraisal of Mao’s leadership between 1949 and 1976?

This is a broad question and candidates may cover a lot of material in their responses. Candidates may make a distinction between Mao, the popular revolutionary leader who gains power in 1949 and Mao, the nation builder who makes mistakes. Some candidates may initially discuss Maoism: concepts of land redistribution, peasant socialism, working alongside the peasants, class struggle, gender equality, right thinking, rectification, continuous revolution, the mass line, the Yanan (Yenan) Spirit and Chinese nationalism; and assess the extent to which Mao disappointed in the application and achievement of these as a nation builder. Candidates’ responses will need to address both the positive and the negative aspects of Mao Zedong’s (Mao Tse-tung’s) rule in the People’s Republic of China 1949–1946. Expect candidates to discuss Mao’s policies and campaigns throughout the 27 year period: the New China reconstruction period 1949–1952; the First Five Year Plan 1952–1957; the 100 Flowers and Anti-Rightist Campaigns 1956–1957; the Great Leap Forward 1958–1961; the moderate period 1961–1965; the Socialist Education Movement 1962; and the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution 1966–1976. Candidates may also discuss Mao’s leadership in relation to the roles of other leaders such as Lin Biao (Lin Piao), Liu Shaoqi (Liu Shao-ch’i), Deng Xiaoping (Teng Hsiao-p’ing), Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai), Peng Dehuai (P’eng Te-huai) and Jiang Qing (Chiang Ch’ing). Foreign policy may also be discussed, including Mao’s rapprochement with the United States in 1972. Candidates may recognize that Mao continued to assert an influence after his death in that his legacy and the cult that had surrounded him could not immediately be ignored. Some may mention the CCP reassessment of Mao in July 1981 and that the split of 70 % good and 30 % bad has become the accepted Chinese official assessment of Mao. Expect reasoned and balanced discussion based on evidence and knowledge and reward originality. Candidates should provide an assessment of Mao’s leadership and will need to come to a conclusion about the extent to which they agree with the assertion in the question.

20. Assess the political developments in China under Deng Xiaoping (Teng Hsiao-p'ing) (1976–1997).

This is a question about the political developments under Deng's leadership so extensive discussion about economic issues should not be the main focus of the answer. Candidates may initially discuss Deng's (Teng's) return to political affairs after the Cultural Revolution (1966–1969) and identify this as the beginning of Deng's political power. Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai), China's Foreign Minister and Premier used his influence with Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) to have Deng re-instated as Vice-Premier in 1974. In 1975 Deng (Teng) worked with Zhou (Chou) drafting the Four Modernizations, a new economic reform programme. Mao distrusted Deng's (Teng's) confidence and felt he was reversing the Cultural Revolution. In January 1976 Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai) died and in April, 1976 thousands rallied in Tiananmen Square in memory of him. The Gang of Four blamed Deng (Teng) and he was dismissed from all his posts whilst Hua Guofeng (Hua Kuo-feng) was promoted to Premier. Mao died in September 1976 and Hua arrested the Gang of Four in October. After this, calls to reinstate Deng were made by the people and from inside the Party. One year after Zhou's death, Tiananmen Square again filled with pro-Deng (Teng) rallies. In July 1977, Deng (Teng) returned to all his former posts and he proceeded to undermine Hua's authority. In preparation for the Third Plenum of the Eleventh Party National People's Congress in 1978 Deng (Teng) criticized Hua's adherence to Mao's ideology and advocated new directions. The Four Modernizations were accepted at this meeting as the basis for future economic development. Hua was removed from office by 1982. Hu Yaobang (Hu Yao-pang) and Zhao Ziyang (Chao Tzu-yang), supporters of Deng (Teng), were appointed to senior leadership positions. The Gang of Four were tried and sentenced in 1980–1981. Initially, Deng (Teng) tolerated the existence of the Democracy Wall where criticisms of the Left and demands for reform within the Party were posted. However, once the political reformers demanded a "Fifth Modernization", political democracy, Deng (Teng) closed the Democracy Wall and the main dissident Wei Jingsheng (Wei Ching-sheng) was jailed for 15 years. Deng (Teng) advocated "people's democracy", but he did not support the idea of a Western liberal multi-party democracy. He adhered to the Four Cardinal Principles that he restated in 1979: "keeping to the socialist road"; "upholding the people's democratic dictatorship"; upholding leadership by the Communist Party; and "upholding Marxism-Leninism and Mao Zedong Thought". Nevertheless, a fledgling pro-democracy movement developed and in 1986 there were student protests. Hu Yaobang (Hu Yao-pang) supported the protesters, but was subsequently removed from office. His death in April 1989 sparked student unrest in Tiananmen Square. There were a number of factors that eventually led to the massacre in June: the visit of Gorbachev; the humiliation felt by Deng (Teng); the rift between the more liberal General Secretary, Zhao Ziyang (Chao Tzu-yang) and the conservative Premier, Li Peng; Zhao's (Chao's) dismissal; the imposition of martial law; and the students' refusal to disperse. In the aftermath Deng's (Teng's) government treated dissidents harshly. Deng (Teng) may have introduced economic reforms which transformed the lives of many Chinese, but he believed in the authority of the Chinese Communist Party as the only legitimate power. He wanted internal stability after the upheavals of the Mao years.

Global impact of the region in the second half of the twentieth century

21. Compare and contrast the economic development between 1945 and 2000 in *two* of the following countries: Japan; Taiwan; Hong Kong; South Korea; Singapore; Malaysia; Thailand.

Candidates may choose any two of the countries listed in the question and their responses should compare and contrast the economic development in both. There should be some attempt to define what is meant by the term “economic development” and candidates should identify the factors that contributed to this in the chosen countries. Popular choices will probably be Japan, Taiwan, Hong Kong, South Korea and Singapore. Many countries have adopted capitalist systems which generally share the characteristics of private ownership of property and the means of production and the encouragement of private enterprise to respond to market forces, but there is variation amongst these countries over the nature and degree of state control and intervention in economic planning and development. Other factors apart from the state should be indicated: outside forces such as a steady expansion of world trade; globalization and the tendency for large multinational companies to grow to service global markets; the ease of access to foreign markets; and the role and influence of the American market. Cultural traditions may also have contributed significantly to promoting economic development: Confucian values may have favoured labour discipline; the postponement of personal gratification for the national good; the reliance upon family, clan and community support systems.

Japan

Will be a popular choice as it has dominated the Pacific Asian economy and the role of the state has been significant in determining the success of economic development. After the Second World War Japan’s major trading partner was the US. To maintain their price advantage with the West, Japan moved production facilities to other Asian countries as costs rose domestically in the latter part of the twentieth century. Japan effectively expanded its available labour force to include those of other Asian countries as well. Japan has diversified economic production to sell Japanese products for foreign markets, ranging from children’s toys to electronics and automobiles. Globalisation has played a key role in the economic development of Japan.

South Korea

Initially exercised heavy state control of its economy, but by the end of the twentieth century this had lessened. There was rapid industrialisation based on foreign investment. Ship building, automobiles, construction, armaments and advanced technology all developed in response to global markets and also increased the growth in the economy and the standard of living in South Korea.

Taiwan

Benefited from economic and military aid from the United States and from investment from Chinese people living overseas. Taiwan also had access to highly trained management and business personnel from overseas. By 1968 some 90 % of farming land was owned by those who worked it. Four Year Plans for industry produced an annual growth rate of 9.7 % in the ten year period after 1963. Changes in mainland China’s economy since the 1980s have provided investment opportunities there for the Taiwanese. Taiwan became highly industrialized and specialized in information technology.

Singapore and Hong Kong

Were initially British colonies. Singapore became independent in 1965 and Britain handed over Hong Kong to China in 1997. Both had large Chinese populations who dominated the commercial sector. Each developed as a major port for its region and as a centre of commerce, trade and banking and both encouraged industry, communications and their national infrastructure.

Award credit for reasoned discussion based upon historical evidence. Many answers will focus on comparisons, but some contrasts should also be identified.

If only one country is addressed, mark out of a maximum of [7 marks].

22. To what extent did religion influence relations between countries of the region during the second half of the twentieth century?

Candidates may consider the influence of religion along with other aspects of the relations between countries in the region. Do not expect candidates to discuss all the countries in the region, they may use various case studies, but they should discuss more than one country. Popular choices may be India and Pakistan; Indonesia and Australia; Burma and Thailand, but reward any appropriate choice of countries.

India and Pakistan both gained independence after the British partition of India in 1947. Pakistan became a Muslim state, which eventually had authoritarian governments, whilst India became a secular democracy with a Hindu majority. Partition caused millions of people to be displaced. This whole process led to many violent clashes and massacres. Since 1947 relations between India and Pakistan have remained tense. The control of the different Muslim and Hindu regions of Kashmir was the focal point of much conflict leading to wars in 1947, 1965 and 1999. In the 1971 Indo-Pakistan War, India supported the liberation of Bangladesh. India recognized the Soviet backed government of Afghanistan whilst Pakistan supported the resistance to the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979. In the late twentieth century the rise of Islamic fundamentalism with links to the Taliban and Al-Qaeda flourished in Pakistan with India being opposed to the Taliban in Afghanistan. Pakistan was blamed for several acts of terrorism in India in the 1990s.

Indonesia declared independence in August 1945 under President Sukarno, but only in 1949 was war with the Dutch ended and independence officially recognized. The new state was a federation of the separate islands and provinces but became a unitary state in 1950. Islam had played an important part in the drive for independence and Sukarno provided charismatic leadership, the symbols of nationalism and the national language (Malay) were taught and opposition in the outer islands brought under control. As president, he embodied the state and attempted to balance the army, the Muslims and communist threats. In 1962, Indonesia acquired Irian Jaya (West New Guinea) from the Dutch and in 1963 confronted Malaysia. The Indonesian constitution guarantees freedom of religion, but only six major religious groups are recognized, Islam, Protestant Christianity, Roman Catholicism, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Confucianism. The tensions between the Islamic majority, which is nearly 90 % and minority religious groups often occurred. During the 1960s, Suharto tried to create a more secular state and include members of other religious groups in his government. In the late twentieth century the treatment of Christians in Aceh; the issue of the independence of the largely Roman Catholic East Timor; and the rise of Islamic fundamentalism and terrorism affected Indonesia's relations with other countries in the region, including Australia.

Burma achieved independence in 1948 and factional rivalry leading to violence was prevalent in Burmese politics causing Ne Win to seize power in 1962 and set up a Revolutionary Council to govern the country. Burma became a single-party state under the Burma Socialist Programme Party, which created an ideology based on a mixture of Marxist and Buddhist principles. This led to economic decline, isolation and repression, particularly of Christian minority groups who were deemed to symbolize Western imperialism. Also targeted have been the ethnic Karen people, of whom 40% are Christian. The Karen refugees have fled to Thailand and this has led to tensions between the two countries.

If only one country is discussed, mark out of a maximum of [7 marks].

Social and economic developments 1945–2000**23. Discuss the extent to which the traditional arts and culture of *one* country of the region were affected by outside influences between 1945 and 2000.**

Candidates may choose any country from the region. They will need to define what they consider to be “outside influences”. Possible choices may include: the globalisation of the economy; the use of English as an international language; the globalisation of popular culture through television, film and music; international sport; tourism; and immigration. Globalisation of the economy may have impacted on the traditional arts and culture in a number of ways: a uniformity of products available; the creation of consumer markets; changes in customs and the institution of the family; changing levels of education; the impact on sport and leisure pursuits; the impact on religious observance and values. The widespread use of English means that since 1945 popular Western culture, particularly American, has penetrated many countries through television, film, popular music and more recently the internet. Many candidates may argue that this has had a negative impact on the traditional arts and crafts, music, drama, beliefs and practices so that these have become largely part of the tourist industry rather than everyday life. Better candidates may realize that the global culture has been only accessible to certain segments of the population and that the poor may have remained fairly traditional. International sport has become an important focus in the region since 1945 and sporting events are often occasions where aspects of national culture are highlighted. Examples of this are: the opening ceremonies of the Olympic Games and the Commonwealth Games; the New Zealand All Blacks rugby team. With newly independent nations, traditional songs, dances and art forms may be taken from their localized settings and incorporated into ceremonies linked to sporting events to produce a sense of national identity and recognition internationally. In Australia, the 1972–1975 Whitlam Government adopted the policy of multiculturalism. European and Asian immigration contributed cultural change in Australian society which was apparent by the 1980s and 1990s: in food and in eating out in cafes and restaurants; in liquor licensing laws; in the diversity of sports played; in the variety and the appreciation of all forms of the arts; in religious composition. Yet the basic British heritage of institutions such as the legal system; education; and government administration still remain. Indigenous arts and crafts are part of the tourism industry but beyond that a vibrant indigenous artistic culture has been revived. In New Zealand a similar pattern occurred, though the New Zealand culture was also shaped by the immigration of Pacific Islanders by the end of the twentieth century.

Award reasoned and balanced argument based on evidence and a historical perspective relating to the country chosen.

24. In what ways, and with what consequences, did technology change the social structures and the economy of *one* country of the region in the second half of the twentieth century?

Candidates may choose any country from the region. Responses need to show a clear understanding of what is meant by the term “technology”. This may include computer technology and the internet, television and films; mobile telephones, automation in industry; satellite communications; transport; farm machinery; and medical equipment. Candidates need to demonstrate the links between technological change and the social and economic changes that have taken place in the chosen country since the Second World War. Technological change often means that there is considerable upheaval and change in a society. This may be both positive and negative. Social structures refer to the distinctive, stable arrangement of institutions whereby human beings in a society interact and live together. Candidates may refer to a range of changes in the social structure that have come about as a result of technological change: the position of women; social mobility; population growth and distribution; migration from the countryside to cities; accessibility to education; accessibility to better health care; effects upon rural and regional areas; community and political organizations; crime rates; rise of a new middle class; the traditional culture and lifestyle may have been undermined; greater exposure to a global culture; the development of a youth culture; the state may have more control over people’s lives; a stronger sense of national identity and greater national cohesion may emerge. Changes to the economy may vary: poverty and wealth will both have developed; new jobs may have been created; more efficient systems may have developed in business, agriculture, fishing and mining that stimulate the economy; rural areas may have thrived or become depressed; redundancies and unemployment may have occurred; globalisation of the country’s economy; the entertainment industry may have flourished; tourism and leisure activities may or may not have benefitted.

Look for clarity of thought, the statement of opinion based upon factual knowledge and specific reference. Weaker candidates will make sweeping generalisations with little factual reference. Better candidates should reveal knowledge, backed with evidence, of what technological change entails and its impact for good or bad upon the people of the country chosen. They should be able to identify and discuss the consequences on both the social structures and the economy

If only ways or consequences are addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].
