



MARKSCHEME

MAY 2011

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.

1. For what reasons, and in what ways, did the British establish colonies in *either* Australia or New Zealand from the late eighteenth century until the mid nineteenth century?

Candidates will discuss the reasons why the British established colonies in either Australia or New Zealand. These may include: strategic concerns and the desire to claim the land for the British Crown; the transportation of criminals; settlement schemes; and trade. They should then identify the ways in which colonization occurred. These may include: the form of government for each colony; land distribution; trade and commerce; official policies towards the indigenous people; relationships between the settlers and the indigenous people; the level of violence used to control the indigenous people; the activities of missionaries; immigration, particularly in the 1830s and 1840s; the lifestyles of the settlers; the attempt to replicate British society and institutions; and the granting of responsible government. Some flexibility should be permitted for dates within the 1850s. For Australia: there were six colonies established, each for a different reason; South Australia was the only one free of convict transportation; there were no formal treaties with the indigenous people; Victoria was separated from New South Wales in 1851; the Victorian and New South Wales' constitutions were ratified by the British government in 1855; the Tasmanian and South Australian constitutions in 1856 and Queensland's in 1859; Western Australia did not get responsible government until much later in the nineteenth century. 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; the British government ratified New Zealand's Constitution in 1852.

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

2. Analyse the nature and extent of opposition to colonial rule in *one* country in South or Southeast Asia from the late eighteenth century until the mid nineteenth century.

Candidates should choose a country from the colonies of the British, Dutch, French or Spanish in South and Southeast Asia. Candidates may initially describe the nature of the colonial rule in the chosen country and in the process they will identify what they consider to be the main features. These may include the type of rule, direct or indirect; the structure of the bureaucracy; land distribution; relationships between the colonial masters and the indigenous people; the way the colonial power handled rebellions and resistance; the level of violence used to control the indigenous people; the presence and activities of missionaries; the lifestyles of the colonial masters. Despite the widespread nature of colonial domination over South and Southeast Asia there were surprisingly few major revolts against foreign rule. Answers may focus on the military strengths and the technological advancement of the colonizers. Candidates may 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. There are a number of examples where there were revolts and resistance occurred. Against the British: Burma fought two wars by the mid nineteenth century, 1824–1826 and 1852. (There was a third later in 1885–1886.); and in India, the Great Revolt (Indian Mutiny) in 1857. There was resistance to the Dutch in Java in 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 and then the Ambaristo Revolt in 1807. The Spanish policies of repression helped both to cause as well as curb resistance in the Philippines.

Most candidates may choose to focus on the resistance to British rule in India in 1857. They may identify what they consider to be the causes of the Great Revolt (Indian Mutiny) – both short-term and long-term. The issue of cartridges with cow or pig fat initially sparked a military revolt which spread. The long-term causes were more complex: the way India was governed; the activities of the East India Company; the British interference with traditional Hindu practices such as *sati* and *thuggee*; the Doctrine of Lapse, which was the annexation of princely states without heirs; economic changes such as the opening of India to free trade and the subsequent impact on native industry and production; land reform; land taxation; the nature of the relationship between the British and the Indians; educational reforms; Christian missionary activity; the introduction of railways and the telegraph; the Punjab and Afghan campaigns. Religion should be discussed and the way both Islam and Hinduism were connected to the Mutiny should be addressed.

If only one aspect of the question is addressed, mark out of a maximum of [12 marks].

3. Compare and contrast the ways in which China and Japan were affected by contact with the Western powers between 1793 and 1868.

Candidates may initially describe the situations in both countries when the Westerners arrived and then thematically identify the results of this contact. There are various contrasts with regard to the ways in which contact with the Western powers affected China and Japan, but the outcome of unequal trade agreements is essentially similar. Pre-existing differences between the countries such as the greater Japanese interest in Western learning and the government structures may also be mentioned as reasons for the variety of ways in which each country was affected. For China candidates may include: Macartney (1793), Amherst (1816) and Napier (1834) trade missions and the Chinese reactions to Western attempts to secure concessions; the opium trade and its effects on China; the clash of cultures; First and Second Opium Wars; the forcing open of Chinese ports; conditions imposed on China by the unequal treaties with Britain and other Western powers 1842–1860; the impact of Western missionaries; Taiping (Taip’ing) Rebellion; beginning of the Self-Strengthening Movement. For Japan: isolation during the Tokugawa period; limited trade with the Dutch; some trade with the West by the *tozama* clans; arrival of Perry in 1853; effect of Perry’s ultimatum on the Bakufu; unequal treaties of Kanagawa (1854) and Edo (1858); the opening up of trade; the *Sonno Joi* movement, “Honour the Emperor and expel the barbarian”; the *tozama* clans’ challenge to the Shogun’s power; the Satsuma and Choshu wars; fall of the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1867; the emergence of the *genro* and the Meiji Restoration in 1868. Many responses will focus on contrasts, but some comparisons should also be identified for candidates to score higher marks.

If only China or Japan is addressed, mark out of a maximum of [7 marks].

4. Why did the Qing (Ch'ing) Dynasty government eventually succeed in suppressing the Taiping (Taip'ing) Rebellion in 1864?

Candidates may set the scene in China in the middle of the nineteenth century following China's defeat in the First Opium War. The reasons for the rapid growth of the Taiping (Taip'ing) Rebellion lay in the widespread discontent in China in the middle of the century. This includes: the economic and social problems of China; growing population pressure; the land problem; high taxation; price rises, the situation of the peasantry; the unpopularity of the Qing (Ch'ing) government; official corruption and incompetence; natural disasters, the effects of the First and Second Opium Wars; the unequal treaties and national humiliation. The leadership of Hong Xiuquan (Hung Hsiu-ch'uan) and his new ideas appealed to many people, particularly Hakka peasants and workers. These ideas included a version of Christianity; land redistribution and the abolition of private ownership; mutual sharing of resources; gender equality; banning of opium. The initial successes can also be attributed to the military weakness of the Qing (Ch'ing) government and the sympathy of some Westerners. Hong Xiuquan (Hung Hsiu-ch'uan) founded the Heavenly Kingdom of Great Peace with its capital at Nanjing and it ranged over sixteen provinces. This rebellion, from 1850 to 1864, was the most serious faced by the Qing (Ch'ing) dynasty and it cost the lives of about 30 million people and caused widespread destruction. The reasons why the Qing (Ch'ing) government eventually succeeded in suppressing the Taiping (Taip'ing) Rebellion include both the increasing problems facing the Taipings (Taip'ings) as well as a change in Qing (Ch'ing) and Western policies. The problems facing the Taipings (Taip'ings) include: the division and dissension that developed within the leadership; the death of some leaders; the hypocrisy in the lifestyles of the leaders; strategic blunders. Factors that strengthened the Qing include: the rise of Zeng Guofan (Tseng Kuo-fan) and Li Hongzhang (Li Hung-chang) and their provincial armies; the inability of the rebels to appeal to the mandarin class due to the ideological conflict between Confucianism and Christianity; the Taipings' (Taip'ings') poor diplomacy with the Western powers; the eventual decision by the Western powers to support the Qing (Ch'ing) rather than the rebels and the successes of the Ever Victorious Army.

5. Compare and contrast the emergence of nationalist movements and the struggle for independence in *two* countries in South and/or Southeast Asia from the mid nineteenth century until the early twentieth century.

Popular choices may be India, Burma, Indonesia, Vietnam, and the Philippines. The First World War may be seen as a watershed with the pre-war period of colonial rule where the nationalist movements developed and a distinction may be made between resistance movements of the nineteenth century, which were often aimed at foreign colonizers and the twentieth century goals to forge new nations. Candidates may refer to charismatic leaders: Gokhale, Tilak, Gandhi and Motilal Nehru (India); Aung San (Burma); Sukarno (Indonesia); Phan Boi Chau and Ho Chi Minh (Vietnam); or Rizal, Bonifacio and Aguinaldo (Philippines). Religion played a significant part, especially in the development of the Indian, Burmese and Indonesian nationalist movements. The starting point for the answer will depend on which nationalist movements are chosen but the 1920s or 1930s should probably be the end point. Many responses will focus on contrasts, but some comparisons should also be identified for candidates to score the higher marks.

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

6. Assess the role played by a sense of national identity in the achievement of independence in either Australia in 1901 or New Zealand in 1907.

Candidates may first identify what they consider to be the emerging sense of national identity in Australia or New Zealand by the end of the nineteenth century. In Australia: 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. The achievement of Federation in 1901 was influenced by these sentiments and interlinked with other factors: trade, internal and external; customs and tariffs; communications; trade unionism and itinerant workers; the fear of Asia; the desire for uniform immigration laws; and national defence. Some candidates may also comment on the opposition to Federation; identify the role of individuals such as Henry Parkes and others; and discuss the various conferences and conventions in the 1880s and 1890s.

In New Zealand a similar set of sentiments prevailed: involvement in the Boer War; the rugged and enterprising man alone against nature; egalitarianism; double patriotism; cultural nationalism. New Zealand made the decision not to ratify the Australian Constitution in 1901 and federate with the other British colonies. Independence in New Zealand came about as a result of her evolving constitutional status within the British Empire: gradually developing greater degrees of self-rule over the latter half of the nineteenth century, culminating in the granting of Dominion status in 1907.

7. To what extent was the 1911 “Double Ten” Nationalist Revolution due to the revolutionary activities of Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen)?

Candidates should identify what they consider to be Sun Yixian's (Sun Yat-sen's) role in bringing about the 1911 “Double Ten” Nationalist Revolution in China. This may include: his time in exile; his ideas, Sun's ideas were called the Three Principles of the People; the organizations he formed – the Revive China Society in 1894 and the *Tongmenghui* (T'ung-meng Hui) or Revolutionary Alliance in 1905 (other translations include United League or Combined League Society); various attempts at revolution which had his support, including Yellow Flower Hill in May 1911. Other factors which candidates may include: the weakness of the Qing government; the Boxer Protocol and its consequences; the Late Qing (Ch'ing) Reform Movement's military, educational and constitutional reforms and growing resentment; the Railway Recovery Movement; 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; the accidental nature of how the 1911 “Double Ten” Nationalist Revolution actually started and gained support; and the role of Yuan Shikai (Yuan Shih-k'ai). Candidates will need to come to a conclusion that assesses the extent to which Sun's activities contributed to the 1911 “Double Ten” Nationalist Revolution.

8. “The national goal of the Meiji era (1868–1890) was to become powerful enough to resist being dominated by the Western powers.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Candidates may note that in Japan during the Meiji era (1868–1890) sweeping changes transformed the political, technological, military and cultural fabric of the country. The end of the Tokugawa era (Bakumatsu) resulted in the restoration of the Imperial power in 1868. The aim of the rebellious samurai was to restore the pride and power of Japan after the arrival of Perry and the unequal treaties of Kanagawa in 1854 and Edo in 1858. The slogan “Western science and Eastern ethics” reflected the mood. The Tokugawa Shogun abdicated in favour of the 15-year-old Mutsuhito Emperor and the Regency. Candidates will need to analyse and assess the impact of the Meiji reforms and to distinguish between political, technological, military, educational and cultural changes. The Meiji Restoration saw the fast modernization and westernization of Japan, with many Japanese scholars and politicians sent abroad to study the Western political systems and technologies in Europe and North America. Westerners were invited to Japan to help develop new industries. The Japanese sought advice from the British with regard to establishing a navy and advice from the Prussians about creating a modern army. Better candidates will recognize that politically, many of the feudal principles were preserved and transferred from the old feudal leaders to the Emperor as the embodiment of the new state. 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. The leadership remained with a relatively small group of reformers around the Emperor. Candidates may 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. Discussion about the impact of the economic and industrial reforms and the role of the zaibatsu is needed. Some candidates may go beyond the time frame to cite the Japanese victories in the 1894–1895 Sino–Japanese War and the 1904–1905 Russo–Japanese War as evidence of Japanese success in her military and technological transformation. Candidates should do more than simply describe the reforms of the Meiji era and there should be some assessment of the extent to which the changes enabled Japan to resist being dominated by the Western powers.

Credit sound argument based on the historical evidence.

9. Assess the contribution of Jawaharlal Nehru to the achievement of Indian independence in 1947.

Candidates will discuss what they consider to be Nehru's contribution to the achievement of Indian independence. This may include: his return to India in 1912 after being educated in Britain; 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 assessed 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 role of Nehru's 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; Nehru's relationship with Jinnah; the demands for the creation of a separate Muslim state; the change of government in Britain after the Second World War.

10. "The Japanese expansion into Southeast Asia during the Second World War broke the hold of the European colonial powers and at the same time permitted the emergence of nationalist governments." To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Candidates will probably discuss some of the following: Indonesia, Vietnam, Burma, Malaya or the Philippines. Most answers will use case studies and more than one country should be discussed, but all are not necessary. Reward detailed analyses rather than vague generalizations about all countries. Some candidates will focus on comparisons, but contrasts may also be identified. 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 nationalist movements did not all follow exactly the same path there are some common themes. There may be some discussion of the pre-war situation in order to later assess the impact of the Japanese occupation on each country. The Japanese expansion into each country and the nature of the occupation will need to be examined. This may include: Japanese atrocities; resistance to Japanese rule; the way the Japanese restructured the government (Burma, Philippines); the way the Japanese used the colonial administration of the European country occupied by the Nazis (Indonesia, Vietnam); 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 (Indonesia, Vietnam); the subsequent struggle with the colonial power until the final achievement of independence; the development of internal factional fighting and the need for the colonial power to unite the country again (Malaya). Candidates may also discuss the roles of charismatic nationalist leaders: Sukarno (Indonesia); Ho Chi Minh (Vietnam); Aung San (Burma); Datuk Onn and Tunku Abdul Rahman (Malaya); Quezon and Osmeña (Philippines).

Some assessment of the extent to which the Japanese occupation influenced the nationalist movements needs to be addressed.

11. In what ways, and with what consequences, did Yuan Shikai (Yuan Shih-k'ai) betray the 1912 Chinese Republic?

This question covers the early period of the Chinese Republic following its establishment in 1912 after the 1911 “Double Ten” Nationalist Revolution and also the legacy left by Yuan Shikai (Yuan Shih-k'ai) after his death in 1916. Politically, the Nationalist Revolution and the new Chinese Republic were hijacked by Yuan Shikai (Yuan Shih-k'ai). Candidates may examine the career of Yuan Shikai (Yuan Shih-k'ai): his betrayal of Guangxu (Kuang-hsu) in the Hundred Days Reform; his allegiances during the Boxer Rebellion; why he supported the 1911 Nationalist Revolution; the reasons why Sun Yixian (Sun Yat-sen) gave the presidency of the Chinese Republic to him in 1912. Yuan's actions showed that he had no loyalty to either the Qing (Ch'ing) or the new Republic. Problems that beset his government include: the creation of the Guomindang (Kuomintang) which won a landslide election in 1913; when Yuan borrowed money from foreign sources the National Assembly attempted to impeach him; he crushed the opposition violently; and party politics failed. In November 1913 Yuan outlawed the Guomindang (Kuomintang) and Sun had to flee the country. In 1914 he dissolved the National Assembly and provincial assemblies and created a Council of State and he became a dictator. Yuan tried to make himself Emperor in 1915, but was thwarted by his own army officers and unrest in various provinces. By the time he died in 1916 the power of the central government had been seriously weakened. His example undoubtedly encouraged other military commanders to use their armies to establish control over whatever regions they could and between 1917 and 1927 warlordism spread throughout China. Other factors that may also be mentioned include: the way Yuan's government gave in to Japan's 21 Demands in 1915; after his death the humiliation for China of the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 and the political and social unrest that followed.

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

12. “The Long March (1934–1935) was a retreat that changed the destiny of China.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Many candidates may agree with this statement and discuss the idea that the Long March (1934–1935) was a seminal time for the Chinese Communist Party (CCP). Candidates should give detailed evidence to support this argument. Some candidates may set the scene with the breakdown of the First United Front between the CCP and the Guomindang (Kuomintang) in 1927 and the CCP’s retreat to the Jiangxi (Kiangsi) Soviet. This was followed by Jiang Jieshi’s (Chiang Kai-shek’s) 1930–1934 bandit extermination campaign against the CCP which led to the Long March. Figures vary, but approximately 90 000 to 100 000 members of the Red Army set out from the Jiangxi (Kiangsi) Soviet in 1934 and only ten percent reached the communist base in Yan’an (Yenan) a year later. During this time Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) became the leader at Zunyi (Tsunyi). The Long March eventually became a legend which was used by the CCP and Mao for propaganda purposes both before and after the CCP victory in 1949. Some candidates may focus on Mao’s adaptation of Marxism to suit the Chinese situation and his belief in the revolutionary power of the peasants. This ideology with its promise of land reform and equality appealed to the peasants in the face of Guomindang (Kuomintang) brutality and indifference to their plight during both the 1937–1945 Sino–Japanese War and the 1946–1949 Civil War between the CCP and the GMD. For the legacy of the Long March some points that may be raised include: Mao’s rules for the Red Army; the consolidation of the position of Mao and his supporters; Jiang Jieshi’s initial reluctance to fight the Japanese whereas the Long March could be interpreted as a strategic move by the CCP in the face of the Japanese threat; the Communists were seen to be more nationalist than the Nationalists and hence the CCP victory in 1949. After the Red Army reached Yan’an, the Western journalist Edgar Snow was one of the first foreign journalists to travel there and interview survivors of the Long March. He was after a good story. He was impressed by what he saw, although much of what he was shown and what he subsequently published in his 1937 book *Red Star over China* was vetted by Mao and Zhou Enlai. Snow’s descriptions of the Long March and life in Yan’an were idealistic and romantic and they also created a myth in the West which influenced a whole generation of China watchers and historians, particularly amongst those who were left-wing. In recent times, however, there have been a number of books published that question this popular interpretation of the Long March.

Reward analysis of the legacy rather than just descriptions of the Long March.

13. To what extent was Japan a threat to Western interests in the region by 1922?

Candidates may identify that in 1894 the major powers in the region were Britain, France, the United States and Russia. Initially, China was expected to win the war with Japan which began in 1894, but Japanese modernization 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 in 1895 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 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. Britain saw Japan 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 the Western powers' calculations. The Treaty of Portsmouth in 1905 recognized Japanese interests in Korea and China. Britain, France and the United States were greater powers on the world stage, but none had military or naval bases of any importance in Northeast Asia. The balance of power in Northeast Asia had shifted to Japan, which continued to develop its military and imperialist ambitions. Japan entered the First World War as an ally of Britain in August 1914. It was a chance for revenge against Germany for her role in the 1895 Triple Intervention and to take the German naval base at Jiaozhou (Kiaochow), which was a threat to her. Other factors included Japan's growing population pressure and the chance to gain territories from the defeated German Empire and also to extend further control over parts of Asia. Japan saw opportunities in China and presented the 21 Demands in 1915. Although the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 was a disappointment for Japan because of the failure of the racial equality clause, she did gain Shandong (Shantung) and Germany's North Pacific possessions. In the aftermath, the Western powers were concerned about the undue influence Japan had over China and felt that Japan threatened their interests in the region. The Washington Conference in 1922 attempted to address some of these issues.

14. Assess the effectiveness of the policies implemented by the United States during the Occupation of Japan between 1945 and 1952.

Candidates may initially identify what they consider to be the post-war problems that faced the US occupation such as: food shortages; inflation; the need to demilitarize; Japanese attitudes and fears; war criminals. The original aim was to punish Japan for its aggression and reduce it to a weak and non-threatening state. This included punishing war crimes and reducing the power of the governing elites, introducing democracy and breaking up the industrial, commercial and financial institutions which had supported the Second World War effort. A shift in policy began with an awareness that Japan needed to be able to support itself. This shift was also influenced by the impact of the beginning of the Cold War on American thinking, the victory of the Communists in China and the outbreak of the Korean War, in which the United States had become most actively involved. The reforms under the occupation should be identified. These may include: demilitarization; the change in the role of the Emperor; the constitution of 1947; land reform; the dismantling of the power of the zaibatsu and the trade unions; and widening the availability of education. A strong, stable, productive Japan became a necessary base for operations in Korea and Japanese industry was revived. Although it denied the right to build up its own armed forces, Japan became an important ally of the United States. The period ends with the ratification by the United States in March 1952 of its security treaty with Japan.

15. Identify and explain the changes in the foreign policy of *either* Australia *or* New Zealand that led to the development of closer relations with other countries of the region between 1945 and 2000.

Both Australia and New Zealand followed similar foreign policies with some difference in emphasis. Responses to this question may initially acknowledge the changed status of Britain in the region as a whole after the Second World War. In the case of Australia and New Zealand candidates may note that the Second World War caused these countries to realise 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 Australia and 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 both countries sent forces to fight communist insurgents in Malaya, Korea, Borneo and Vietnam. 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 Australia and New Zealand to turn to East and South East Asia as economic partners, particularly to China. Australia and New Zealand played a significant role in the Colombo Plan, which provided developing nations in the region with aid and expertise. Despite these economic shifts, membership of the British Commonwealth remained significant to Australia and New Zealand. Australia gave support to the United Nations and its activities in the region, including, in 1999, leading an international peacekeeping force to East Timor when Indonesia withdrew. Another focus for Australia was relations between the developed and developing nations in the region. Australia and New Zealand were 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. Also, Australia had a large bilateral aid programme to the countries in the region. New Zealand's foreign policy did not vary greatly and there was a degree of consensus amongst the major political parties. 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. 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.

16. To what extent have the European, Asian and American influences on the culture of *either* Australia or New Zealand been more superficial than real since 1945?

Candidates may first describe the culture of Australia or New Zealand in 1945. Both were conservative societies which were strongly influenced by a British political, legal, economic and cultural heritage. The majority of the population was of British ancestry. New Zealand, however, had a more overt presence of the indigenous Maori culture. Both countries had restricted immigration policies, although there had been some immigration from other European countries prior to 1945. For Australia the issues that may be discussed include: Calwell as Minister for Immigration in 1945 said that Australia must “populate or perish”; Calwell wanted ten British for every non-English speaking immigrant, but this was unattainable so immigrants from continental Europe were encouraged; 1945–1951, displaced persons including Jewish immigrants; 1950s and 1960s, southern European immigration; mid 1960s, some relaxation of the White Australia Policy for skilled workers; 1972, the White Australia Policy was formally ended; 1970s, boat people from Indo-China and other Asian immigration; 1980s, people from the Middle East. Initially, immigrants were given little government help and were expected to assimilate into the predominantly British-influenced culture and many experienced prejudice. The 1972–1975 Whitlam government adopted the policy of multiculturalism. European and Asian immigration contributed to creating Australia’s post-war prosperity because it allowed the economy to expand rapidly. Social and cultural change to the Australian way of life 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. Access to international television, cinema, and the globalized economy led to a strong American influence on the popular culture, particularly amongst the young. On the surface, Australia became a much more open and tolerant society. Despite this, elements of traditional conservative Australian society still remained: the considerable influence of the Returned Servicemen’s League (RSL); the formation of Pauline Hanson’s One Nation Party in 1997; and the basic British heritage of institutions such as the legal system; education; and government administration. In New Zealand a similar pattern occurred, though restricted immigration was not changed until the 1980s. The New Zealand way of life was also shaped by the end of the twentieth century by the demands of Maori urbanization and the immigration of Pacific Islanders.

Award credit for reasoned discussion based upon historical evidence.

17. Analyse the reasons why authoritarian rule rather than democracy became the main type of government in Pakistan between 1947 and 1979.

Pakistan gained independence from the British in August 1947 and inherited the British parliamentary system. There was a considerable amount of violence surrounding partition from India and independence. The charismatic leader, Jinnah, who was Pakistan's first president, died shortly afterwards. In 1953, with the advent of religious political parties there were riots and martial law was imposed. This was the beginning of military intervention in the political and civilian affairs of the country. The Dominion was dissolved in 1956 and Pakistan was declared an Islamic Republic in 1956. Two years later the military took control and Ayub Khan became the President. The geographical structure of West Pakistan and East Pakistan increased the problems in government and party politics. Bengali nationalism grew in popularity and an independence movement in East Pakistan gained momentum. This led to an uprising in 1969 and Ayub Khan was replaced by General Yahya Khan, who intended to hold general elections in 1970. Yahya Khan and Zulfikar Bhutto, the founder and leader of the Pakistan People's Party (PPP), did not accept the outcome of the democratic elections in 1971. This led to the crisis that caused the Bangladesh Liberation War and the secession of East Pakistan to create the new country of Bangladesh in 1971. Bhutto then became President and civilian rule was restored. He was in power between 1971 and 1977 and in 1973 there was a new constitution, Pakistan's third one. Bhutto had a reformist agenda and he introduced many industrial and agricultural reforms. He was also concerned with national security: he supported Pakistan's nuclear development and held peace talks with India. Bhutto was criticized for the human rights abuses he allowed and for his underhand political tactics. Democratic elections were held in 1977 and the PPP won, but this was challenged by the opposition and Bhutto was accused of rigging the vote. The military, led by General Zia, staged a coup and relieved Bhutto of power. Zia introduced martial law. His government reversed the socialist policies of the previous government and introduced Islamic law in 1978. Bhutto was executed in 1979.

18. Analyse the causes and consequences of political conflict in *one* country in Southeast Asia since the Second World War.

Candidates will probably choose from Burma, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Brunei, Singapore or the Philippines. Popular choices may be Malaysia and Vietnam.

In Malaya (1948–1957) there was the Communist insurgency and, although it was defeated, the rebellion had important consequences: economic, social and cultural as well as political and military. Malaysia was publicly proposed, in May 1961, to bring together Malaya, Singapore and the British Borneo territories of Sarawak, Sabah (British North Borneo) and the British protectorate of Brunei. Malaya was already independent, the others were to become “independent within Malaysia” in the belief that they were too small to survive as viable states alone. Singapore’s Lee Kuan Yew was in favour. A merger with non-communist Malaya would defeat the Communists while enabling the British to retire from their colonial role. Singapore was Malaya’s main port, thus economically the merger made sense. The Borneo states were included partly to maintain a non-Chinese majority in the new state and to enable it to call on Brunei’s wealth from oil to aid development in Sarawak and Sabah. Opposition within the Borneo territories was supported by President Sukarno of Indonesia. The Philippines raised territorial claims to Sabah. Communists in Sarawak were supported by Indonesia in a campaign called *Confrontasi* (Confrontation). Many countries called Malaysia a form of neo-colonialism, seeing it as a ruse by which Britain, through Malaysia, retained control of its ex-colonies. A revolt in Brunei in December 1962 was crushed by British troops. Malaysia was formed without Brunei. British, Australian, New Zealand and Malaysian forces were engaged in conflict against Indonesian and Communist infiltrators until Confrontation ended in 1965 after the fall of President Sukarno. Singapore left the federation in 1965.

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 (1961–1975 Second Indo–China War) 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 recognise the Democratic Republic of Vietnam; 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 and later the domino theory; 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 from 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 1964 Gulf of Tonkin Resolution legitimized the introduction of US troops and in 1965 US forces and their allies arrived in South Vietnam. The USSR and China provided aid to North Vietnam and the Viet Cong. The widespread use of propaganda in North Vietnam depicted the war as both a nationalist and an ideological struggle. The eventual withdrawal of the US and the unification of Vietnam under a communist government in 1975 may be a finishing point.

Some candidates may also consider the Hukbalahap Rebellion in the Philippines (1946–1954).

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

19. “Mao Zedong’s (Mao Tse-tung’s) foreign policy aimed to ensure the security and unity of China.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

This is a broad question and candidates need not cover all of the points below in their responses. With the advent of the People’s Republic of China (PRC) in 1949, Mao Zedong’s (Mao Tse-tung’s) main foreign policy objective was the restoration of China’s integrity and its complete liberation from foreign intervention and control. Mao sought to secure China’s borders and create her into a major world power and a dominant influence in Asia. This included China’s claim to be the legitimate government of Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan. China took over Tibet in 1950 and this has remained an international issue ever since. Initially, Mao’s foreign policy focused on solidarity with the Soviet Union, the Eastern bloc countries and North Vietnam. In 1950 Mao signed a Treaty of Friendship with the Soviet Union and he described this as “everlasting and unbreakable” and Soviet advisers were welcome in China. This unity did not last and tensions soon began to develop. These tensions included: the circumstances surrounding the outbreak of the Korean War in 1950; Khrushchev’s denunciation of Stalin in 1956; Mao’s implementation of the Great Leap Forward in 1958; the subsequent recall of Soviet experts in 1960. The Sino–Soviet split in 1960 and the fear of the USSR’s nuclear power led to China developing its own nuclear weapons by 1964. In 1969 there were Sino–Soviet border skirmishes. During the 1950s, Mao sought to balance China’s identification with the Soviet bloc by establishing friendly relations with Pakistan and other Third World countries, and China played an important role in the Non-Aligned Movement’s 1955 Bandung Conference, which censured both the West and the Soviet Union for their imperialist policies. After the Sino–Soviet split, China competed with the Soviet Union for political influence over other communist countries. Border disputes between India and China and issues relating to Tibet led to the 1962 Sino–Indian War. By the late 1960s Mao became increasingly concerned about China’s strategic position and he developed formal diplomatic relations with West European nations. Foreign relations between China and the US remained strained until the 1971 “ping-pong” diplomacy.

Candidates may stress the ideological differences between these two superpowers and discuss the United States’ support of Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek) during the civil war and its continued support of his government in Taiwan as the legitimate government of China until 1972. Both countries participated in the Korean War on opposite sides. Mao supported the Viet Minh, but did not send troops during the Vietnam War. In 1972 Nixon was welcomed by Mao and afterwards diplomatic relations and trade connections were established. The PRC was recognized internationally as the legitimate government of China and accepted into the United Nations.

Award credit for reasoned and balanced discussion based on evidence and knowledge. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion about the extent to which they agree with the statement in the question.

20. Evaluate the economic developments in China under the leadership of Deng Xiaoping (Teng Hsiao-p'ing) between 1976 and 1997.

Candidates may initially discuss Deng Xiaoping's (Teng Hsiao-p'ing's) economic ideas that had caused him to be denounced and exiled during the Cultural Revolution. Further comment may be made about the brief power struggle after Mao Zedong's death, which resulted in the emergence of Deng (Teng) as leader in 1978. Without ever openly criticising Mao, he set about changing Mao's policies and abandoned Maoism. Deng had a pragmatic approach towards the planning of the Chinese economy and gave more autonomy to managers and experts. The aims of his economic reforms were: to stimulate China's domestic economy; open Chinese trade to the outside world; allow the development of individual enterprises; and encourage joint ventures with both Chinese and foreign investment. Special Economic Zones (SEZs) were set up and proved to be most successful, with international trade flourishing and jobs in these areas were highly sought after because wages and conditions were better than elsewhere. His policy of the Four Modernizations was designed to improve agriculture, industry, science and technology and national defence. He aimed to create a modern Chinese state by 2000. Overall, the standard of living for the majority of Chinese people did improve. Some of the problems that arose however included: the peasants' uncertainty about property rights and their continued use of inefficient methods; resistance to reform that slowed down the process; the workers who no longer had guaranteed employment and initially limited social security. Deng introduced economic reform, but he did not allow political reform. He believed in the authority of the Chinese Communist Party as the only legitimate power.

This is a question about the economic developments under Deng's leadership so extensive discussion about the political issues and the 1989 Tiananmen Square massacre should not be the main focus of the answer.

21. In what ways, and for what reasons, did Korea become the focus of international tensions between 1950 and 1953?

Candidates should mention the beginning of the Cold War and the development of the United States' containment policy embodied in the Truman Doctrine of 1947. Initially focused on Europe, it became apparent that the Communist threat was also in Asia, and in particular Korea, Vietnam and China. Following the Yalta agreements, Korea had been temporarily divided along the 38th parallel but the emerging Cold War saw the declaration of two Korean states in 1948, Communist north and a non-Communist south, both of which sought unification on their terms. Communists came to power in China in 1949 and the United States was still formulating its policy towards the People's Republic of China and the defeated Nationalists in Taiwan. In Vietnam the United States had supported the return of the French who were engaged in a war against the Viet Minh. The North Korean invasion of the South in June 1950 changed the focus. A vote in the United Nations Security Council authorized UN intervention, and US forces, joined by those of other non-Communist powers, entered the conflict, stemming the tide and pursuing the North Koreans towards the Yalu River border with China. Chinese "volunteers" drove the UN forces back to the 38th parallel where the war stalemated until a ceasefire in 1953. The effects were profound. For the Korean people it was a total war. Casualties were in the millions and the country was devastated and occupied. The North became a bastion of Communism under Kim Il Sung and allied with the Chinese and the Soviets to remain a repressive regime. The Republic of Korea became an American ally and began a process of democratic reform and economic development. But the Cold War remained in place in Korea and an armed truce was the best term that could be used to describe the peninsula. For the region, Chinese success in the war raised their international prestige among non-aligned countries and indicated to the world that China was a significant power. US policy towards Japan changed and it became a base for the US effort in Korea.

Candidates should attempt to address both parts of the question. Award some credit if the Korean War itself is the entire focus of the answer, although candidates need to put the war into the international context of the Cold War tensions.

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

22. Analyse the factors that contributed to successful economic growth in *one* country of the region, except China, since 1945.

Candidates may choose any country in the region except China and popular choices will probably be Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Singapore and India, with Vietnam, Thailand and Malaysia as possible choices, too. Some candidates may even choose a Pacific Island country and possibly Australia or New Zealand. Candidates should identify the factors that contributed to economic growth in the chosen country. There should be some attempt to define what is meant by the term “successful”. Capitalist systems 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 considerable variation amongst these countries over the nature and degree of state intervention. 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 its economic advance. South Korea, too, has exercised heavy control of its economy. Other factors apart from the state that should be indicated include: outside forces such as a steady expansion of world trade; globalization; 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 growth: 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.

Award credit for reasoned discussion based upon historical evidence.

23. Evaluate the importance of changes in education to the social and economic development of *one* country of the region between 1945 and 2000.

Candidates may choose any country from the region. Responses need to show a clear understanding of what is meant by the term “changes in education”. This could mean the adoption of a Western-style education system in some developing countries or it could mean the expansion of secondary and tertiary education in the more developed ones. Candidates need to demonstrate the links between changes in education and the social and economic development that has taken place in the chosen country since the Second World War. Changes in education levels in a society can mean that there is considerable upheaval in the employment markets and in family structures. These may be both positive and negative. Candidates may refer to a range of social developments that have come about as a result of changes in education: the position of women; social mobility; decrease in the birth rate; migration from the countryside to cities; effects upon rural and regional areas; community and political organizations; crime rates; and the rise of a middle class. Economic developments may vary: employment opportunities may be greater; there may be improvements in industry that stimulate the economy; technological growth may occur and this may bring new wealth to the country; the rise in living standards for many in the population; rural areas may have become depressed.

Look for clarity of thought – the statement of opinion based upon factual knowledge and specific reference. Weaker candidates will make sweeping generalizations with little factual reference. Better candidates should reveal knowledge, backed with evidence, of what the changes in education entailed and its impact, for good or bad, upon the people of the country chosen.

24. To what extent did sport become closely linked to national identity in *one* country of the region in the second half of the twentieth century?

Candidates may tackle this question in a thematic way with examples from a range of sports. Others may choose to use specific case studies. The issue of national identity will need to be addressed specifically. Reward initiative and reasoned discussion based on historical evidence. 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. National sports have been developed in modern ways and are used as symbols of national identity. International sports, largely developed in the West, have become globalized and therefore a country's participation is a measure of both international recognition and national identity. The ability to host international sporting events is a sign of international acceptance and a source of prestige. Sports champions are national heroes and sports stadiums are national monuments. Other points that may be discussed include: the change from amateur to professional sport; the corporate nature of sporting clubs in the late twentieth century; the development of national leagues; big spectator events; sport tourism; international sporting events; politics and sport; national institutes of sport for training purposes; drugs in sport; the role of the media in sport. Some of the specific details that may be discussed include: the Olympic Movement and the Cold War; changes to international cricket in the 1970s with the advent of one day matches; soccer and the Cold War; baseball in Japan; the Asian Games; New Zealand and rugby; Australian Rules football.
