

MARK SCHEME for the May/June 2013 series

9697 HISTORY

9697/11

Paper 1, maximum raw mark 100

This mark scheme is published as an aid to teachers and candidates, to indicate the requirements of the examination. It shows the basis on which Examiners were instructed to award marks. It does not indicate the details of the discussions that took place at an Examiners' meeting before marking began, which would have considered the acceptability of alternative answers.

Mark schemes should be read in conjunction with the question paper and the Principal Examiner Report for Teachers.

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Page 2	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

GENERIC MARK BANDS FOR ESSAY QUESTIONS

Examiners will assess which Level of Response best reflects most of the answer. An answer will not be required to demonstrate all of the descriptions in a particular Level to qualify for a Mark Band.

Band	Marks	Levels of Response
1	21–25	<i>The approach will be consistently analytical or explanatory rather than descriptive or narrative. Essays will be fully relevant. The argument will be structured coherently and supported by very appropriate factual material and ideas. The writing will be accurate. At the lower end of the band, there may be some weaker sections but the overall quality will show that the candidate is in control of the argument. The best answers must be awarded 25 marks.</i>
2	18–20	<i>Essays will be focused clearly on the demands of the question but there will be some unevenness. The approach will be mostly analytical or explanatory rather than descriptive or narrative. The answer will be mostly relevant. Most of the argument will be structured coherently and supported by largely accurate factual material. The impression will be that a good solid answer has been provided.</i>
3	16–17	<i>Essays will reflect a clear understanding of the question and a fair attempt to provide an argument and the factual knowledge to answer it. The approach will contain analysis or explanation but there may be some heavily descriptive or narrative passages. The answer will be largely relevant. Essays will achieve a genuine argument but may lack balance and depth in factual knowledge. Most of the answer will be structured satisfactorily but some parts may lack full coherence.</i>
4	14–15	<i>Essays will indicate attempts to argue relevantly although often implicitly. The approach will depend more on some heavily descriptive or narrative passages than on analysis or explanation, which may be limited to introductions and conclusions. Factual material, sometimes very full, will be used to impart information or describe events rather than to address directly the requirements of the question. The structure of the argument could be organised more effectively.</i>
5	11–13	<i>Essays will offer some appropriate elements but there will be little attempt generally to link factual material to the requirements of the question. The approach will lack analysis and the quality of the description or narrative, although sufficiently accurate and relevant to the topic if not the particular question, will not be linked effectively to the argument. The structure will show weaknesses and the treatment of topics within the answer will be unbalanced.</i>
6	8–10	<i>Essays will not be properly focused on the requirements of the question. There may be many unsupported assertions and commentaries that lack sufficient factual support. The argument may be of limited relevance to the topic and there may be confusion about the implications of the question.</i>
7	0–7	<i>Essays will be characterised by significant irrelevance or arguments that do not begin to make significant points. The answers may be largely fragmentary and incoherent.</i>

Page 3	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

SECTION A: THE ORIGINS OF WORLD WAR I, 1870–1914

SOURCE-BASED QUESTION: ANALYSIS AND EVALUATION

‘British opinion was opposed to war with Germany in 1914.’ Use Sources A–E to show how far the evidence confirms this statement.

	CONTENT	ANALYSIS [L2–3]	EVALUATION [L4–5]	CROSS-REFERENCE TO OTHER PASSAGES	OTHER [e.g. Contextual knowledge]
A	Memorandum by a senior British civil servant.	Britain should be prepared to go to war to safeguard its position as a major power. Anti-war feelings show weakness.	Y–The writer was informed about British policies although he gives a personal view. Y–He probably describes accurately the feelings of the commercial class. N–It is very one-sided and does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the general public.	Y–C notes the attempts of Germany to keep Britain neutral. Y–E also refers to the reluctance of commercial groups to be involved in a war.	Candidates might develop the point about the balance of power. Answers can explain why Belgium was important to Germany and Britain.

Page 4	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

	CONTENT	ANALYSIS [L2–3]	EVALUATION [L4–5]	CROSS-REFERENCE TO OTHER PASSAGES	OTHER [e.g. Contextual knowledge]
B	Report by the German Ambassador to Germany with the Kaiser's handwritten notes.	The Ambassador reports that Britain wishes to remain neutral but the fate of Belgium might be decisive. The Kaiser believes that Britain is determined to go to war.	The source can be evaluated in two parts. Y–The Ambassador's view of the importance to Britain of Belgium is accurate. Y–Grey's policies were not decisive before the invasion of Belgium. N–The Kaiser's notes show the extremity of his views. Y–The Kaiser's points should not be dismissed completely.	Y–C confirms the importance to Britain of Belgian neutrality. N–The Kaiser alone accuses Britain of making war preparations and lying about Belgium.	Candidates can expand on the Kaiser's personal influence on developments. There might be some explanation of Grey's role.
C	Report by the German Ambassador to Britain.	After the invasion of Belgium, British political opinion is almost universally pro-war.	Y–Belgium transformed British opinion. Its invasion unified almost all of British opinion. Anti-war feeling at this point was not negligible but represented a minority.	Y–The Ambassador's report is probably an accurate account of opinion in Britain in August 1914.	Candidates are not expected to have detailed knowledge of British public opinion but the reasons why Belgium united the country can be explained.

Page 5	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

	CONTENT	ANALYSIS [L2–3]	EVALUATION [L4–5]	CROSS-REFERENCE TO OTHER PASSAGES	OTHER [e.g. Contextual knowledge]
D	Speech to Parliament by the British Prime Minister.	Britain has gone to war very reluctantly.	Y–The British government did try to avoid war. N–It is a partial political view. It is possible to argue that clearer policy might have done more to avoid war.	Y–The writer’s description of attempts to preserve peace are one-sided but probably accurate. N–The source ignores Britain’s relations with France and Russia and its rivalry with Germany. N –The purpose is to win support after war has been declared. It is not an objective statement.	Answers might consider the cases for and against the claim that Britain had consistently sought to achieve a peaceful settlement.
E	Judgement of a modern American historian.	Britain was largely against war in 1914. If there was a war, it should be localised in the Balkans. There were higher priorities.	Y–The Balkans crisis did seem remote to Britain. Y–Analysis of the spread of opinion in Britain is reliable. N–The source does not deal with the final events that led to war.	Y–The source is quite objective. It deals with an important aspect: reluctance to go to war. But there is no need for candidates to provide details of domestic affairs, e.g. Ireland. N–The writer ignores some aspects of the British situation e.g. increased spending on the navy.	Attitudes in Britain towards the Balkans crisis as a localised war can be explained. Lloyd George’s views can be assessed.

Page 6	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

1 Source-Based Question: Levels of Response

L1 WRITES ABOUT THE HYPOTHESIS, NO USE OF SOURCES [1–5]

These answers write generally about the causes of the 1914 war but will ignore the question, i.e. they will not use the sources as information / evidence to test the given hypothesis. For example, they will not discuss *‘British opinion was opposed to war with Germany in 1914’* but will describe events very generally. Include in this level answers which use information taken from the sources but only in providing a summary of views expressed by the writers, rather than for testing the hypothesis. Alternatively, the sources might be ignored in a general essay answer.

L2 USES INFORMATION TAKEN FROM THE SOURCES TO CHALLENGE OR SUPPORT THE HYPOTHESIS [6–8]

These answers use the sources as information rather than as evidence, i.e. sources are used at face value only with no evaluation / interpretation in context.

For example, *‘Sources D and E confirm that British opinion was opposed to war with Germany in 1914. Source D explains that British diplomacy pursued a policy of peace for a long time while E concentrates more on public opinion, especially the mood of the commercial classes. The majority of the Cabinet supported this view as did most of the press. War was only envisaged if British interests were threatened directly. Britain was more concerned by its domestic problems.’*

L3 USES INFORMATION TAKEN FROM THE SOURCES TO CHALLENGE AND SUPPORT THE HYPOTHESIS [9–13]

These answers know that testing the hypothesis involves both attempting to confirm and to disconfirm it. However, sources are used only at face value.

For example, *‘On the other hand, some sources contradict the view that British opinion was opposed to war with Germany in 1914. Source A accepts that war was part of being a great country. It dismisses the reluctance of the commercial classes but emphasises the need to support France as an ally. The Kaiser in Source B is convinced that Britain was planning war.’*

L4 BY INTERPRETING / EVALUATING SOURCES IN CONTEXT, FINDS EVIDENCE TO CHALLENGE OR SUPPORT THE HYPOTHESIS [14–16]

These answers are capable of using sources as evidence, i.e. demonstrating their utility in testing the hypothesis, by interpreting them in their historical context, i.e. not simply accepting them at face value.

For example, *‘Source E is the strongest evidence to support the claim that British opinion was opposed to war with Germany in 1914. It is more objective than the other sources and links with the points in Source A about the reluctance of the commercial classes to support war. Source D has the disadvantage that it is a political speech intended to win support for the war with Germany, not to provide objective facts. However, Asquith’s claims about British diplomatic efforts can be supported by contextual knowledge of Grey’s attempts to preserve peace and in particular to avoid British involvement.’*

Page 7	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

L5 BY INTERPRETING AND EVALUATING SOURCES IN CONTEXT, FINDS EVIDENCE TO CHALLENGE AND SUPPORT THE HYPOTHESIS [17–19]

These answers know that testing the hypothesis involves attempting both to confirm and disconfirm the hypothesis, and are capable of using the sources as evidence to do this (i.e. both confirmation and disconfirmation are done at this level).

For example, (L4 plus) *‘However, Sources A, B and C can be grouped to show that British opinion was not opposed to war with Germany in 1914. The author of Source A is giving a personal view but it was probably based on a good understanding of British policy and politicians. Sources B and C are German in origin but have different degrees of reliability. The Ambassador is probably accurate in his account of British opinion after Germany’s invasion of Belgium. William II’s notes in Source B might be dismissed as the views of an extremist but there are elements of truth in them. Britain did take steps to prepare for war and Grey’s policies were often confusing to foreign governments. He did not take clear decisions.’*

L6 AS L5, PLUS **EITHER** (a) EXPLAINS WHY EVIDENCE TO CHALLENGE / SUPPORT IS BETTER / PREFERRED, **OR** (b) RECONCILES / EXPLAINS PROBLEMS IN THE EVIDENCE TO SHOW THAT NEITHER CHALLENGE NOR SUPPORT IS TO BE PREFERRED [22–25]

For (a), the argument must be that the evidence for challenging or supporting the claim is more justified. This must involve a comparative judgement, i.e. not just why some evidence is better, but why some evidence is worse.

For example, *‘Overall, the claim that British opinion was opposed to war with Germany in 1914 is more convincing although it is supported by a minority of sources in this set. Source E is particularly important because it is less subjective than the others. However, Sources A and E only refer to minorities of the public, although these minorities were important: the commercial classes and the press. Source B reflects the difficulty of dealing with the Kaiser, who was very suspicious of Britain. This can be confirmed by his policies from the time that he gained power. Source C is an accurate account of British opinion after the invasion of Belgium. The extent to which there was still an anti-war feeling is probably underestimated but is not completely invalid.’*

OR

‘On the other hand, the brief reference in Source A to the French alliance is important. Britain was very concerned about the German threat to France although Belgium was the immediate cause of war. Many of the political class shared the view in Source A that war could be entertained as a normal activity of great countries. It was believed that wars would be brief. While most of the British people opposed war at this point, this was probably because most were unaware of the looming crisis and were surprised at the turn of events. This does not mean that they were opposed to war as such. The outbreak of war was not only supported in Parliament but in widespread demonstrations.’

For (b) include all L5 answers which use the evidence to **modify** the hypothesis (rather than simply seeking to support / contradict) in order to improve it.

For example, *‘In a broad sense, British opinion was opposed to war with Germany in 1914 but this conceals the fact that British policy was important in the events leading to war. The British government did not realise the potential danger of events in the Balkans. It gambled wrongly that the conflict could be localised. Nor did Grey make clear British policy about Belgian neutrality. Not only Germany but also France and Russia, Britain’s allies, were unclear while opinion in Britain was uncertain about its commitments to the Triple Entente.’*

Page 8	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

Section B

2 Why did Robespierre and the Jacobins gain and then lose power in France?

From about 1791 and especially Louis XVI's flight to Varennes, radicals became increasingly divided with the Jacobins (or Montagnards) in a minority. They gained strength through an alliance with the sans-culottes. They also organised support through groups in the provinces. Their strong anti-monarchy line won more support than those who favoured a settlement with a constitutional monarchy. 'The revolution in danger' proved a popular call, especially with a dangerous foreign war that Robespierre and the Jacobins initially opposed as a distraction from domestic problems. Their suppression of rival groups such as the Girondins confirmed their hold on power. They were also ferocious in dealing with real, or imagined, counter-revolutionaries in the provinces. Candidates can explain the Terror. The Jacobins' promise to deal with economic and social problems such as inflation and food shortages helped to win popular support. Robespierre seemed to represent the revolution in its purest form – incorruptible and dedicated to revolutionary interests. However, his policies, perhaps even his success, formed the basis of the downfall of himself and his party. Policies such as the Cult of the Supreme Being were unpopular in a country that was widely anti-clerical but not anti-Christian. The food situation improved but inflation was not curbed. Assignats were a failure. Ironically, success in the war against foreign enemies weakened rather than strengthened Robespierre. It removed the immediate danger to the revolution. Counter-revolutionary resistance within France, for example in the Vendée, was curbed. In 1794, colleagues attacked Robespierre, probably through self-preservation. The Jacobins suddenly found themselves in a minority again with no way back.

3 Why did the Industrial Revolution lead to demands for greater democracy in the nineteenth century? (You should refer to at least two of Britain, France and Germany in your answer.)

The Industrial Revolution saw the development of the middle classes. Their desire for political influence grew with their wealth. It was a means by which they could shape governments. In Britain, for example, the first major change towards a wider franchise was the 1832 Reform Act that largely enfranchised the middle classes. The breakthrough for the working classes was Disraeli's Reform Act in 1867, followed by Gladstone's Reform Act in 1884. Industrial working and living conditions allowed the lower orders to create more pressure for democratic change. Chartism was not exclusively an urban and industrially based movement but it was dominated by these elements. Governments adopted complementary policies of repression and social concessions to deal with it. Trade unions grew after they were first made illegal in Britain by the Combination Acts (1799), repealed in 1824. However, developments were slow and they had little influence until late in the nineteenth century. French governments were disturbed from about 1830 with the fall of the Bourbons. There was a revolution in 1848 against the unpopular policies of Louis Philippe. In the 1860s, Napoleon III changed course to introduce a more liberal regime. His fall in 1870 was followed by the Third Republic in which pressure from left-wing workers played an important role, in spite of continuing pressures from right-wing conservative groups. Bismarck felt most pressure from democratic groups after 1871. They had not been significant in Germany earlier. The 1848 revolution showed their limitations. Bismarck tried to kill working class demands by using reforming concessions in state socialism. Another development that was linked to industrialisation was the growth of Socialism and Marxism. Socialism in Britain might be traced from the work of Robert Owen. Marxism might be seen as a more radical form of socialism that emerged in industrial societies. However, the extent to which the three countries were democratic is arguable.

Page 9	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

4 Explain why the unified Italy of 1861 was a monarchy and not a republic.

The monarchists, looking to Piedmont, had the advantage of Cavour's skill in reorganising Piedmont, managing the incorporation of other states in northern and central Italy and making the Risorgimento respectable to other European countries. He was realistic, even if this meant the cession of Nice and Savoy to France. Cavour persuaded the republican-minded Garibaldi to hand over his gains in the south although he doubted the wisdom of a wholly unified Italy. The role of Victor Emmanuel II can be explained. This can be contrasted with the republicans who were divided. Mazzini was the most notable but others favoured different forms of republicanism. He was the most famous early advocate of a united Italy. Young Italy gave some a cause to support. However, republicanism was unpopular in many parts of Italy and distrusted in a Europe that was dominated by monarchies. Mazzini faced an Austria that was stronger than during Cavour's premiership. The 1848–49 revolution, led by Mazzini and Garibaldi, might have been heroic but the rebels were too weak militarily. Pius IX lost his enthusiasm for liberalism and this persuaded many Italian Catholics to oppose the Risorgimento in 1848–49. The Pope's attitude was less vital in the later stages of unification. Gioberti, who supported a wider Italy under the Pope, was a failure. France supported Pius IX in 1848 but changed its policies to greater neutrality by 1861. Other leaders, such as Manin in Venice, proved ineffective. Their concerns were too local to win significant support. It could be pointed out that Charles Albert, a monarchist with muddled ideas and inadequate support, failed but put down a marker about the leadership of Piedmont.

5 How important was public opinion as a reason for European involvement in 'New Imperialism' at the end of the nineteenth century? (You should refer to at least two of Britain, France and Germany in your answer.)

Imperial possessions were seen as indicative of a country's strength. Setbacks, for example Gordon's death at Khartoum (1885), reflected badly on governments (Gladstone in this case). Disraeli was a convert to empire-building when he considered the polls. There is evidence that Bismarck was reluctant, at first, to be involved in imperialism but this autocratic leader had to bow to public opinion. In France's Third Republic opinion was more divided although generally favourable. Individuals or groups such as Rhodes, Karl Peters or missionaries became heroes. Other factors that might be considered are economic motives, including the search for raw materials and hopes (mostly frustrated) for markets. There have been arguments about opportunities for the investment of surplus capital. The Hobson-Lenin line which sees it as important has been contradicted by those who point out that more was invested in non-imperial regions. Political factors include the wish to defend national interests abroad or to prevent other countries becoming dominant, hence rivalries in parts of Africa and the Far East. French overseas expansion, even in arid regions of Africa, was partly motivated by a wish to demonstrate recovery after defeat by Prussia in 1870–71. Another theory that might be discussed is the importance of accidents or local crises. A local rising persuaded Britain to exert control over the Sudan. There were parallels in South Africa and the Far East. To achieve the highest bands answers will focus on causes and should provide sufficient overseas examples.

6 Why was neither Nicholas II nor Kerensky able to retain power in Russia in 1917?

To achieve the highest bands answers will contain a comparative element which might include the continuing importance of the war or the inability of Nicholas II and Kerensky to provide effective leadership. It will be relevant to provide a background to the February revolution in order to explain the Tsar's failure but overlong accounts of pre-war developments should be avoided. By February 1917, Nicholas II's unpopularity and ineptitude were fully exposed. He lost the support of the army that had upheld the regime in 1905. Hopes of political reform were dashed. He also lost the backing of important social groups at the top of society. His personal reputation suffered because of the influence of the Tsarina and Rasputin. Government administrations were unstable. The costs of the war in terms of human loss and economic devastation touched all classes of people. Millions of men were killed or wounded. The infrastructure fell apart. Food

Page 10	Mark Scheme	Syllabus	Paper
	GCE AS/A LEVEL – May/June 2013	9697	11

shortages were widespread. Kerensky had qualities that brought him to power after the short-lived government of the aristocratic Lvov. He was popular, a good speaker and favoured change towards socialism (but not communism). However, he failed to deal urgently with the most pressing problems that caused unrest: food shortages, the land issue, a liberal constitution and peace. His weaknesses were revealed when he had to rely on the Bolsheviks to suppress Kornilov's attempted coup. Lenin and the Bolsheviks were a weak force in February 1917, they took advantage of Kerensky's problems to win support. Lenin made a vital alliance with the Soviets. His populist programme of 'Peace, Land and Bread' won support among the masses, who were disillusioned by Kerensky. The October revolution was carried out comparatively easily. It required a small show of force to win power from a helpless Kerensky.

7 'The most important reason why Hitler gained power was the impact of World War I.' Assess this claim about Germany up to 1934.

Germany's war losses were very heavy and their extent and significance can be explained. They included territorial, military and economic punishments. Again, these continued to undermine the Weimar republic. Hitler exploited discontent about the terms in his bid for power, promising to retrieve the losses and strengthen the status of the country. He used force to gain power through the SA. But he also made use of constitutional methods. Hitler pursued power through elections after the failure of the Munich Putsch (1923). He also benefited from the support of groups that believed that he could be controlled. The next steps were to crush political opposition and rival parties. Reference can be made to the Reichstag Fire (1933) and Enabling Act (1933). Hitler became Führer and almost all Germans accepted Führer power. The developments that ensured his power such as propaganda, terror and political economic and social policies can be discussed. The significance of the Wall Street Crash (1929) might be examined.

8 Did the condition of the lower classes in Russia improve or worsen during the period from 1900 to 1939?

The condition of the poor was revealed in the 1905 Revolution, which might be a starting point. The peasants were taxed heavily while rents were rising and incomes falling. Workers in towns endured appalling conditions. Witte's policies had a generally beneficial effect on the Russian economy but did nothing to improve the conditions of the poorest – they probably harmed them. The lower classes gained very little from Nicholas II's political reforms from 1906. They enjoyed little representation in the Dumas which were ineffective institutions. Stolypin aimed to solve problems by encouraging the more prosperous kulaks and repressing unrest harshly. He removed the powers of the Mir and favoured the Peasant Land Bank, moves that benefited a few. The Bolsheviks' programme promised to transform the condition of the lower classes. One of Lenin's popular slogans in 1917 was 'Peace, Land and Bread'. The basis of Marxism was a proletarian dictatorship. The reality was very different. War Communism was Lenin's response to dire economic and social conditions. The response of labourers was seen when they refused to co-operate. There were strikes. Animals were killed. Harvests suffered. Lenin showed his most dictatorial side, using the army and secret police to ensure stability. The NEP gave some respite but Lenin made it clear that he regarded it as a temporary concession. Stalin was determined to modernise Russian agriculture and industry. Some of the forceful methods that he used could be mentioned to illustrate the effects of his policies on the lower classes. He encouraged measures in collectivisation that caused widespread famine. Rebuilding industry came at a heavy cost to the workers. The success of his policies can be assessed but there is almost universal agreement about the consequences. It is difficult to decide who suffered more, workers in urban or rural areas. Taken together, millions died. Millions of others suffered in gulags.