

Markscheme

May 2015

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.**

18–20:	Answers are clearly focused, with a high degree of 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.
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.
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 is 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.
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.
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. There is 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.
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.
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.
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.
0:	Answers not meeting the requirements of descriptors should be awarded no marks.

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 18th to the mid 19th century

1. Compare and contrast the nature of the Spanish colonial system in the Philippines and the Dutch colonial system in Indonesia from the late 18th to the mid 19th century.

Comparison and contrast of the nature of the colonial systems may include: the political structures; the types of rule, direct or indirect; the structures of the bureaucracies; the economies, including land distribution and the effect on local agriculture; commercial developments; the lifestyles of the colonial masters; the activities of missionaries; further immigration, particularly in the mid 19th century; and the attempts to replicate the society and institutions of the mother countries. The implementation of official policies towards the indigenous people may also be compared and contrasted as well as the way the Spanish and Dutch handled rebellions and resistance from both indigenous and/or settlers; and the level of violence used to control the colonized people.

Philippines: The Spanish established themselves in the Philippines during the 16th century. The main aims were trade and the spread of Christianity. The Jesuit missionaries established schools and colleges and also introduced the indigenous people to Spanish culture and to more modern methods of agriculture. The nature of the Spanish colonial system was that church and state were closely linked in the administration of policies. Spanish rule adopted an indirect approach and this created an indigenous upper class that benefitted greatly. The communal system of land ownership was replaced by private ownership. During the 18th century the Spanish fought wars against the Dutch and the British to maintain their control of the Philippines. There was a steady resistance on a small scale ever since the arrival of the Spanish: the Palaris Revolt of 1762 to 1765 was the largest revolt and there was also the Ambaristo Revolt in 1807. Spanish policies of repression both helped cause as well as curb resistance in the Philippines. During the early 19th century the Spanish adopted a more direct administration of government and improved infrastructure. In 1863 a free public school system was established. This contributed to the growth of an educated class in the Philippines which would later demand more rights and independence.

Indonesia: The Dutch East India Company or *Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie* (VOC) traded in the East Indies from the early 17th century and was in competition with the British East India Company for the spice trade. Due to bankruptcy, the VOC was dissolved in 1800 and, after a power struggle with the British, the Dutch government took over all of the VOC's East Indies possessions in 1816. Their colonial presence in the area was consolidated by the 1824 Anglo–Dutch Treaty and later expansion into Sumatra, Kalimantan and Bali. There was resistance to Dutch rule, the most notable rebellion was the Java or Diponegoro War of 1825 to 1830 that claimed many lives on both sides before it was successfully suppressed. The nature of the Dutch colonial system was firmly based on policies designed to increase trade and profits. The Culture System was introduced into Java in 1830 by the new Governor-General, Johannes van den Bosch (1830–1833) 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 increased, and the amount of land allocated to cash crops expanded. Local authorities and officials received a percentage of all crops produced in their area and so pressured the peasants to plant cash crops. In 1843, rice became an export crop. The result was famine in various areas in the years 1843 to 1849, culminating in a major famine in central Java in 1849 to 1859 in which 350 000 died.

Opposition to the Culture System grew in the Netherlands on humanitarian grounds and economic grounds. 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.

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2. “The rule of the British East India Company in India prior to 1857 was based on an assumption of British superiority.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Prior to 1857 rule of the British East India Company was under the auspices of the Crown rather than a colonial settlement. The nature of the administration was essentially paternalistic. British policies could be considered as being aimed at extending and consolidating British trade. They also included an attempt to reform aspects of Indian society and impose British religious and cultural values. The Company had consolidated its presence in India during the late 18th century with the victories at the Battle of Plassey in 1757 and the Battle of Buxar in 1764, after which further wars and annexations of territory took place until it had control of a large part of the sub-continent. Candidates may refer to differing policies of various Governor-Generals: Wellesley created subsidiary alliances with the princes; Bentinck’s “reforms” included the abolition of *sati* and *thuggee*, marriage reform and the extension of education; Dalhousie introduced the Doctrine of Lapse, which annexed the princely states without heirs. The economic changes such as the opening of India to free trade had a negative impact on native industry and production; land reform and land taxation also caused difficulties for Indian peasants. Infrastructure was developed with the building of railways, canals and post and telegraph. Candidates **may** challenge the assumption in the question somewhat by discussing the “Orientalist school” of thought amongst some administrators who believed that the understanding of Indian culture and language was vital to successful rule. Also prior to 1857 it was acceptable for British officers and soldiers to have Indian wives and an Anglo-Indian community developed. There was much more social interaction between British East India Company administrators and Indians before the Great Revolt (Indian Mutiny) in 1857.

Note: this is not just a question on the causes of the Indian Mutiny (Great Revolt), although candidates may decide that some aspects of the “British assumption of superiority” contributed to its outbreak. Candidates do need to come to grips with the quotation and decide the extent to which British rule was based on an assumption of superiority.

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Traditional East Asian societies — late 18th to the mid 19th century

3. “The Western powers’ responses to the Chinese tribute system created a clash of cultures that resulted in disaster for the Chinese.” With reference to the period 1793 to 1844, to what extent do you agree with this statement?

Candidates may first describe the Chinese tribute system and then discuss the Western powers’ responses such as the demands for free trade, diplomatic representation and the rights of their citizens. They may identify why this created a clash of cultures between China and the Western powers and suggest that there was a complete lack of understanding between the two. This may include: the Chinese view of the world, in which they saw themselves as the Middle Kingdom, versus the Western Eurocentric view; the authority of the emperor and the mandarins in contrast to limited democracy in the main Western nations; Confucianism and Buddhism as opposed to Christianity; Chinese tribute system of international relations in contrast to the Western desire to establish diplomatic relations; Guangzhou (Canton) system of trade versus the Western view of free trade; the Chinese legal system that emphasized collective responsibility versus the Western view of individual innocence or guilt; and the differences in science and technology. Candidates should address these issues in the context of the timeframe given and may discuss specific details: the actions of the emperors Qianlong (Ch’ien-lung), Jiaqing (Chia-ch’ing) and Daoguang (Tao-kuang); the trade missions, Macartney (1793), Amherst (1816) and Napier (1834); the opium trade and its effects on China; Lin Zexu’s (Lin Tse-hsu’s) attempt to stop the opium trade and the Western reaction; the actions of Captain Charles Elliot; the Lin Weixi (Lin Wei-hsi) affair and the beginning of the First Opium War in 1839. Candidates may then discuss the Treaty of Nanjing (Nanking) in 1842 and list the conditions: indemnity payments; abolition of the Guangzhou (Canton) system of trade; five treaty ports opened to the trade and residence of British officials and traders; Hong Kong was ceded to Britain; equality in status between British and Chinese officials recognized; and a fixed tariff was established. This was followed by the supplementary Treaty of the Bogue in 1843 which added most favoured nation status for Britain; extra-territoriality; and allowed the presence of British warships in the treaty ports. In 1844, the Treaty of Wangxia (Wanghsia) with the US also granted extra-territoriality and the right to maintain churches and hospitals in the treaty ports. The Treaty of Huangpu (Whampoa) with France was also in 1844 and this added the right to freely spread Catholicism. Discussion of the ways in which this proved to be disastrous for China may include the psychological effects of the defeat in the First Opium War by the dynamic, progressive and industrial West that challenged the stagnant nature of Chinese society and forced change. This led to humiliation and contributed to the decay of the Qing dynasty. Other disastrous effects may include: the economic and social impact of the continuation of the opium trade; and the activities of missionaries that contributed to the subsequent destabilization of the social order.

Note: this is not just a “causes of the First Opium War” question and candidates will need to address the issues raised in the quotation and decide to what extent the clash between the West and China was a disaster for the Chinese.

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4. To what extent was the crisis of the Bakumatsu period (1853–1868) caused by Commodore Perry's arrival and demands?

Initially, candidates may discuss the nature of the Tokugawa Shogunate and the situation in Japan prior to Commodore Perry's arrival with a naval squadron in 1853. The crisis that this caused and the abandonment of the traditional exclusion policy may be placed in the context of earlier pressures upon the Tokugawa because of changing social and economic conditions within Japanese society and because of growing awareness that contact with the West could not be avoided. The Tokugawa Bakufu had contact with Europe only through the Dutch trading factory at Deshima in Nagasaki harbour. This contact had prompted the rise of the *rangaku* school of Dutch Learning and awareness that scientific and military developments in the West posed a challenge to Japan. By the 19th century, increasing pressure came from Western powers, particularly Russia and the US, seeking to establish relations in order to protect their seamen if shipwrecked, and also to develop trade. In addition, there was a growing awareness amongst the Japanese of European activities in China. At the same time, social and economic changes had weakened the traditional feudal structures that supported the Shogunate, and the *kokugaku* national school of learning called for a restoration of the emperor. Candidates may then identify what they consider to be the reasons why Perry's arrival caused a crisis for the Bakufu: the technological might of the US fleet; the indecision of the Shogun in the face of Perry's demands; the consultations with the Emperor and the daimyo, which were seen as a sign of weakness; the Shogun's decision to agree to Perry's demands; opposition of many of the daimyo to this decision. Further developments of the crisis of the Bakumatsu period may be discussed: the unequal treaties, Treaty of Kanagawa (1854) and Treaty of Edo or Harris Treaty (1858); the opening up of trade; the *sonno joi* movement, "Honour the Emperor and expel the barbarian"; the weakening of the alternative attendance rule and the other ways in which the Shogun had maintained control over the daimyo; the Satsuma and Choshu Wars against the West between 1860 and 1864; the meeting of the Shogun and the Emperor in Kyoto in 1863 when the Shogun was ordered to expel the Westerners; the inability of the Shogun to withstand Western demands; the legal power of the Emperor and the Western negotiations with him; the *tozama* clans' challenge to the Shogun's power; the deaths of the Shogun Iemochi in 1866 and Emperor Komei in 1867; the surrender of Shogun Keiki and the fall of the Tokugawa Shogunate in 1867; the Meiji Restoration in 1868.

Note: responses should be mainly focused on the period 1853 to 1868; however some responses may challenge the assumption in the question with some relevant detail pre-1853.

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Developing identities — mid 19th to the early 20th century

5. Examine the impact of the partition of Bengal (1905) and the Morley-Minto reforms (1909) on political organizations in British India.

Candidates may identify that Muslims were a minority in the Indian National Congress, which had been founded in 1885, and because it made no conscious effort to enlist the Muslim community in its struggle for a more equitable share in government many Muslims felt that Congress would not represent their interests. Also the British administration did not always acknowledge Muslim concerns and this led to Muslim fears that a Hindu majority would seek to suppress Muslim religion, culture and language in an independent India. The 1905 partition of Bengal created a Muslim majority state and the Hindu reaction to this and the various protests supported by Congress seemed to confirm Muslim fears. This was a catalyst for the emergence of the All India Muslim League. Led by Sir Agha Khan III, 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 1906 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 Morley-Minto reforms of 1909 allowed educated Indians to elect representatives to the central and provincial councils. They also created separate electorates and reserved seats for Muslims. These councils were only advisory, but the introduction of the electoral principle laid the groundwork for a parliamentary system, even though this was not the original intent of Morley. The 1909 Morley-Minto Act disappointed the moderates in Congress who had hoped for more concessions. Candidates may also assess its impact in terms of the lack of progress in meeting the demands of Congress with regard to the movement towards self-government within the British Empire; subsequent splits within Congress and the development of extremism; and the wider discontent in India itself.

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6. Compare and contrast the contributions of Bonifacio and Aguinaldo to the struggle for independence in the Philippines between 1892 and 1901.

Candidates will identify that both men contributed significantly to the Philippine independence movement in the late 19th century. Candidates may look at background, beliefs about how independence should be achieved and actions. Many answers will focus on contrasts, but some comparisons should also be identified. Both were passionate about the struggle for independence in the Philippines and both believed in armed struggle. Andres Bonifacio initially joined Rizal's Filipino League, but he became disillusioned and abandoned the idea of a peaceful struggle and founded, in 1892, the Katipunan; a secret society dedicated to rebellion. He also published his ideas and worked towards revolution. Emilio Aguinaldo joined the Katipunan in 1894 and was active in his local region of Cavite. The contrasts include their roles in the Katipunan; the different attempts to defeat the Spanish; the continuation of resistance; and the public offices held by Aguinaldo. Bonifacio led a planned revolutionary uprising in August 1896 with an assault on Manila and surrounding areas, but this was repulsed by the Spanish. Part of the blame for this defeat was because the rebels in Cavite did not join with Bonifacio's forces. The leadership conflicts between Bonifacio and Aguinaldo contributed to the Katipunan splitting into two groups. The rebels in Cavite under Aguinaldo's leadership managed to defeat the Spanish in a series of battles and he was proclaimed president of the revolutionary Philippine republic in March 1897. Bonifacio refused to cooperate and this culminated in his execution in May. Fighting against the Spanish continued until the governor sought a peaceful settlement and offered amnesty to the rebels. Aguinaldo and his followers surrendered to the authorities and in December 1897, the Biak-na-Bato Pact was signed and they went into exile in Hong Kong. War between the United States and Spain over Cuba soon involved the Philippines and, in 1898, during the Spanish–American War, the US navy destroyed a Spanish fleet in Manila Bay. The Americans brought back the exiled nationalist leader Aguinaldo, who established a government and, in 1899, declared independence from Spain. Meanwhile, American forces occupied Manila and Spain ceded the Philippines to the US. When the United States refused to grant independence to the new republic, Aguinaldo declared war. Aguinaldo was captured in 1901 and resistance effectively ended in 1902. Candidates may discuss who they think made a more significant contribution.

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Early modernization and imperial decline in East Asia — mid 19th to the early 20th century

7. Evaluate the successes and failures of the Self-Strengthening Movement in China (1861–1894).

This question requires candidates to analyse the process of reform in China between 1861 and 1894 and assess the overall successes and failures of this reform movement with reference to the degree of political, social, cultural, economic and military modernization that was achieved. This reform movement was rooted in the concept of self-strengthening in order to withstand the demands and aggression of the West. Themes that may be used to organize the response may be: the philosophical aims of the reform movement; the system of government; the underlying religious and cultural attitudes that influenced the impact of modernization upon the society; geographic and demographic factors; the roles of individuals or groups in the society; and the nature of the actual reforms. China's government was reluctant to embrace change and unable to promote a sense of national unity. Candidates may discuss: the Tongzhi (T'ung-chih) Restoration of Confucian government; the concept of self-strengthening; the weakness and conservatism of the central government; the regency and the extent of Cixi's (Tz'u-hsi's) power; the aims of Prince Gong (Kung) and his conflict with Cixi; the choice of another boy emperor, Guangxu (Kuang-hsu) in 1875; the roles of Zeng Guofan (Tseng Kuo-fan), Li Hongzhang (Li Hung-chang), Zuo Zongtang (Tso Tsung-t'ang); the localized nature of many of China's reforms; and the success or failure of the various reforms undertaken. For successes, candidates may identify the initiatives of Prince Gong such as the 1861 establishment of the Zongli (Tsunqli) Yamen, a foreign office and the creation of the Tongwen Guan (T'ung-wen kuan), an interpreters' college in Beijing (Peking). Similar ventures followed in other cities. Also during the early period of the Self-Strengthening Movement there was the creation of several arsenals and defence industries. Later on, with the support of Li Hongzhang, enterprises such as textile mills, paper mills, ironworks, shipping, mining, railways and communications were established. Candidates may cite the Sino-Japanese War (1894–1895) as evidence of Chinese failure. Some candidates may use Immanuel Hsu's analysis of why the Self-Strengthening Movement essentially failed: lack of coordination; limited vision; shortage of capital; foreign imperialism; technical backwardness and moral degradation; and social and psychological inertia. Some responses may identify a number of successful ventures in China whereas other candidates may focus solely on failures.

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8. Examine the reasons for, and the results of, Japan’s annexation of Korea in 1910.

Candidates may initially identify that the long-term reasons why Japan annexed Korea in 1910 originated during the Meiji period (1868–1912) when Japan was rapidly industrializing and modernizing. Early in this period the Japanese government was interested in Korea as a possible future possession: in order to emulate the imperialist nature of the Western powers; as a source of raw materials; as a steady market for Japanese exports; as a granary to feed the rising Japanese population; for protection from an expanding Russia; for strategic advantages in dealing with both Russia and China. Japan forced Korea to open its ports in 1876 with the Treaty of Kanghwa. Japan recognized Korea as an independent state, but Korea still considered itself to be under Chinese control. The Treaty of Shimonoseki after the Sino–Japanese War (1894–1895) forced China to recognize Korea’s independence and also gave Japan more trading ports in Korea. Japan began to dominate the internal politics of Korea. The Japanese murdered Queen Min (Empress Myeongseong) who had attempted to create stronger links between Russia and Korea to counter the Japanese influence. The Treaty of Portsmouth following the Russo–Japanese War (1904–1905) recognized Japan’s political, economic and military interests in Korea. Finally, Japan formally annexed Korea in 1910. Candidates may assess the results of the Japanese occupation of Korea, both negative and positive. Negative aspects may include a discussion of the way Korea was subordinated to Japanese interests and its language and culture were suppressed. Raw materials and rice were exported to Japan in return for Japanese manufactures. Japanese rule was resented and resisted, as demonstrated by the March First Movement of 1919, which was ruthlessly crushed. Despite the resistance, there were some positive aspects particularly during the 1920s when Japanese rule was relatively benign. Japanese investment in Korea improved communications, industry expanded and the infrastructure of a modern economy was created. There was a high level of education in Japanese and a skilled workforce developed. Japanese rule became harsher during the 1930s. The desire for independence remained, but the Koreans had little choice but to cooperate until the Japanese defeat in 1945 ended Japanese rule. Alternatively, candidates may concentrate on the results for Japan and the region. These may include the strengthening of Japanese military power; the economic benefits for Japan; and the shift in the balance of power between the countries in the region.

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Impact of the World Wars on South and Southeast Asia to the mid 20th century

9. Evaluate the role of Jinnah in the growth of Muslim separatism between 1913 and 1947.

The role of Jinnah is important in the growth of Muslim separatism and the creation of the independent state of Pakistan. Candidates may start by discussing Jinnah's life and political career and they should put it into the context of the events in India at the time. Jinnah was initially an active member of the Indian National Congress as well as joining the All India Muslim League in 1913. He was a supporter of inclusive Indian nationalism and in 1914 he represented Congress's position in London. He was involved in the formation of the All India Home Rule League that was founded in 1916. Jinnah believed that self-government should come through constitutional means and was opposed to Congress endorsing Gandhi's satyagraha campaigns. In 1920 he resigned from Congress, but remained active in the All India Muslim League. In 1923 he was elected as the Muslim member for Bombay in the Central Legislative Assembly. The 1928 Nehru Report did not endorse the continuation of separate Muslim electorates and it fuelled Muslim fears about Hindu domination. During the late 1920s and early 1930s the relationship between Hindus and Muslims deteriorated. In 1930 the president of the All India Muslim League, Iqbal, proposed the idea of a separate Muslim state and his Two Nation Theory gained support. Jinnah became disillusioned with politics and left India to practice law in Britain. He returned in 1935 to lead the All India Muslim League. The importance of his role in the growth of Muslim separatism needs to be evaluated in the light of other factors that may have also contributed to it and the eventual achievement of Pakistan's independence in 1947. These may include: the Government of India Act 1935 and those for and against; the role of Congress and Nehru; the impact of the Second World War; the post-war change of government in Britain. The League's Lahore Resolution was adopted in 1940, and its principles formed the foundation for Pakistan's first constitution. During the Cripps mission in 1942, Jinnah demanded parity between the number of Congress and League ministers, the League's exclusive right to appoint Muslims and a right for Muslim-majority provinces to secede, leading to the breakdown of talks. Jinnah supported the British effort in the Second World War, and opposed the Indian National Congress's Quit India Movement. Gandhi's vision of an inclusive and united India may be mentioned. Talks between Jinnah and Gandhi in 1944 failed to achieve agreement and this was the last attempt to reach a single-state solution. Jinnah became Pakistan's first Governor-General on 15 August 1947. Candidates will need to come to a conclusion as to the significance of Jinnah's role in the growth of Muslim separatism.

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10. Compare and contrast the impact of the Japanese occupation of 1941 to 1945 on **two** countries in Southeast Asia.

Candidates will probably choose from Indonesia, Vietnam, Burma, Malaya or the Philippines. Japanese occupation may be seen as the turning point for nationalist movements despite the fact that they had initially developed before the Second World War. 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 Japanese use of the existing colonial administrations of occupied European countries (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 after the war (Malaya). Candidates may also compare and contrast the way in which the Japanese occupation influenced or helped to create influential nationalist leaders: Sukarno (Indonesia); Ho Chi Minh (Vietnam); Aung San (Burma); Datuk Onn and Tunku Abdul Rahman (Malaya); Quezon and Osmena (Philippines). Some evaluation of the impact of the Japanese occupation and the extent to which it influenced the nationalist movements up to independence may be addressed. Many answers will focus on comparisons, but some contrasts should also be identified.

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

11. Examine the significance of the Northern Expedition (1926–1927) and the Jiangxi (Kiangsi) Soviet (1928–1934) in the emergence of Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) as leader of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) by 1935.

Candidates may initially explain that whilst Mao was involved as a peasant organiser during the First United Front (1924–1927) between the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) and the Guomindang, GMD (Kuomintang, KMT), he was not one of the leaders of the CCP. Mao published his *Report on an Investigation of the Peasant Movement in Hunan Province* in 1927, which indicated the beginning of his theoretical thinking about importance of peasants in revolution. This was a departure from the traditional Marxist/Soviet line adopted by the leadership of the CCP. To begin with, the Northern Expedition of 1926 to 1927 was part of the First United Front. After the capture of Shanghai, Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek), the GMD leader, gained access to the wealth and influence of the powerful business interests who were opposed to the trade union movements. With their support he turned on the Communists in the 1927 White Terror and the surviving CCP members fled to the countryside. Mao, Zhu De (Chu Teh) and others created the Red Army comprised of peasant battalions to fight against the GMD. Mao was appointed commander-in-chief and he led the unsuccessful Autumn Harvest Rebellion in Hunan province. Mao was demoted by the CCP Central Committee. He clashed with the leadership of the CCP which was influenced by the 28 Bolsheviks.

Many CCP survivors fled to Jiangxi (Kiangsi) Soviet. During the years 1928 to 1934, Mao Zedong's (Mao Tse-tung's) views on the role of the peasants in revolution, land reform, the status of women and guerrilla warfare were worked out in practice. An example of Mao's approach to leadership was the 1930 Futian Incident when he ruthlessly suppressed a mutiny in the Red Army. Mao was still opposed by advisers from the Comintern, but his views were reinforced by the failure of the Jiangxi Soviet and its Comintern advisers to resist the GMD's 5th encirclement campaign by conventional warfare. To escape in 1934, the CCP and the Red Army embarked on the Long March. There was continuing internal conflict between Mao and the 28 Bolsheviks and the Comintern adviser, Otto Braun, but by the Zunyi (Tsunyi) Conference in 1935, Mao's views had won much support and Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai) changed his allegiance. Mao was elected as leader and by the end of the Long March he had emerged as the most important figure in the CCP.

Candidates will need to engage with the question and identify why the Northern Expedition and the Jiangxi (Kiangsi) Soviet were important in shaping the future of the CCP with the emergence of Mao as its leader and his ideas as the party's ideology. Discussion that is solely focused on the Long March indicates that the question is not really understood.

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12. “The Second United Front (1936–1945) was responsible for the survival of the Chinese Communist Party (CCP).” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

This question is not about the Long March and should not, therefore, be limited to events before 1936. There should be a clear engagement with the issue of the Second United Front. Candidates may initially note that the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) claimed during the Long March that they were going north to fight the Japanese and this boosted their popularity, because Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek) was ignoring the Japanese threat and he was more intent on eliminating the CCP. Candidates may discuss the willingness of the CCP to form a Second United Front as opposed to Jiang only agreeing to it after the Xian (Sian) Incident in 1936. The Xian Incident was also a propaganda victory for the CCP because Zhou Enlai (Chou En-lai) appeared to act in the national interest rather than assassinate Jiang. Candidates may also support the notion that the CCP were more likely to benefit more than the Guomindang, GMD (Kuomintang, KMT). Despite the fact that Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) reorganized the Red Army and pledged to collaborate with the GMD during the period 1937 to 1938, he also believed that the Second United Front was an opportunity to achieve a compromise with the GMD in order to safeguard the CCP’s existence; that it was a way of achieving parity with the GMD; and that it would enable the CCP to expand into new areas and gain support in order to finally achieve power. During the Sino–Japanese War (1937–1945) the GMD and the CCP forces each had control of different areas of China. The Second United Front enabled the CCP to spread their influence and improve their military position, though initially the Red Army was smaller and less well-equipped. Candidates may discuss: the CCP’s ideological appeal based on their pro-peasant policies in the areas they controlled; their promises of land reform; their high morale; strong leadership; their freedom from corruption; their effective propaganda. Some candidates may challenge the assumption in the question and analyse a range of other factors that allowed the CCP to survive during the Sino–Japanese War. These may include the general unpopularity of Jiang Jieshi and the GMD; the ineffectiveness and corruption of the GMD; the GMD retreat to Chongqing (Chungking); the breakdown of the Second United Front after clashes between the GMD Army and the Red Army in 1941; the GMD use of troops to blockade communist areas in the Northwest instead fighting the Japanese; the GMD stockpiling of American equipment in anticipation of civil war; the deteriorating relationship between the US and the GMD; and the sudden end to the war with the dropping of atomic bomb.

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Imperial Japan: empire and aftermath 1912–1952

13. “The invasion of Manchuria in 1931 was a turning point in Japanese domestic and foreign affairs.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

For domestic affairs, candidates may initially mention that during the 1920s Japan appeared to be developing as a liberal democracy. Universal male suffrage in 1925 introduced into political life a mass electorate that could assert influence at elections and was open to manipulation by nationalistic and militaristic politicians and spokesmen for expansionist policies. Tanaka Giichi became Prime Minister in 1927 and he was pressured by the army to adopt more aggressive policies to protect Japanese interests in Manchuria. The collapse of the world economy in 1929 had a great impact on Japan and the new electorate turned against the often corrupt civilian politicians. The rise of militarism and of political conservatism with its return to traditional Japanese values contributed towards the Mukden Incident and the Kwantung Army’s invasion of Manchuria in 1931. Initially, these events occurred without the support of the Japanese civilian government, but it was powerless against the interests of the Army. These events were extremely popular in Japan so eventually the government supported the situation and the creation of Manchukuo in 1932 was used as a means of acquiring land for Japan’s crowded population, minerals for its industries and a safe field for investment. Subsequently, there was a struggle in the army between the radical *Koda-ha* or Imperial Way faction and the *Tosei-ha* or Control Way faction of older more conservative officers. This led to a number of political assassinations and attempted military coups. The failed coup of 26 February 1936 routed the Imperial Way faction and the Control faction dominated the army and exerted power in politics. Under Prime Minister Hirota Koki the civilian element in the government was weakened. After this Japan turned to rearmament to encourage its industries; there was a revival of nationalism based on the military and the Emperor; and strict control of education was introduced.

In foreign affairs, there was opposition in Japan to the government’s acceptance of the terms of the Washington Naval Conference in 1922 and the London Naval Conference in 1930 because these were regarded as humiliating. The invasion of Manchuria in 1931 was a turning point in that it indicated the growing influence of Japan and the weakness of China. Within Japan there were demands for expansion into China for raw materials and markets and opposition from the Diet proved ineffectual. There was also an attack on Shanghai in 1932; war with China started in 1937; and the New Order in East Asia was created in 1938. This was to be a mutually beneficial political, cultural and economic union of Japan, Manchukuo and China. The invasion of Manchuria was a turning point in international relations because Japan withdrew from the League of Nations in 1933 and the Anti-Comintern Pact with Hitler was signed in 1936. It also revealed the relative weaknesses of the Soviet Union, the US, the European powers and the League of Nations in the region and the inability of the international community to respond effectively. However, other developments in 1940 such as the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, the Tripartite Pact and the US embargoes may be considered more significant in the lead up to the bombing of Pearl Harbor in 1941.

Candidates will need to come to some conclusion as to whether the invasion of Manchuria was a significant turning point which facilitated and intensified the growth of militarism in Japan and isolation from the Western nations or whether it was just one incident among many in the growth of militarism and Japan’s road to war.

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14. Examine the reasons why Japan failed to build on its early successes during the Pacific War (1941–1945).

Candidates may initially set the context for Japan's entry into the Pacific War. Powerful military interests controlled the Japanese government and after the invasion of China in 1937 it announced in 1938 the New Order in East Asia involving Japan, Manchukuo and China. In July 1940, United States, opposed to this expansion, imposed trade embargoes that intensified Japan's need for other sources of raw materials. In response, the Japanese government replaced the New Order with the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere which endorsed Japan's imperialist ambitions and expansion into Southeast Asia. Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in December 1941 and by May 1942 had control over the Eastern seaboard of China, Southeast Asia and many Pacific islands. Japan's initial victories resulted from its well-planned and coordinated surprise attacks by well-trained, experienced forces upon relatively weak and unprepared opponents at a time when the European colonial powers were either under German domination or, in the case of Britain, facing the threat of invasion. A significant factor in Japan's eventual defeat was its inability to win the solid and active support of the colonial peoples in the territories it had "liberated" from the European powers. The Japanese slogan "Asia for the Asians" did inspire some local nationalist movements, but they viewed the notion of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere with suspicion and saw Japan as another imperialist nation. Other factors that contributed to Japan's eventual loss were: the failure of the war in China; lack of resources for a long war against a rapidly rearmed US and its allies; overextension of its forces over a large area against persistent local resistance; the loss of its most experienced personnel in the earlier fighting and the US tactics of island hopping in the retaking of Japanese held territory. The atomic bombs in 1945 ended an empire which was already doomed. Candidates will need to identify why Japan was initially successful and then come to a conclusion about the reasons why Japan lost the Pacific War.

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

15. With reference to the period 1949 to 1990, examine the effects of the struggle between the Labour Party and the National Party on the domestic politics of New Zealand.

Candidates may identify the struggle in terms of the different elections over the given time period. In 1949, the National Party defeated the Labour Party and remained in government until 1957. When in power, the National Party proved to be rather conservative and a revitalized Labour Party defeated the National Party in 1957. This was seen as a watershed in New Zealand's political history, but the Labour Party's economic policies proved to be ineffectual and they lost the next election in 1960 and were out of power until 1972. The Labour Party was again only in government for one term and the National Party returned and ruled from 1975 to 1984. The Labour Party won an election amidst a constitutional and economic crisis in 1984 and remained in power until 1990. Between 1945 and 1975 Labour could count on all the inner-city electorates and until the 1980s, the National Party could rely on its richer city constituencies. The major impact of the Labour/National struggle was the general dissatisfaction of the electorate with both parties in the 1970s and the 1980s. The differing ideologies tended to converge in an effort to win support in later elections. The end result was a coalescence of many policies and the electorate was left with little real choice. The main problem to be resolved was New Zealand's economic difficulties based on an import and export imbalance and high unemployment that replaced the prosperity of the 1950s and 1960s. This was largely due to Britain joining the European Union (EU) in 1973. Other problems included inflation; welfare spending; immigration; and Maori urbanization. The 1984 Labour attempted to radically restructure the economy only to be defeated again in 1990. All this led to a degree of instability in the society.

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16. Examine the ways, and the extent to which, **either** Australia **or** New Zealand became a multicultural society between 1945 and 2000.

Candidates may initially describe the culture of Australia or New Zealand in 1945. Both were conservative societies that 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. The ways in which both societies became multicultural needs to be addressed specifically. Prior to 1945 both countries had restricted immigration policies, although there had been limited immigration from other European countries, but after 1945 they embarked on extensive immigration campaigns. For Australia the ways may 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. The 1972 to 1975 Whitlam government adopted the policy of multiculturalism. For New Zealand the ways follow a similar pattern with accepting displaced persons, British immigration and post-war assisted immigration schemes. In 1950, the National Government brought skilled immigrants from the Netherlands and other Northern European countries. New Zealand also had limited visas for unskilled labour from the Pacific Islands, but the racially restricted immigration policy was not changed until the 1987. A points-based system based on skills was introduced in 1991.

Candidates also need to address the issue of the extent to which either society became multicultural. Initially, in Australia, immigrants were given little government help and were expected to assimilate into the predominantly British-influenced culture and many experienced prejudice. European and Asian immigration contributed to creating Australia’s post-war prosperity because it allowed the economy to expand rapidly. Politically, this reduced sentimental links with the British and encouraged a growth in republicanism. 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 popular culture, particularly amongst the young. On the surface, Australia became a much more open and tolerant society, although there were still instances of racism and discrimination. By the end of the 20th century there was more acceptance and recognition of the indigenous Aboriginal culture. Nevertheless, 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: the basic British heritage was still strong; the Returned Services Association (RSA) was an influential institution; and the New Zealand First Party was founded in 1993 by Winston Peters with an anti-immigration platform. The New Zealand way of life was also shaped by the end of the 20th century by a significant presence of Pacific Islanders and by the demands of Maori urbanization.

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Developments in South and Southeast Asia from the mid 20th century to 2000

17. Evaluate the extent to which Ayub Khan created stable government and national unity in Pakistan between 1958 and 1969.

Ayub Khan was President of Pakistan from 1958 to 1969. Candidates may initially place his accession to power in context and examine the problems and instability experienced in Pakistan since 1947. Pakistan gained independence from Britain in August 1947 although it 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. The first Prime Minister, Liaquat Ali Khan, was faced with the challenges of the refugee problem; the 1947 Indo–Pakistani War over Kashmir; the dominance of landlords; and the use of Urdu as the national language. He introduced the framework for Pakistan's future constitutions and he cemented Pakistan's alliance with the US. In 1951 he was assassinated; civil unrest followed and by 1953 martial law was imposed. This was the beginning of military intervention in the political and civilian affairs of the country. Pakistan was declared an Islamic Republic in 1956. Two years later the military took control and Ayub Khan became President. He continued with the US alliance; introduced measures to end water disputes with India; increased industrialization; improved agricultural output; and supported a space programme. Further examination of his policies may include: land reform; the implementation of the Second Five Year Plan leading to increased food production; hydroelectric power projects; and the sacking of corrupt civil servants. Candidates may argue that Ayub Khan created a stable government and some measure of national unity. Stability could also be represented by his electoral victory in 1965 that provided continuity, but plans to return to democracy led to the emergence of opposition groups who represented landowners. In 1965 there was another Indo–Pakistani war over Kashmir. 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 and Ayub Khan lost the support of the military and was deposed in 1969. He was replaced by General Yahya Khan, who intended to hold general elections in 1970.

Candidates may argue that Ayub Khan created a measure of economic stability but political stability was only possible with fairly authoritarian methods. Some may argue that Ayub Khan was less successful in creating national unity in a country that was so divided ethnically, culturally and geographically. Candidates may look at subsequent events such as the 1971 Bangladesh Liberation War and the secession of East Pakistan to argue that Ayub Khan's regime had been relatively stable and beneficial to Pakistan.

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18. Examine the reasons for, and the results of, political conflict in the second half of the 20th century in **one** of the following countries: the Philippines; Malaysia; Singapore; Brunei; Indonesia; Burma; Sri Lanka; Bangladesh.

Popular choices may be Malaysia and Indonesia.

With reference to the chosen country, candidates may discuss the manner in which it gained independence and the political conflict associated with this. In many countries there was conflict that developed between the ideal of democratic institutions and the desire for strong government to prevent political divisions leading to fragmentation. Ethnic and religious minorities existed to a greater or lesser extent in most countries of the region and in each country their existence often created political conflict. Strong centralized government, often with military backing, was seen as a means of imposing a national unity. Expect references to a range of issues: integration; lack of occupations; areas of residence; political representation; religious observance; resistance; and rebellion. The impact of the rise of fundamentalism and terrorist groups may also be discussed. Each country will have its own particular issues.

Malaysia: the reasons for political conflict can be attributed to the continued presence of the British colonial administration and the Communist insurgency (1948–1957). The insurgency was defeated, but it had important results: 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 had already become independent in 1957, but 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 and Malaysia was formed without Brunei. Singapore left the federation in 1965. Ethnic tensions between Malays and Chinese in Malaysia caused riots and unrest in 1969 and a state of emergency was declared. Democracy was eventually restored in 1971 and policies to improve the economic status of the Malays were instituted. During the ministry of Mahathir (1981–2003) the government became more centralized and authoritarian; he promoted industrialization and improved the economy, but was strongly in favour of a controlled multi-ethnic society.

Indonesia declared independence in August 1945 under President Sukarno, but only in 1949 was war with the Dutch ended and independence officially recognized. The new state was a federation of the separate islands and provinces but became a unitary state in 1950. Islam had played an important part in the drive for independence and Sukarno provided charismatic leadership, the symbols of nationalism and the national language (Malay) were taught and opposition in the outer islands brought under control. As president, he embodied the state and attempted to balance the army, the Muslims and communist threats. In 1962, Indonesia acquired Irian Jaya (West New Guinea) from the Dutch and in 1963 confronted Malaysia. The Indonesian constitution guaranteed freedom of religion, but only six major religious groups were recognized, Islam, Protestantism, Roman Catholicism, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Confucianism. The tensions between the Islamic majority, which was nearly 90 per cent and minority religious groups often occurred. In 1965 there was an attempted military coup and a communist insurgency. After purges and unrest

Suharto emerged, with military backing, as the new leader in 1968 and remained in power until 1998. Candidates may also discuss the 1975 Indonesian invasion of East Timor.

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China: the regional superpower from the mid 20th century to 2000

19. “The Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution (1966–1976) was a victory for Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung), but a disaster for the Chinese people.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Candidates may initially identify the context of the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution by discussing the issue of Mao Zedong (Mao Tse-tung) being sidelined after the failure of the Great Leap Forward. In May 1966, the Great Proletarian 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. Candidates may see the Cultural Revolution as a power and/or an ideological struggle. When Mao launched the Cultural Revolution, the Central Cultural Revolution Group was formed and this was dominated by the Gang of Four led by Mao’s wife Jiang Qing (Chiang Ch’ing). This group promoted Mao’s ideas of continuous revolution; factional warfare within the Chinese Communist Party (CCP); the purging of CCP officials at all levels; the Red Guard movement; violence and terror against counter-revolutionaries, intellectuals and professionals. Many schools were closed and the Red Guards were encouraged to travel to Beijing and promote revolution. By 1968 various factions had developed, all of which claimed to be loyal to Mao, and the country had descended into disorder. Mao used the People’s Liberation Army to restore order and the youth were sent to the countryside in the “Learn from the peasants” campaign. Developments that candidates may identify for the Cultural Revolution being a disaster for the Chinese people include: the retardation of economic development; the creation of a lost generation who missed out on furthering their education; the breaking up of families; the destruction of cultural artefacts; and the death of many people accused of being counter-revolutionaries.

In addition to outlining the events, candidates need to come to a conclusion that addresses issues raised in the quotation. Candidates may probably argue that the Cultural Revolution was Mao’s last great effort to impose his will and that it was a great victory for him because the cult of Mao intensified and he gained an emperor-like status. Responses may show an awareness of the complexity of the situation as it evolved with a few indicating that by the end, Mao was being used by rival factions seeking their own ends, and that Mao had lost control of the situation. Some responses may challenge the assumption in the quotation and give evidence to support other points of view.

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20. Discuss the reasons why Sino–American relations changed from being hostile to mutually beneficial in the period 1949 to 1976.

Sino–American relations were hostile from the founding of the People’s Republic of China (PRC) in 1949 until the ping-pong diplomacy of the early 1970s and the 1972 visit of President Nixon. Candidates may stress the ideological differences between these two countries and the start of the Cold War. Other relevant issues are the US support of Jiang Jieshi (Chiang Kai-shek) and the Guomindang, GMD (Kuomintang, KMT) during the Civil War (1946–1949); subsequent US support for Jiang (Chiang) and the GMD in Taiwan as the legitimate government of China and the two Chinas Policy. The 1950 Sino–Soviet Friendship Treaty and China’s involvement in the Korean War polarized the Cold War tensions. The US regarded China as an ally of the Soviet Union and blocked China’s entry into the United Nations. Other factors that contributed to the hostile relations with the US were China’s invasion of Tibet in 1950; the failure to settle the Taiwan question; China’s links to the non-aligned movement; and China’s influence in developing nations. China supported liberation movements in Africa and Asia. China also provided assistance to the Viet Cong in North Vietnam and this worsened Sino–American relations due to the US involvement in the Vietnam War. In 1963 China became a nuclear power and the US saw this as a threat. Candidates will need to identify the reasons for the changes in Chinese foreign policy and the move towards rapprochement with the US. The 1959 Sino–Soviet split had an impact on Sino–American relations. During the 1960s, the continuing tension between China and the Soviet Union was marked by a Soviet military build-up on its borders with China and an outbreak of war in 1969. This prompted a new direction in Chinese foreign policy. China felt isolated and threatened by the prospect of nuclear war with the Soviet Union and saw advantages in reconciliation in with the US and the West in order to weaken the Soviet Union’s strategic position. The Sino–Soviet split also indicated to the US that communism was not monolithic. The process of détente had begun between the US and the Soviet Union in 1969 with Strategic Arms Limitation Talks (SALT). In order to apply pressure to the Soviet Union the US Secretary of State, Henry Kissinger, sought changes in US policy towards China. He facilitated the opening up of relations between China and the West. In 1971 the United Nations voted to recognize the People’s Republic of China as the legitimate government of China. After Nixon’s visit in 1972 the US eventually established diplomatic relations with the PRC.

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Global impact of the region in the second half of the 20th century

21. Examine the reasons for, and the level of success achieved by, economic developments in **either** South Korea **or** Singapore after 1945.

Candidates may attempt to define what is meant by the term “economic miracle” and they should identify the reasons that contributed to this in either South Korea or Singapore. Many countries have adopted capitalist systems that generally share the characteristics of private ownership of property and the means of production and the encouragement of private enterprise to respond to market forces, but there is variation amongst these countries over the nature and degree of state control and intervention in economic planning and development. Other reasons apart from the state should be indicated: outside forces such as a steady expansion of world trade; globalization and the tendency for large multinational companies to grow to service global markets; the ease of access to foreign markets; and the role and influence of the American market. Candidates may also identify that these factors also contributed to the success of the economy in the chosen country. Cultural traditions may also have contributed significantly to promoting economic success: 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.

South Korea received considerable support and investment from the US in the aftermath of the 1950 to 53 Korean War and this continued during the second half of the 20th century due to the Cold War. The South Korean government initially exercised heavy state control of its economy, but by the end of the 20th century this had lessened and it had become a market economy. There was rapid industrialization based on foreign investment. Mining, ship building, automobiles, construction, armaments and advanced technology all developed in response to global markets and also increased the growth in the economy and the standard of living in South Korea.

Singapore was initially a British colony and then it was part of the newly formed Malaysian federation, but became independent in 1965. It had a large Chinese population that dominated the commercial sector. Singapore developed a market economy and rapidly industrialized. International companies invested in Singapore due to its location; corruption-free system; highly educated workforce; low tax rates and reliable infrastructure. Singapore became a major port for the region and a hub for commerce, trade and banking. Electronics, mechanical engineering, the manufacture of chemical products and tourism all became major industries in Singapore.

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22. Discuss the economic and political changes that have occurred in **one** Pacific Islands' country during the second half of the 20th century. Note: Australia and New Zealand are **not** appropriate examples.

Candidates may choose any Pacific Islands' country, but Australia and New Zealand should not be credited. All countries have in common the economic changes that have occurred in some measure due to globalization since 1945. Political changes may vary from country to country. Many Pacific Islands' countries were former colonies and the political situation in the chosen country will reflect this. Candidates will probably argue that the economic changes have brought higher living standards, and may cite examples ranging from personal wealth and possessions to improved social services, civil order and security, communications, leisure and entertainment. More perceptive candidates will realize that there are pockets of poverty in even the most affluent societies, that economic changes may degrade regions and peoples, that development may be uneven, that rural areas may be drained of population and investment, that certain nations, regions, provinces, ethnic minorities and others may not all benefit to the same extent, if at all. Some candidates may be tempted to write a criticism on the evils of development and other candidates, to over-emphasize its blessings. The chosen country should be examined to the end of the twentieth century.

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Social and economic developments 1945–2000

23. Evaluate the role of sport in creating a sense of national unity in any **one** country of the region during the second half of the 20th 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 creating a sense of national unity will need to be addressed specifically. Sport has become an important focus in the region since 1945 and sporting events are often occasions where aspects of national culture are highlighted. This has the effect of both fostering a sense of national identity and promoting national unity and 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 create a sense of national unity. National sports have been developed in modern ways and are used as symbols of national unity. International sports, largely developed in the West, have become globalized and therefore a country's participation is a measure of international recognition, which in turn fosters national identity and national unity. 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.

*The above material is an indication of what candidates may elect to write about in their responses. However, it is not exhaustive and **no set answer is required**.*

*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**.*

24. Examine the impact of technological advances on any **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 “technological advances”. This may include developments in computer technology and the internet, television and films; mobile telephones, automation in industry; satellite communications; transport; farm machinery; and medical equipment. Candidates need to demonstrate the links between the technological advances and the social and economic changes that have taken place in the chosen country since the Second World War. Any political references should be made within the context of social and economic developments and be relevant to an understanding of them. Technological advances are likely to have caused considerable upheaval in the chosen society. This may be both positive and negative. Candidates may refer to a range of social changes that have come about as a result of technological advances: the position of women; social mobility; population growth and distribution; migration from the countryside to cities; accessibility to education; accessibility to better health care; effects upon rural and regional areas; community and political organizations; crime rates; rise of a new middle class; the traditional culture and lifestyle may have been undermined; greater exposure to a global culture; the development of a youth culture; the state may have more control over people’s lives; a stronger sense of national identity and greater national cohesion may emerge. Changes to the economy may vary: poverty and wealth will both have developed; new jobs may have been created; more efficient systems may have developed in business, agriculture, fishing and mining that stimulate the economy; rural areas may have thrived or become depressed; redundancies and unemployment may have occurred; globalization of the country’s economy; the entertainment industry may have flourished; tourism and leisure activities may or may not have benefitted.

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