



MARKSCHEME

November 2013

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.

Following a review of marking practices it has been agreed that in order to add further clarity to the markscheme for Paper 3, all caveats with regard to the awarding of marks for questions that include more than one component (eg, compare and contrast; reasons and significance; methods and success) will be removed.

*Examiners and moderators are reminded of the need to apply the markbands that provide **the ‘best fit’** to the responses given by candidates and to **award credit wherever it is possible to do so**. If an answer indicates that the demands of the question are understood and addressed but that **not all implications are considered (eg, compare or contrast; reasons or significance; methods or success)**, then examiners should not be afraid of using the full range of marks allowed for by the markscheme: ie, responses that offer good coverage of some of the criteria should be rewarded accordingly.*

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

1. Why did opposition to colonial rule fail in any *two* South or Southeast Asian countries in the region from the late eighteenth up to the middle of the nineteenth century?

Despite the widespread nature of colonial domination over South and Southeast Asia there were surprisingly few major revolts and little organized opposition to foreign rule in the period. Candidates need to consider why opposition to colonial rule essentially failed in the chosen countries. Answers may focus on the military strengths and the technological advancement of the colonizers. Candidates may also refer to: the policies of divide and rule used by the imperialists; the agricultural nature of many indigenous societies; the colonizers' focus on commerce; and the relative popularity of the rule of the imperialist powers in some sectors of the indigenous population. Collaborators played a part because they stood to gain more than they lost. Answers may refer to the heterogeneity of Asian society such as religious and ethnic differences, which made unified resistance more difficult. The calibre of some of the officials who ran the colonial administration may also be discussed.

India may be a popular choice for one of the countries chosen where there was opposition to British rule, but candidates must look at opposition to colonial rule in two countries of the region. Examples of other countries where there were revolts and resistance include: Burma which fought three wars against the British (1824–1826, 1852 and 1885–1886); Afghanistan (1842); resistance to the Dutch in Java (1825). In the Philippines there had been steady resistance on a small scale ever since the arrival of the Spanish. The Palaris Revolt of 1762–1765 was the largest revolt, followed by the Ambaristo Revolt in 1807. Spanish policies of repression both helped cause as well as curb resistance in the Philippines. In New Zealand, Maori resistance led to local wars against the British despite the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840. Conflicts over land led to the First Maori War (1843–1848) and the Second Maori War (1860–1870).

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2. **Examine the reasons for Dutch involvement in Indonesia, and explain how and why they established their political control by the middle of the nineteenth century.**

Initial reasons for Dutch interest in the region fall into two clear periods, and were centred on the desire for trade. In 1605, the Dutch East India Company (VOC) became involved in the region up to the end of the eighteenth century. The principal reason and driving force was to maximize financial profits through the establishment of trading monopolies. Ruling the territories was secondary and political control came later. When the VOC collapsed in 1799, the Dutch government took control of its holdings after the Napoleonic Wars in 1825, and began to bring the Indonesian archipelago under its administrative and political authority. They limited civil liberties, and political activities were discouraged. Access to modern education was restricted in numbers and to certain social groups. Candidates may refer to the crushing of the Javanese in the Java War of 1825–1830, after which a system of forced cultivations and indentured labour was introduced. This was called the Culture System and the aim was to contribute to paying off the East Indies Government debt by making the East Indies profitable to the Netherlands and in this it proved very successful. Twenty percent of cultivated land was set aside for government crops, replacing the land tax. Safeguards had been put in place to prevent exploitation but from 1840 these were ignored. The land tax was re-imposed; forced labour on public works and in processing crops was increased; the amount of land allocated to cash crops expanded and in 1843 rice was included as an export crop. The result was famine in various areas. Money continued to be remitted to the Netherlands. Opposition to the Culture System grew in the Netherlands on humanitarian and economic grounds. Constitutional changes in the Netherlands in 1848 increased the influence of the business community who resented the government monopoly in Indonesia. Over the following years the government began giving up its cultures to private enterprise. The Agrarian Law of 1874 is regarded as marking the official end of the Culture System and the introduction of what was known as the Liberal Policy.

Accept some discussion of the circumstances of the Dutch interest in the region in comparison with other Western nations, but candidates need to clearly identify the reasons for Dutch involvement in Indonesia as well as how they were able to maintain control up to the middle of the nineteenth century.

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

3. Why had the Western powers become dissatisfied with the system of trade in China, and what were the consequences of this up to 1842?

The arrival of the Western powers into Chinese trade during the eighteenth century led to the system of trade established by 1760 that restricted foreign maritime trade to Guangzhou (Canton) and to a group of Chinese merchants known as the Cohong. Candidates may explain the workings of the Canton system – how foreign merchants were subject to regulations, which restricted their activities. Trade in silks, porcelain and tea left China but was paid for in silver bullion. Partially to counteract this deficit, British merchants began to smuggle opium from India into China and this became a major problem for the Chinese by the 1830s. In addition, candidates may refer to the inequalities perceived by the Western powers in the Canton system such as the legal system and lack of extraterritoriality; no diplomatic representation; and the restriction of free trade. Candidates may also refer to the failure of the Macartney (1793) and Amherst (1816) trade missions. In 1834, the British East India Company lost its monopoly and, later that year, Lord Napier's mission to the Chinese court failed. The consequences followed when the Qing (Ch'ing) government resolved to stop the illegal trade in opium and, in 1838, sent Lin Zexu (Lin Tse-hsu) as Imperial Commissioner to Guangzhou (Canton). His actions increased foreign dissatisfaction and prompted the events such as the actions of Captain Charles Elliot and the Lin Weixi (Lin Wei-hsi) affair that led to the beginning of the First Opium War with Britain in 1839. The Chinese were defeated and the Treaty of Nanjing (Nanking) was signed with the British in 1842. Subsequent "unequal treaties" were made with the France and the United States by 1844. All these treaties favoured the Western powers and attempted to address their dissatisfaction with the Chinese system of trade

Candidates should focus on the trading system itself and on the reasons for growing Western dissatisfaction with it and analyse the consequences which include the build up to the outbreak of the Opium War and the terms of the Treaty of Nanjing (Nanjing). Reward responses that have a balanced, detailed analysis and evaluation that covers both Chinese and foreign attitudes towards the system of trade and which identifies the specific consequences for both parties.

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4. To what extent do you agree that the Tokugawa Shogunate was at the point of collapse by 1853?

The question refers to the final years of the Edo period when the Tokugawa Shogunate came to an end after almost 250 years of rule in Japan. The collapse is characterized by the events, which began with contact with the West when Matthew Perry’s “black ships” arrived in Edo in 1853. Candidates should recognise the problems, which lay within the Shogunate prior to this time, but the better candidates could also show an awareness of the strengths of the system and how it had been able to survive these internal pressures for such a long period of time. Following the experience of China in the First Opium War there was some debate in Japan over how to survive Western domination. Candidates may focus on the factors that were undermining the Tokugawa Shogunate. 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 (*kokugaku*) 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 may have been at a point of collapse 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. Expect this to be a popular question and reward sophisticated analysis, which may recognise that the Shogunate might have survived. Candidates may continue on beyond 1853 to support their analysis, so give credit where material is relevant to their argument.

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Developing identities — mid nineteenth to the early twentieth century**5. For what reasons, and with what consequences, was the All India Muslim League created in 1906?**

Candidates will need to see the creation of the All India Muslim League in the context of British rule in India and Muslims as a minority group. The 1858 Government of India Act gave Britain direct control over India with the major constitutional changes. Reasons include the formation of an Indian nationalist movement, which developed with the Indian National Congress, founded in 1885. Congress made no conscious efforts to enlist the Muslim community in its struggle for a more equitable share in government. Muslims were a minority in Congress and many Muslims felt that the Hindu majority would not represent their interests. Also the British administration did not always acknowledge Muslim concerns with regard to their religion, language and culture. This led to Muslim fears that a Hindu majority would seek to suppress Muslim culture and religion in an independent India. The 1905 partition of Bengal, which created a Muslim majority state, was the catalyst for the emergence of the All India Muslim League in 1906. The Hindu reaction to this seemed to confirm Muslim fears. A delegation of Muslim leaders to the Viceroy, Minto, requested separate electorates for Muslims if the British reformed the political system. Minto's sympathetic response led to the creation of the League in order to maintain the political pressure. Initially, its goals focussed on representing Muslim issues within the existing structure rather than the formation of an independent state. The consequences could cover a range of events and policies: Morley–Minto reforms of 1909 which allowed for separate electorates and reserved seats for Muslims; 1916 Lucknow Pact with Congress; Gandhi and the Khilafat issue; Jinnah's failure to form a Hindu–Muslim alliance; Iqbal's Two Nation Theory; 1928 Nehru Report; the souring of relations between Congress and the League. The scope of this question does not require candidates to go beyond the 1920s. Both parts of the question should be addressed.

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6. What were the key factors in the development of national identity in Australia and New Zealand up to the end of the First World War?

Candidates may choose, initially, to identify what they consider to be the emerging sense of national identity in both Australia and New Zealand before the First World War. These factors can include, 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. Key factors in New Zealand are similar, and related sentiments prevailed – these include: involvement in the Boer War; granting of Dominion status in 1907; the rugged and enterprising man alone versus nature; egalitarianism; double patriotism; cultural nationalists. The impact of Australia's and New Zealand's involvement in the First World War 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 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 and New Zealand's involvement in the First World War and subsequent wars, and Anzac Day became a public holiday and *de facto* national day. The aftermath of the war may be discussed. In both countries the sense of national identity was linked with commemoration and remembrance and it became part of a conservative imperialist nationalism in the 1920s; an example of this is the establishment of returned servicemen's associations which become the keepers of the legend.

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Early modernization and imperial decline in East Asia — mid nineteenth to the early twentieth century

7. “During the Meiji period, Japan changed its clothes but not its soul.” To what extent is this an accurate assessment of the modernization of the country over that period?

Candidates will need to analyse and assess the impact of the Meiji reforms and to distinguish between institutional changes and those affecting Japanese beliefs, values and culture over the Meiji period. Many candidates will agree that the statement is a fair assessment of the degree to which Japan adopted Western institutions, commercial and financial systems, armaments and industrial practices, though it can be argued as to how far these prevailed and influenced Japanese society. By the end of the Meiji era in 1912, there had been a reaction against the more extreme acceptance of all that was Western.

Politically, the Meiji period saw the establishment of representative government. Many Japanese scholars and politicians were sent to the west to study western systems and ideas. However, political innovation only went as far as a conservative imperial constitution based on that of the conservative powers in Europe. Much of Japan’s traditional beliefs and practices remained unchanged and constituted a cultural core supporting the Emperor and the authority of the government. Candidates may also refer to the Constitution of 1889 and the Imperial Rescript on Education of 1890 to illustrate how the adoption of Western political institutions did not imply the abandonment of traditional values and ways of thought.

Economic developments were considerable and the rapid industrialization and modernization that Japan experienced led to massive migration from the countryside into towns and cities. Industrialization also led to the development of a railway system and modern communication methods, which it could be argued did transform Japanese society. A series of land reforms were introduced and private ownership of land was established, which was one of the first steps towards the development of capitalism in Japan. The military of Japan was also strengthened, and they showed themselves as a growing world power by winning both the Sino-Japanese war, and the Russo-Japanese war.

Cultural changes occurred with the adoption of Western dress, music, drama and dance. Cultural innovation was often the pursuit of fashion and fads amongst an educated elite and did not affect all of society. The cultural impact on Japan encompassed educational reforms with attention given to Western subjects and a popularity of many things Western. Reformers were willing to accept what they needed from the West but many reacted in favour of a cultural nationalism to preserve Japanese identity and traditional moral values. There was discontent expressed amongst the Samurai about their declining status however, most Samurai became government officials, military officers or teachers and still maintained an elitist spirit even if their formal title had been abolished.

Expect candidates to examine Japanese modernization and its impact on the economic, political and social structure and, for higher marks, expect detailed analysis covering a range of reform and arriving at an assessment of the validity of the statement as to whether the changes represented a transformation of Japan.

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8. Evaluate the importance of Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) to the Nationalist Revolution in China in 1911.

Candidates should identify what they consider to be Sun Yixian's (Sun Yat-sen) role and importance in bringing about the 1911 "Double Ten" Revolution in China. This may include: his time in exile; his ideas, the Three Principles of the People; the organizations he formed – the *Xingzhonghui* (*Hsing-chung Hui*) or Revive China Society in 1894 and the *Tongmenghui* (*T'ung-meng Hui*) or Revolutionary Alliance (other translations include United League or Combined League Society); various attempts at revolution which had his support, including the Yellow Flower Hill uprising in April 1911. Other factors of importance in bringing about the revolution to which candidates may refer include: the weakness of the Qing government; the Boxer Protocol and the consequences; the failure of the Late Qing Reform Movement, and growing resentment; Railway Recovery Movement, and the influence of other revolutionary groups in exile such as Kang Youwei (K'ang Yu-wei) and Liang Qichao (Liang Ch'i-ch'ao) and the Society to Protect the Emperor and the Society for Constitutional Reform, the Chinese Socialist Party and the New World Society and their publications. Candidates may discuss the role of Yuan Shikai (Yüan Shih-k'ai) and the part he played in the revolution and the nature of how the 1911 Revolution actually started. Candidates will need to evaluate the relative importance of the part played by Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) and other factors. Reward answers which address the range of political, social and economic factors that contributed to the 1911 Revolution and, in particular, Sun's importance.

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

9. What were the most important factors in bringing about the independence and partition of *both India and Pakistan* in 1947?

There are a number of factors that contributed towards bringing about independence and partition in India and Pakistan in 1947. Candidates may identify long and short-term factors or indicate internal and external factors. These may include the rising tide of Indian nationalism, the roles of Gandhi and Jinnah, the rising tide of Muslim separatism and the rise of communal violence, especially in the years after the war, all of which contributed to the granting of independence. However, it was only from the late 1930s that it became likely that independence would be achieved if accompanied by a partition of some kind or another and this partition would create two separate sovereign nations in 1947. Candidates may discuss problems over past negotiations for independence and increased communal tensions leading to Direct Action in 1946. Some answers may argue British policies of “divide and rule” contributed to partition; other factors include Jinnah’s demands for a separate Muslim state and levels of increasing communal violence (in 1946–1947), which helped bring about independence and the proposal of partition as a solution to avoid civil war. Factors also include British policies, Muslim fears and the actions of the Indian National Congress and Gandhi as major factors bringing about independence. Candidates may identify other significant factors which also contributed to partition. These may include: the Government of India Act 1935 and those for and against; the role of Congress and Nehru. The League’s Lahore Resolution was adopted on March 23, 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’s Quit India movement. Talks between Jinnah and Gandhi in 1944 in Bombay failed to achieve agreement. This was the last attempt to reach a single-state solution. The 1946 election for the Constituent Assembly of India; the British Government’s proposals; and the actions of Wavell and Mountbatten may be examined. External factors include the fact that the actual timing of independence in 1947 owed a great deal to the Second World War and the pressures placed on Britain after that, including pressure from the United States. The Labour Party, which was voted to power in 1945, traditionally supported Indian claims for self-rule. There should be a clear evaluation of these factors for the higher markbands. Reward analytical and relevant answers containing detail, insight, an assessment of which factors could be considered as the most important and perhaps different interpretations that address all aspects of the question.

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10. What were the political, social and economic effects of the *two* World Wars on any *one* of the following countries of the region: Sri Lanka; Vietnam; Indonesia?

The impact of the two world wars was felt in the colonies belonging to the European powers of Britain in Sri Lanka, France in Indo-China (Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos) and the Netherlands in Indonesia. Candidates should understand that these countries were affected by the colonial powers' involvement and many colonial subjects fought in the wars or were employed as non-combatants. Many thousands witnessed the war in Europe in 1914–1918, became disillusioned with European civilization and rejected European claims to moral superiority. Many were politicized and some attracted to Communism by the success of the Russian Revolution. The First World War brought disillusionment with Western culture and civilisation and also, to differing degrees, a desire to bring democracy, socialism and independence to their homelands. The colonial powers responded in different ways, ranging from repression to making concessions, so that by 1940 the different independence movements, themselves divided, were at different levels of development. The Second World War impinged directly on the region: the defeat of the colonial powers by Japan lowered their prestige further and provided opportunities for nationalists to assert their claims.

Sri Lanka

The First World War had a limited impact on Sri Lanka but did help to influence the growth of nationalism. British wartime propaganda promoted ideals of freedom and self-determination, and this influenced Sri Lankan nationalists. After the First World War, changes were made to the constitution that increased Sri Lankan representation, however voting still only included 4% of the population. The Lanka Sama Samaja Party (LSSP) was formed in 1935 and was the first party to demand independence. The Second World War had a far greater impact on all aspects of Sri Lankan society. On Easter Sunday 1942 an air raid was carried out by Japan against Colombo and, a few days later, Trincomalee was also attacked. Many Sri Lankans fought for the British, however, the Lanka Sama Samaja Party took an anti-war stance at the outbreak of the Second World War. Throughout the war years they organized numerous strikes and the British authorities found it increasingly difficult to deal with this growing militancy. The LSSP emerged very strongly from the war, having earned tremendous prestige. The repression during the war years had kept unrest under control but with the relaxation of wartime restrictions, opposition to British rule increased. In 1946 a general strike was organized and although the British managed to break the strike it was now clear that if the British did not go soon they would be forced out. Independence was given in 1948 with Senanayake becoming the first Prime Minister of Sri Lanka.

Vietnam

Prior to the First World War there were numerous resistance groups and uprisings in Vietnam. 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 Chi 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. As part of building their support base they also provided many useful services to the peasants. They attacked landlords and moneylenders, as well as offering education. Shortly after the Japanese surrender, Vietnamese guerrillas, under Ho Chi Minh, had seized power in Hanoi and shortly thereafter Ho Chi Minh declared independence.

Indonesia

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). Japanese occupation of Indonesia in 1942 initially appeared to give Sukarno symbolic political freedom. Experience of the occupation varied considerably, many experienced arbitrary arrest and execution while thousands more were taken from Indonesia as forced labourers (*romusha*) for Japanese military projects. The Indonesian ruling classes and politicians who cooperated with the Japanese maintained their power. There was no Allied liberation of Indonesia and occupation officially ended with Japanese surrender in the Pacific. Two days later Sukarno declared Indonesian Independence.

Whichever country is chosen, look for balance, clear assessment and an indication of how both world wars may have impacted the development of nationalist movements, as well as the effects unique to the country chosen.

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

11. “The response in China to the Versailles Treaty (1919) was a defining moment in the history of modern China.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

The circumstances surrounding the Chinese government’s signing of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 and the domestic outrage at the conditions, particularly the concessions given to Japan, are at the centre of the development of the May Fourth Movement that helped shaped modern China. The better candidates will identify the links between Versailles Treaty and May Fourth Movement. Most candidates will probably agree with the statement, but may qualify their agreement with reference to other significant events that had recently occurred. The 1911 Revolution in China saw the collapse of the Qing (Ch’ing) Dynasty, then the failure of the Republic, which was followed by years of warlordism that left China fragmented and vulnerable to foreign aggression. Coupled with the events of the First World War and, in particular Japan’s 21 Demands in 1915, China’s position was volatile at this time.

The 1919 May Fourth Movement saw a new type of political activism and gave its name to an intellectual, cultural and political movement, which lasted into the 1920s and beyond. Workers and students, furious at China’s treatment in the treaty, organized demonstrations and strikes. The May Fourth Movement was also anti-imperialist, patriotic, favoured student and worker involvement in politics and the establishment of unions. Candidates may also consider the cultural aspects of the movement, which promoted Western ideas such as liberalism and socialism and criticized China’s traditional society and Confucian values.

The May Fourth Movement is often credited as being responsible for the birth of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP). Chen Duxiu (Ch’en Tu-hsiu) and Li Dazhao (Li Ta-Chao) had both been active in the May Fourth Movement distributing left wing literature and encouraging student agitation. They were to be the founding members of the CCP when it was created in 1921. Other candidates may argue that the May Fourth Movement gave rise to Sun Yixian’s (Sun Yat-sen’s) revamped Guomindang (Kuomintang) which in turn led to the creation of the First United Front and the campaign against the warlords.

Candidates may base their responses on the extent to which they agree with the statement based on the situation prevailing in 1919. Other candidates may look further forward discuss the significance for the First United Front in 1924 and the eventually CCP victory in 1949. Reward answers, that reach a conclusion on the statement “was a defining moment” based on an analysis of the factors at work and question whether this transformation was solely the effect of 4 May 1919.

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12. How significant was the Japanese invasion and occupation of China from 1931 to 1945 in ensuring the ultimate victory of the Communists in 1949?

The timeframe for this question covers the period of Japanese incursions into China from 1931, following the Manchurian Incident through the second Sino–Japanese War after 1937 to the conclusion of the Civil War in October 1949. The ultimate victory of the Communists in 1949 was not the inevitable outcome of events in the 1920s and 1930s; having won power in the early 1930s, the Guomindang (GMD) (Kuomintang, (KMT)) faced a military conflict that engulfed China from 1931 to 1949 in which millions died and brought the Communists to power. Candidates will probably be familiar with the events of the Manchurian occupation and the Sino–Japanese War. The GMD’s (KMT’s) focus on the Communists as the main danger, seeing the Communists as a “disease of the heart” and the Japanese as a “disease of the skin”, was an integral part of why the war lasted for so long. Candidates may write about the encirclement campaigns and the Jiangxi Soviet, the Long March, the Second United Front and the outbreak of the Sino–Japanese War in July 1937. The Chinese Communist Party (CCP) and the GMD (KMT) were united again in the 1936 Second United Front although the CCP did little to confront the Japanese, relying on guerrilla warfare as Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) constructed a power base for later. With the outbreak of the Pacific War, Japan was over committed but her occupation of China tied up a million troops there for eight years.

Despite Communist claims, they did less fighting than the GMD (KMT) during this period, and in the war years Mao secured his own position through purges and “rectification campaigns”. The Japanese presence in China ensured that neither the GMD (KMT) nor the Communists would be able to take advantage of their enemy’s weakness and gain control until after the war. During the war the Second United Front against Japan broke down. The GMD (KMT) bore the brunt of the early fighting and retreated to Chongqing (Chungking) from where it fought a defensive war, especially after the entry of the United States into the conflict. The CCP largely reverted to guerrilla war, and both parties consolidated their areas. Guerrilla activity against the Japanese and the puppet regime extended the area under CCP control, and from 1942 the CCP introduced rural reforms which attracted peasant support. Both parties benefited at the end of the war from the actions of their respective ideological allies. The CCP moved into areas taken by the Soviet Union in Manchuria, while the GMD (KMT) was supported by the United States in their return to the occupied territories in eastern China. Mao did recognise the part played by the Japanese in bringing him to power. But there were other currents too in China, which brought him to prominence. War may have saved the CCP from the GMD (KMT) in 1937, but the eventual victory in the 1946–49 Civil War was a consequence of Communist strengths politically, and of GMD (KMT) errors of judgement.

This question covers a huge timeframe so do not expect candidates to answer with the same amount of detail about pre-1937 as they may for the period 1937–45. The focus of the response should be on the part played by the Japanese invasion and occupation in distracting the GMD (KMT) from their desire to exterminate the CCP and on how these circumstances contributed to the ultimate victory of the Communists in 1949.

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Imperial Japan: empire and aftermath 1912–1952

13. For what reasons, and with what consequences, did the Taisho democracy fail to solve the problems faced by Japan up to 1931?

The period from 1912 to 1926 saw attempts made to bring the political system under democratic constraints, known as the era of Taisho democracy. Following the accession of Hirohito late in 1926 a more aggressive, expansionist period of the Showa Restoration followed. Some historians debate whether the Taisho democracy was a success or failure in Japan's critical years of expansion. Candidates will probably refer to the two-party political system that had been developing in Japan since the turn of the century, finally coming to fruition after the First World War, hence the key term "Taisho democracy". To the idealistic, it appeared as though democracy had taken root in Japan, heralding the promise of a fully-fledged democracy. An assessment of the issues facing Japan during and after the war, including their relative discontent at their treatment by the Western powers, could be addressed. The effects of the First World War had encouraged economic growth in Japan at first, but soon Japan had to compete with other powers. Taisho's democratic efforts failed to halt the economic hardships and the government grew unpopular. After the 1925 Manhood Suffrage Act, the number of voters rose from 3 million to 14 million. The Seiyukai and the Kenseikai (renamed Minseito after 1927) were the two main political parties, but there was a proliferation of others, including socialist and communist parties. Political parties had to appeal to a broader electorate whose interests differed from those of the much smaller, propertied electorate prior to the reform. For Japan, the 1920s were a time of economic growth as Japanese manufacturers made inroads in world markets. Yet, there were internal economic pressures and candidates may discuss the problems that beset various governments. The 1918–21 Hara government attempted to keep food prices low and provided loans to small businesses, but it was unable to control inflation, there was pressure from the Zaibatsu and many strikes. Hara was assassinated in 1921. The 1921–22 Takahashi government could not remedy the internal economic situation and the Seiyukai Party split into factions. The 1923 Great Tokyo Earthquake created problems for subsequent governments. The 1924–26 Kato government tried to cut government expenditure and the 1926–27 Wakatsuki government faced a severe economic crisis when the bonds issued to finance the reconstruction of Tokyo were due and a banking collapse ensued. The 1927–29 Tanaka government attempted to solve the banking crisis, but not without considerable losses to many people. Politicians were seen as serving business interests and as being corrupt, showing little concern for the difficulties of the peasantry and the labour force. The 1929 Great Depression threatened Japanese industries and livelihoods as countries closed their markets to Japanese manufactures. By the mid 1920s the rising tide of Japanese nationalism began to overwhelm democratic sentiment, and the military continued to blame the parliamentarians for the economic despair and for bowing to Western nations. The Taisho democracy failed to be effective in solving the problems that existed at the time and gave way to the militarists. Reward balanced answers which clearly address both reasons and consequences.

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14. To what extent was Japan’s post-war economic success due to the occupation reforms and to what extent was it due to other factors?

Japan’s economic growth after the Second World War began with post-war reconstruction and the changing priorities of the United States Occupation authorities with the Communist victory in China in 1949 and the outbreak of the Korean War in 1950. The changing priorities of the Occupation after 1947 could be noted and details of the reforms carried out by the US in the years that followed. By the end of the Occupation in 1951, Japan was recovering from the devastation of the war and well on its way to economic recovery and growth.

The effects of the Occupation reforms on Japan’s economy should be assessed. Initial reforms included demilitarization, which resulted in a minimal defence budget. Trade Union and Labour Standards Laws saw an improvement in the rights and conditions of workers. The powerful Zaibatsu, which had previously monopolized Japanese industry, were mostly abolished. The availability of education increased and was less conservative in nature. However, many of these reforms were short lived. The “Reverse Course” was adopted following the outbreak of the Korean War in 1950, which resulted in the trade union movement being closely controlled by the government, the revival of the Zaibatsu and the restoration of a small defensive army.

Candidates will also need to do more than simply relate the Occupation reforms. Other factors could include political stability resulting from the reforms, and social factors such as the culture and character of the Japanese people. The impact of the Korean War was a major factor. Japan became an important supplier of materials to US forces, for which it received payment which helped regenerate and modernize Japanese industry. Trade between Japan and the US flourished in the post-war years due to advantageous tariffs and Japanese imports flooded into the US. Japanese management and work practices proved effective in preventing industrial action, and effective marketing and servicing won and retained customers. War reparations to those countries occupied during the war were converted into orders for Japanese products, thus opening new markets. The repaired infrastructure was modern and efficient providing a boost for economic expansion in the 1960s. For these and other reasons candidates may mention, Japanese export production grew rapidly. Candidates should not be penalised if they do not go beyond the 1950s.

For the higher markbands, expect balanced, detailed analysis and assessment of a wide range of factors set in their historical context.

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

15. How and why did New Zealand’s foreign policy change after 1941?

New Zealand declared war on Germany in September 1939 and troops served in Greece, Crete, North Africa and Italy until after 1941, when war with Japan was threatened. The role of the United States in the Pacific War helped stimulate a change in New Zealand’s attitudes and saw a shift in their foreign policy. After the Second World War, New Zealand began to play a relatively independent role in world affairs although it remained close to Great Britain and the Commonwealth. External relations in the post-war period reflected that new situation, chiefly through the Australia, New Zealand, United States Security (ANZUS) Treaty of 1951, a defensive alliance between Australia, New Zealand, and the United States. The rise of Communism in East Asia presented another perceived threat and New Zealand joined the South East Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO) in 1954. Both ANZUS and SEATO involved New Zealand sending forces to Korea and, later, Vietnam. New Zealand played an active role in the United Nations and the British Commonwealth. It has contributed forces to several regional and global peacekeeping missions. New Zealand’s relations with the US and Britain changed in the 1970s as it pursued a nuclear-free policy. In addition, economically, New Zealand moved to closer links with Asia, especially following Britain joining the European Union (EU). Candidates need to both address how foreign policy changed after the onset of the Second World War and assess the reasons for this. The finishing date for the question is open-ended but it is expected that the best answers will cover thirty years or more. In the late 20th century New Zealand followed an increasingly isolationist policy and a strong anti-nuclear stance opposed to French and US policies in the region. Much of New Zealand’s foreign policy was focused on the Pacific region and bilateral economic assistance resources were focused on projects in the South Pacific Island states. 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.

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16. Compare and contrast the policies of the governments of Australia and New Zealand in dealing with aboriginals, the Maori and other minorities after 1945.

Both governments had issues with the minorities in their respective countries and attempted to legislate accordingly. Candidates attempting this question will probably be familiar with each country's handling of the minority issues but the focus needs to be on the post-war period, understanding that in New Zealand agreements had been made on a more formal basis in the previous century. Comparatively speaking, changes in attitude in both countries came only gradually. In Australia, during the 1940s and after the Second World War the policy of "assimilation" was adopted, whereby aboriginal people would submit to indoctrination in white ways before taking their place in the general Australian community. For much of their history, Australia's major parties did not perceive a need to have "aboriginal affairs" policies, but this altered in the 1960s and 1970s as the aboriginal interest came to occupy a more prominent position. For a time, "integration" became a policy of the governments and, as attitudes changed, state governments began to amend many of the laws that denied aboriginal people equality with whites.

In New Zealand after the Second World War there were significant demographic and cultural changes that impacted upon successive governments' policies. Prior to the war Maoris had largely been confined to rural areas from whence they derived their identity. European New Zealanders believed that they had the best race relations in the world due to the Treaty of Waitangi, which had been signed in 1840, and this may be offered as a contrast to the treatment and attitude of people in Australia to the minorities. In New Zealand, the Labour government passed the Maori Social and Economic Advancement Act in 1945, which allowed for the establishment of local tribal committees and indigenous welfare officers to work in urban areas. After the war there had been widespread Maori migration to the cities. This, along with the migration of Pacific Islanders to New Zealand, created ghettos of poverty and discrimination. Policies in Australia lagged behind those advocated in New Zealand. Relevant legislation may be state or federal and developments occurred at a different pace in different areas in Australia. The Australian Labor Party under Whitlam made the most positive pitch for these interests, and in 1975 they passed the Aboriginal Land Rights Act to restore land to indigenous people. In 1992 legislation was enacted to recognize native land claims, and in 1998 a National Sorry Day was introduced to acknowledge the wrongs done to the Stolen Generation. For the higher markband, both comparisons and contrasts must be clearly identified in the policies of the respective governments.

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

17. How and why has the region of Kashmir caused problems for Indo–Pakistani relations since independence?

The Kashmir dispute dates from 1947. Candidates will probably be familiar with the issue of Kashmir and the reason for it. Because of its location, Kashmir could choose to join either India or Pakistan. Reasons for tensions should be well known; Maharaja Hari Singh, the ruler of Kashmir, was Hindu but most of his subjects were Muslim. Unable to decide which nation his state should join, Hari Singh at first chose neutrality. However, conflict developed into war between the two countries in 1947–1948. Kashmir was formally incorporated into the Indian Union in 1957 but war broke out again in 1965. Problems continued between the two sides although both agreed to try to resolve the issue peacefully, as they had other, more urgent domestic issues of their own to deal with. In the 1990s further disputes occurred with both countries exchanging artillery fire and thousands of casualties resulting from the dispute. Candidates should clearly distinguish how and why the dispute continues to cause problems for the two countries. Two-thirds of Jammu and Kashmir is controlled by India and one-third is administered by Pakistan.

Candidates may well refer to other problems that came about as a consequence of partition and Kashmir. This should be made relevant in the context of the Kashmir dispute and the problems between India and Pakistan. The role of the United Nations and the Cold War may be referred to. Some candidates may suggest that Kashmir is a symptom not the cause of tensions between the two. For the higher mark bands there must be an attempt to reach a judgment on how and why Kashmir has caused problems.

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18. Why had Indo–China been the scene of almost continuous conflict since the Second World War up to 1993?

In the years following the Second World War, Indo–China soon became a battleground of conflicting interests, which continued until late into the century and involved many of the countries concerned in wars, political upheavals and economic and social dislocation and chaos. Initial conflict began in Indo–China when the French attempted to regain their control over the region. The Cold War, rising nationalism, strategic interests of the powers involved in the region and the nature of the opposition all help to explain why Indo–China experienced conflict into the latter years of the century. The defeat of the French at Dien Bien Phu and the Geneva Agreement in 1954 did not settle the issues in the region but paved the way for the entry of the United States and the Cold War, which prolonged the conflict for another twenty-five years or more. 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 American war in Indo–China officially ended with the defeat of South Vietnamese forces and the fall of Saigon in 1975. The war eventually spilled over into Laos and Cambodia, and threatened Thailand’s eastern borders. The Khmer Rouge controlled Cambodia from 1975 to 1979 and it was a period of great atrocities under the rule of Pol Pot. After the invasion by Vietnam in 1979 it became the Republic of Kampuchea. From 1979 to 1993 Vietnamese rule was challenged and there was civil war. In 1991 a Paris conference sought a solution and there was a United Nations backed ceasefire. Elections were held in May 1993 and a more peaceful era of modern Cambodia began. Laos was embroiled in the Cold War conflict in Indo–China. From 1964 the US supported the non-Communist forces, whereas North Vietnam backed the popular Pathet Lao. After the Communist victory in Vietnam in 1975, the Pathet Lao ruled Laos and signed a Friendship Treaty with Vietnam in 1977. The focus will undoubtedly be on the war in Vietnam, but for the higher markbands candidates need to show a clear awareness that the question refers to Indo–China and address a broader context.

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China: the regional superpower from mid twentieth century to 2000

19. Evaluate the successes and failures of Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) and the Communist Party in their social and economic policies between 1949 and 1961.

This question requires a thorough knowledge of domestic policies in China up to the conclusion of the Great Leap Forward. Candidates may outline the situation when Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) and the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) won the Civil War in 1949 and indicate the problems facing them in order to contextualize the problems faced and thus evaluate the successes and failures accordingly. Amongst the successes with regard to social policies candidates may discuss the development of a constitution; changes in the status of women; the introduction of education; health care reforms; and reconstruction. For the economic successes candidates may discuss land reform; the First Five Year Plan and the development of industry. Failures in social policies may include the harsh treatment of landlords; the excesses of the rectification; the 3 and 5 Antis campaigns; the “Hundred Flowers” campaign; the elimination of dissent; and the impact on the family of the communes. Candidates may identify the economic failures as the various campaigns during the Great Leap Forward and the consequent famine. Mao’s brief retirement from the leadership can be evaluated in the light of the social and economic policies undertaken. Most candidates will probably follow a chronological approach, arriving at an overall assessment at the end. Others may consider China’s condition in 1949 and compare it with the situation in 1961, perhaps taking a thematic approach for both social and economic policies. Despite the situation China found itself in, a balanced judgment should be arrived at assessing the successes and failures both economically and socially by the end of the decade.

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20. “The Cultural Revolution was truly a power struggle for control over the future of the Chinese revolution.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

The Cultural Revolution can be seen as a power struggle in which Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) attempted to assert his ideology over that of the more pragmatic figures who had dominated events since the failure of the Great Leap Forward. In that sense it was a struggle for control over the future of China. Mao was concerned that Liu Shaoqi (Liu Shao-ch’i) and others were departing from his revolutionary ideals. The Cultural Revolution began as Mao’s attempt to regain control of China’s media and the party apparatus, and to discredit those whom he believed were revisionists, leading China down the capitalist road. Mao was aging and hoped to indoctrinate the young in revolutionary ideals to discredit his rivals.

The Cultural Revolution was launched in May 1966 after Mao insisted that bourgeois elements in society must be removed through violent class struggle. China's youth responded enthusiastically to Mao's appeal by creating Red Guard groups around the country. The movement spread into the army, amongst workers, and even within the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) leadership itself. At the very top of the CCP, it led to a mass purge of senior officials who were accused of taking a "capitalist road", most notably Liu Shaoqi (Liu Shao-ch’i) and Deng Xiaoping (Teng Hsiao-p’ing). During the same time period Mao's personality cult grew considerably. By 1969 factions had developed which claimed to speak in the name of Mao, and the country had descended into disorder with the future of the Cultural Revolution in jeopardy.

Candidates will probably agree that the Cultural Revolution was Mao’s last great effort to impose his will. However the more perceptive should see that, by the end, Mao was being used by rival factions, such as the Gang of Four, who were seeking their own ends. It is therefore valid to argue that Mao had already lost control. Some analysis of the background to the Cultural Revolution and of its content and progress is to be expected. Candidates need to support their argument with reference to specific events and individuals, as well as provide some analysis of Mao’s possible motives. They may also raise the question as to whether events went further than even Mao envisaged. There is considerable scope for discussion, so reward well-argued essays that arrive at a conclusion based on the evidence that is relevant to the question.

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

21. Compare and contrast the economic development of Japan and Taiwan between 1949 and 1995.

Candidates should recognize that the date 1949 refers to the Communist victory in China, the flight of the Nationalist Government to Taiwan (Formosa) and the consequent change in American policy towards Japan during the occupation. Comparisons can include the observation that both Japan and Taiwan came under the American security umbrella and benefited from their relationship with the United States. Both economies grew partly due to the impact of the Cold War and the United States' perception of its vital interests being tied to the support of both countries. Relative political stability may be identified as a comparison between the two. Contrasts with Taiwan could also include the fact that Japan had already developed an industrial base for its economy prior to 1949, whereas Taiwan had been a Japanese colony prior to that. Contrasts may also include the national characteristics of each country and the structural features of each country's economy. Japan was the premier developed country in the region by 1960 and accounted for a significant percentage of the region's trade. By the middle of the next decade other countries in the region, including Taiwan, had begun to catch up. By 1995, both countries had undergone an "economic miracle" and candidates should be able to analyse the similarities and differences between the two countries. For higher markbands, expect a balanced comparative analysis of the two economies with an assessment of their relative success, and for the highest markband, expect a sophisticated running comparative analysis highlighting similarities and differences which draw on reasoned conclusions.

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22. Examine the reasons for Singapore's success as an independent state after 1965.

Singapore separated from Malaysia (created in 1963) in 1965 and, under the People's Action Party (PAP) led by Lee Kuan Yew, developed as an industrial, commercial, business and tourist centre. Its port facilities made it a major shipping centre and in this, Singapore built on a reputation already established. Reasons for its success could include its geographical position, the establishment of a strong government and a sense of Singaporean identity, which was enforced. The use of English as a working language helped in the development of trade and tourism. The PAP in power defeated rival parties and active opposition was silenced. Corruption was checked and active steps taken to attract tourists and to make Singapore known on the world stage. The armed forces were built up to deter possible aggression and agreements and alliances entered into, with Singapore joining SEATO and later the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and other regional bodies. Singapore's success is also due to the government's emphasis on economic modernization. The finishing date is open-ended, but Lee and the PAP dominated politics well into the later years of the century and it was during these years that the island republic made the transition to an export-oriented manufacturing centre and achieving their status as a prosperous independent Asian democracy.

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Social and economic developments 1945–2000

23. In what ways, and with what results, has religion caused conflict in any *one* country of the region in the second half of the twentieth century?

This section requires a case study of any one country of the region and the chosen country and religion(s) should be identified in the introduction to the examination answers. Students require a thorough knowledge of the country concerned, its society and, in this case, how religion has caused conflict and tensions. India and Pakistan may be popular choices, but notice the focus must be in the post-1947 context so the bulk of the answer needs to address that period. Indonesia may be another choice with the development of Muslim extremism. The Philippines and Thailand are also possibilities, but bear in mind the breadth of the question in the candidate's coverage. For higher markbands, expect knowledge of some specific detail and of the way in which religion has caused conflict in the country concerned. Any political references should be made within the context of religion and the impact on the country.

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24. Assess the impact of demographic changes in any *one* country of the region after 1950.

Candidates need to identify the country of their choice and the demographic changes in the context of the time period. Demographic changes have had a significant impact on countries in the region. The positive and negative impact of population growth on the economy of the country may be discussed. The pressures brought about by increased populations could include unemployment and the issue of welfare and education provision. Candidates may also discuss changing birth rates and the emergence of a more affluent independent class, which could reflect social changes in the country and upon the region. In addition, the trend towards an aging population and the impact this could have on the country chosen may be assessed. The effects of internal migration and urbanisation, such as accessibility to education and increased crime rates, may be addressed. Demographic changes can also relate to ethnicity and candidates may consider both the social and economic effects of changes brought by migration of people from different cultures, religions and ethnicities.

Reward balanced, detailed analysis supported by relevant information.

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