CollegeBoard
Advanced Placement Program

AP® European History
2005 Scoring Guidelines
Form B

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Question 1—Document-Based Question

Analyze how political, religious, and social factors affected the work of scientists in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

BASIC CORE: 1 point each to a total of 6 points

1. **Has an acceptable thesis.**
   Thesis must be explicit, responsive to the question, and based on one or more documents. It may not be a simple rewording of the question or of the historical background. Thesis need not appear in the first paragraph.

2. **Uses a majority of documents.**
   Essay must use at least seven documents by reference to anything in the box, even if used incorrectly. Documents need not be cited by number or name.

3. **Addresses all parts of the question.**
   Essay must make some relevant reference to political, religious, and social factors. One document for each is sufficient to receive credit for this point.

4. **Demonstrates understanding of the documents by using them to support an argument. (May misinterpret no more than one document.)**
   A significant misinterpretation is one that leads to an inaccurate grouping or a false conclusion. Two "almost major errors" equal one major error. Errors in attempts to provide point of view should be judged less severely.

5. **Analyzes bias or point of view in at least three documents.**
   - Relates authorial point of view to author's place (position, status, etc.) OR
   - Evaluates the reliability of the source OR
   - Recognizes that different kinds of documents serve different purposes OR
   - Analyzes tone or intent of documents—three weak attempts equal one point of view.
   - Point of view can be achieved collectively through analysis of motives of a group or explanations of reasons for group's attitudes; counts as one point of view.
   - Attribution is NOT sufficient to demonstrate point of view.

6. **Analyzes documents by grouping them in at least three groups. A group must contain at least two documents**. *A fallacious grouping receives no credit.* Examples of possible groups (not exhaustive):

Political	(1, 2,5, 6, 7, 10, 11)
Religious	(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 12)
Social	(1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11)
Religious figures	(1, 2, 3, 5)
Philosophers/scientists	(1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12)
Political figures	(10, 11)

Question 1—Document-Based Question (continued)

EXPANDED CORE: 0–3 points to a total of 9 points

Students must earn all 6 points in the basic core before earning points in the expanded core. A student earns points to the degree to which he or she does one or more of the following:

Examples:

- Has a clear, analytical and comprehensive thesis.
- Uses all or almost all documents (using eight or nine of the documents is not unusual for this question).
- Uses documents persuasively as evidence.
- Shows careful and insightful analysis of the documents.
- Analyzes bias or point of view in at least four documents cited in the essay.
- Analyzes the documents in additional ways; e.g., has additional groupings or other forms of analysis, *accurately* discusses change over time.
- Brings in relevant "outside" historical content.

Question 1 Document Summary

Document 1. Nicolaus Copernicus, Polish priest and astronomer, dedication to Pope Paul III in Copernicus' book *On the Revolution of the Heavenly Spheres*, 1543.
Does not seek to avoid criticism. Book dedicated to Pope Paul because of his importance and love of science. The Pope has influence to block slander of the work. Mathematicians will agree that the book is supportive of the Church. (political, religious, social)

Document 2. John Calvin, French Protestant theologian, *Commentaries on the First Book of Moses* (Genesis), 1554.
Moses dealt with matters that were easily understood; astronomers study subjects that are much more complex. Such study should not be prohibited because critics do not understand it. Astronomy is useful to demonstrate the wisdom of God. (political, religious)

Document 3. Giovanni Ciampoli, Italian monk, letter to Galileo, 1615.
Ciampoli urges deference to authorities in the Church in order to stop critics from imputing false claims to Galileo's work. (religious, social)

Document 4. Francis Bacon, English philosopher of science, *The Great Instauration* (a plan to reorganize the sciences), 1620.
Science has made little progress because it has not sought a proper goal—the improvement of human life. (religious, social)

Document 5. Marin Mersenne, French monk and natural philosopher, letter to his noble patron, 1635.
Mersenne is willing to remove anything from his work to which the patron objects, though all statements are based on repeated experimentation and supported by witnesses to the experiments. (political, religious, social)

Document 6. Henry Oldenbury, Secretary of the English Royal Society, letter to Johannes Hevelius, German scientist, February 1663.
Interaction among researchers is important to further development of learning. There is a need for a community of scientists. (political, social)

Document 7. Thomas Hobbes, English philosopher, *Leviathan*, 1668.
Scientific discoveries that affect the interests of the powerful are called into question or suppressed when these ideas affect ambition, profit, or lust of the rulers. (political, religious, social)

Document 8. Walter Charleton, English doctor and natural philosopher, *The Natural Philosophy of Epicurus, Gassendi, and Charleton*, 1654.
Creation and arrangement of matter depends upon existence of an "Infinite Wisdom and Power." (religious)

Document 9. Margaret Cavendish, English natural philosopher*, Observations on Experimental Philosophy*, 1666.
Cavendish would establish a school of natural philosophy if women were allowed to do so. Women's intellect is at present less esteemed than was the case formerly. (social)

Question 1 Document Summary (continued)

Document 10. Drawing to commemorate Louis XIV's visit to the French Royal Academy, 1671.
The drawing demonstrates interest of the powerful sovereign in supporting scientific enterprises. Depicted are scientific instruments and specimens used in astronomy, biology, navigation, geography, etc. (political, social)

Document 11. Jean Baptiste Colbert, French Finance Minister under Louis XIV, letter, 1676.
Academies of letters and sciences have been established because they promote benefits to the state. (political, social, military)

Document 12. Gottfried Leibnitz, German philosopher, *New System of Nature*, 1695.
God has arranged the world for the benefit of the human mind. The natural law governing minds transcends physical events. (religious)

Question 2

Account for the growth and decline of European witch hunts in the period 1500 to 1650.

9–6: Stronger
- Has a clear, well-developed thesis.
- Is well organized.
- Addresses the terms of the question.
- Supports the thesis with specific evidence.
- May contain minor errors; even a 9 need not be flawless.

Indicators
- Explains at least two specific causes for growth of witch hunts.
- Explains at least two specific reasons for decline of witch hunts. (Even the strongest essays are likely to contain more relevant historical evidence for growth, rather than decline.)
- Makes some attempt to address chronological and geographic range in the supporting evidence.

5–4: Mixed
- Contains a thesis, perhaps superficial or simplistic.
- Provides uneven response to the question's terms.
- May contain errors, factual or interpretive.

Indicators
- Addresses cause(s) of growth but does not provide convincing supporting detail.
- Addresses reasons for decline but does so with little specificity.
- Has a limited geographic and/or chronological focus.

3–0: Weaker
(Essays scored 1 or 0 may attempt to address the question but fail to do so.)
- Thesis is confused, or absent, or merely restates the question.
- Misconstrues the question or omits major tasks.
- May contain major errors.

Indicators
- May refer only to growth or decline.
- Provides only general evidence as support.
- Makes no attempt to address the scope of the question.

Question 2 Historical Background

European belief in witches was widespread and predated Christianity. Witchcraft came to be considered a serious criminal offense in the latter part of the Middle Ages. Witchcraft trials were common in England, Scotland, Switzerland, Germany, France, the Low Countries, Spain, and Italy. Both Catholic and Protestant countries were affected, though the persecution of witches was most common in areas affected by religious controversy. The number of trials increased dramatically during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and most of those placed on trial were convicted. Torture was commonly used to extract confessions, and execution by burning or hanging was the usual penalty. An overwhelming percentage of those accused of witchcraft were women, and most of them were single (or widowed) older women. Most of the accused were also from the lower classes.

Reasons for persecution varied somewhat from place to place, and the reasons for the growth of this phenomenon are not fully understood.

Some of the commonly cited reasons for the growth of the European witch hunts include the following:

Gender
Misogyny was a commonly held belief, and religious beliefs often supported the inferior status of women. Belief in the inferiority of women made it easy to accept that women were susceptible to the temptations offered by the devil. Similarly, women were often viewed as sexually insatiable and, therefore, easily tempted. Some of the vocations of women (midwives, healers) were sometimes associated with the practice of magic; the need for scapegoats when things went poorly (stillborn children, for example) also undermined the position of women.

Social/political/economic factors
The turmoil caused by wars, rebellions, and economic uncertainty may have caused a backlash in society, and people were often desperate for a scapegoat for the challenges that wreaked havoc upon society (the bubonic plague, for example). The social or economic stress caused by poor, single women may also have been a factor as communities searched for ways to deal with these marginal members of society. The witch hunts may also have allowed a means to attack nonconformity and provide a mechanism for control in uncertain times.

Religious
Medieval Christianity connected a common belief in witchcraft to the activities of the devil, making witchcraft a heresy. Religious reformers emphasized the extreme powers of the devil, which may have exacerbated this factor. In the face of the religious uncertainty brought by the Protestant Reformation, there was some loss of respect for the institutional Church; thus, the persecution of witches and a desire to eliminate the belief in magic may have been attempts to regain power and conformity. Witchcraft also remained a means to explain the otherwise unexplainable at the time.

The reasons for the decline of the witch hunts include the following:

Intellectual
The emergence of the Scientific Revolution ushered in a more scientific worldview that placed greater emphasis on reason and made it more difficult to believe in witches. There was declining support for superstition, especially among the upper and educated classes as they sought more rational explanations for events. The slow advancements taking place in the medical profession also eased the scapegoating of midwives and local healers.

Question 2 Historical Background (continued)

<u>Religious</u>
Religious conflict was slowly coming to an end; the Thirty Years War ended in 1648 and was the last of the major religious wars of the period. As Protestantism matured, there was a solidification of the concept of a supreme God that made the devil seem less powerful.

<u>Social/political</u>
As witch hunts themselves grew in scope, they sometimes got out of control. Town leaders and even trial judges were sometimes accused of being in league with the devil. Thus, the trials actually became a destabilizing force in some communities as the accusations and trials got out of hand.

NOTE: Texts seem to contain more material on reasons for *growth* of witch hunts than they do on reasons for the *decline* of the phenomenon.

Question 3

Compare and contrast Enlightenment and Romantic views of the relationship between God and the individual.

9–6: Stronger
- Has a clear, well-developed thesis.
- Is well organized.
- Addresses the terms of the question.
- Supports the thesis with specific evidence.
- May contain minor errors; even a 9 need not be flawless.

Indicators
- Describes both similarities and differences in views of the relationship between God and the individual, though differences (or similarities) may be more developed.
- Refers to specific individuals, works, and/or doctrines as supporting evidence.
- Indicates understanding of the Enlightenment and Romantic movements; may be contextual.

5–4: Mixed:
- Contains a thesis, perhaps superficial or simplistic.
- Provides uneven response to the question's terms.
- May contain errors, factual or interpretive.

Indicators
- Acknowledges (without development) both similarities and differences in views of the relationship between God and the individual OR may only focus on one aspect of compare/contrast.
- Suggests some understanding of the two periods, though essay may be unbalanced (i.e., places heavier emphasis on one period over another).
- May offer limited relevant evidence.

3–0: Weaker:
(Essays scored 1 or 0 may attempt to address the question but fail to do so.)
- Thesis is confused, or absent, or merely restates the question.
- Misconstrues the question or omits major tasks.
- May contain major errors.

Indicators
- May ignore compare/contrast aspect of the prompt entirely.
- Shows little or no understanding of the Enlightenment and Romantic movements.
- Provides only general evidence or evidence that does not attempt to address views of the relationship between God and the individual.

Question 3 Historical Background

The Enlightenment is a movement generally associated with the eighteenth century. The Newtonian world view that emerged from the Scientific Revolution emphasized a rationality that governed the physical world and, by extension, this reason could be applied to society.

John Locke was an important forerunner of the Enlightenment. His *tabula rasa* theory had important implications about human nature and undermined the Christian assertion that humankind was inherently sinful.

The eighteenth century brought a decline in superstition. A new skepticism was typified by the work of Pierre Bayle, who remained a Protestant while criticizing traditional religious attitudes. Bayle argued that religion and morality were not necessarily linked. In general, Enlightenment thinkers rejected acceptance of ideas by faith alone and advocated instead for rational, scientific ways of thinking.

Though the Enlightenment was a principally secular movement, prominent philosophes had strong religious views. Deism, a belief in a distant God who created the natural world and then stepped back from man's daily life (a "divine watchmaker"), was advocated by thinkers such as Voltaire. Many philosophes also shared a common belief in religious toleration. Later philosophes were more radical in their religious beliefs; some, like David Hume and Baron d'Holbach supported atheism. These views did not represent the only approach to religion during the period, and many people continued to embrace more traditional views of religion. Other perspectives on God during the period produced powerful religious statements; for example, the influential religious music of Bach and Handel was generated during this period.

In the latter eighteenth century, other thinkers began to attack the Enlightenment's faith in reason, progress, and moderation. Some, like Jean-Jacques Rousseau, strongly influenced the Romantic movement, which rebelled against Enlightenment thought. While Rousseau rejected some of the rigidity and dogma of organized Christianity, he maintained a belief in a more loving, personal God.

Romanticism, a movement in art, literature, and music, emerged in the nineteenth century as a reaction against the Enlightenment's emphasis on reason. Romantics rejected the mechanical view of human nature and the physical world that had been embraced in the Enlightenment. The movement was marked by an emphasis on emotion, imagination, individualism, and spontaneity. Romantic writers and artists valued imagination and intuition as a means to perceive the world beyond the strictly rational. Romantics also embraced nature, expressed especially in the work of poets such as William Wordsworth; Romantics sometimes viewed nature as a means to reveal the glory of God. Some artists and writers believed that the imagination of the artist was a manifestation of God at work within the mind.

Embedded within the Romantic movement was a religious reaction to Enlightenment skepticism and traditional religious dogma; Romantics often turned instead to the inner emotions of humankind for religious inspiration. During the eighteenth century, a religious revival known as the Great Awakening took place among some Protestants. Its beginning included a Protestant revival known as Pietism, which began in Germany and was spread by the teachings of Count von Zinzendorf of the Moravian Brethren; Pietism emphasized an emotionalism in religious life that was believed to be lacking in more traditional approaches to Christianity.

The Moravians had a profound impact on John Wesley, who embraced the emotionalism of the movement. The Anglican Church rejected Wesley's teachings; by the late eighteenth century, a separate movement known as Methodism had formed with Wesley as its founder. This evangelical movement rejected such concepts as Calvinist predestination and emphasized emotional, inner faith as a means to salvation.

Question 3 Historical Background (continued)

Continental Europe also saw the spread of religious revivalism. Francois Rene de Chateaubriand wrote an influential work known as *The Genius of Christianity* that advocated "passion" as the foundation of true religious belief. This work helped to spark a Roman Catholic revivalism, especially in France.

Question 4

Discuss the impact of industrialization and urbanization on working-class families from 1750 to 1900.

9–6: Stronger
- Has a clear, well-developed thesis.
- Is well organized.
- Addresses the terms of the question.
- Supports the thesis with specific evidence.
- May contain minor errors; even a 9 need not be flawless.

Indicators
- Explains impact of *both* industrialization and urbanization on working-class families.
- Addresses changes that occurred over the time period specified in the question.
- Utilizes specific and relevant supporting detail; the strongest essays may recognize distinctions between Great Britain and the Continent.

5–4: Mixed
- Contains a thesis, perhaps superficial or simplistic.
- Provides uneven response to the question's terms.
- May contain errors, factual or interpretive.

Indicators
- Mentions both industrialization and urbanization but develops one significantly more than the other or conflates the two terms.
- May focus on the early industrialization and urbanization movements with little attention given to changes in latter part of the period specified in the question.
- May offer only minimal or superficial evidence related to impact upon working-class families.

3–0: Weaker
(Essays scored 1 or 0 may attempt to address the question but fail to do so.)
- Thesis is confused, or absent, or merely restates the question.
- Misconstrues the question or omits major tasks.
- May contain major errors.

Indicators
- May focus exclusively on industrialization or urbanization.
- Offers little or no connection between industrialization/urbanization and working-class family life.
- Contains little or no supporting evidence.

Question 4 Historical Background

Relevant Concepts and Information (Pre-1850)

Urbanization
- The earliest urban centers emerged in previously rural areas near water sources for power and transportation.
- Cities were migration centers for unemployed rural workers, especially as the Enclosure Acts and other developments changed land ownership patterns.
- Those in foundling hospitals and other charitable institutions were often sources of labor in the newly emerging cities.
- Proper sanitation continued to be a dilemma in rapidly growing cities and living conditions were often substandard, especially among the poorest members of the citizenry.
- Young women moved to towns, often seeking domestic work. Some of these young women fell into prostitution when other opportunities were not available.
- Migrant labor was common; workers would travel to cities for part of the year and then return to their rural homes.

Industrialization
- The domestic system of manufacturing was gradually replaced by the factory system.
- In early industrialization, it was common for the entire family to work as a unit in the factory; in fact, home life and economic life were often inseparable.
- In early industrialization, the father went to work in the newly emerging factories. Later, women and children were preferred, since they could be paid lower wages, were easier to control, and had the nimble fingers often necessary for factory work.
- Children were often strictly disciplined. Discipline by parents at home was extended into the work setting.
- Unemployment was often high among men, and alcoholism was a common problem. Criminal activity also increased.
- The Factory Acts (1833) and other legislation curtailed child labor, which served to weaken the family unit as a working unit.
- Marriages tended to occur earlier and large families were common.
- Because of changing living patterns, there was an increase in illegitimate births; many infants were turned over to foundling hospitals.
- Some working women engaged wet nurses so that they could continue to work.
- Traditional work patterns and the nature of the work itself were altered as machines drove labor needs; in turn, this shaped family relations, since families no longer worked together.
- High food costs affected the quality of working-class family life.

Question 4 Historical Background (continued)

Relevant Concepts and Information (Post-1850)

Urbanization
- Large urban centers emerged as industry was increasingly driven by new sources of power. By the mid-nineteenth century, half of England's population was urban.
- Rapidly growing cities were often marked by the emergence of slum districts for the working class (e.g., Manchester, London).
- Improved sanitation and safer water supplies brought improvements to overall living conditions in cities.
- Infant mortality rates decreased as a result of sanitation improvements and greater awareness of public health issues.
- Wages rose for many workers after midcentury, improving access to better housing and food.
- Opportunities to develop common class interests emerged socially and politically.
- Workers turned to new institutions for support; democracy and a growing franchise brought the advent of mass political parties that increasingly recognized the power of the working class.
- Trade unions were legalized in a growing number of countries by the latter part of the nineteenth century; their activities were aimed at improving working conditions and compensation.
- Socialism also emerged as an ideology aimed at improving the lot of the working class.

Industrialization
- The family declined as a work unit in both agriculture and industry.
- Traditional marriage patterns changed as mutual selection became more common. Children of urban, working-class families often sought employment while living at home in order to save money before marriage.
- There were an increased number of children conceived outside wedlock (pregnant brides).
- Domestic service and sometimes even prostitution were stages in life for young women that were eventually followed by marriage.
- The growing popularity of birth control led to smaller families. (Children were no longer permitted in the factories, so they were no longer economically advantageous in the short term.)
- Working families were often nuclear, but they maintained strong kinship ties (especially during challenging times, such as illness, death, unemployment, etc.).
- The overall number of hours that people worked decreased, allowing for increased time spent with family.
- Childhood ended for many at age 8 or 9 due to apprenticeship or odd jobs; opportunities for basic education increased.
- Young working-class women worked until marriage. Only the poorest women continued to work outside the home after marriage, though many engaged in piecework at home.
- More prosperous working-class families sought to mirror the values of the middle class (respectability, cult of domesticity, etc.).
- Social changes occurred gradually and unevenly as Western, Central, and Eastern Europe experienced urbanization and industrialization somewhat differently.

Question 5

Discuss the economic policies and institutions that characterized mercantilist systems from 1600 to 1800.

9–6: Stronger
- Has a clear, well-developed thesis.
- Is well organized.
- Addresses the terms of the question.
- Supports the thesis with specific evidence.
- May contain minor errors; even a 9 need not be flawless.

Indicators
- Examines both policies (trade, monopoly, state control, warfare, etc.) and institutions (colonies, bureaucracy, etc.); treatment may be conflated.
- Utilizes specific supporting evidence from more than one country OR offers multiple, well-developed examples from one country. (This latter approach is not sufficient for an essay to score in the 9–8 range.)
- Demonstrates understanding of mercantilism; may be contextual.

5–4: Mixed
- Contains a thesis, perhaps superficial or simplistic.
- Provides uneven response to the question's terms.
- May contain errors, factual or interpretive.

Indicators
- Makes some attempt to discuss both policies and institutions, but treatment is very uneven and/or confused.
- May have limited geographic and/or chronological scope.
- Suggests superficial understanding of mercantilism.

3–0: Weaker
(Essays scored 1 or 0 may attempt to address the question but fail to do so.)
- Thesis is confused, or absent, or merely restates the question.
- Misconstrues the question or omits major tasks.
- May contain major errors.

Indicators
- May focus exclusively on policies or institutions with no recognition of the scope of the question.
- Contains very limited or general supporting evidence.
- Demonstrates little or no understanding of mercantilism.

Question 5 Historical Background

Mercantilism was a collection of governmental policies designed to regulate economic activity by and for the state. Conventional economic thought in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries held that a nation's power was measured by its wealth, specifically its gold supply. Because resources were limited and the amount of trade finite, state intervention was necessary to protect economic interests and to secure the largest part of limited resources. The accumulation of gold and silver was an important component of mercantilist theory. To accumulate precious metals, it was necessary for a nation to export more than it imported.

Warfare was sometimes a means to economic growth from a mercantilist point of view, since conquering another's territory meant transferring wealth from one nation to another. The amassing of colonial lands was also an important component, since colonies provided markets and natural resources for the home country in exchange for military protection and political authority.

Tariffs and other trade laws were used to try to create monopolies within nations or colonial empires. In reality, however, the system was never as tight as it seemed in theory; colonies and home countries could not provide exclusive markets for each other, and the colonies themselves sometimes attempted to circumvent the system by trading with each other.

Governments sought to encourage skilled workers from one area to migrate to their own nations, while discouraging their own workers from taking advantage of the same opportunities, lest they take important trade secrets with them.

When individual merchants were not able to take advantage of opportunities on their own due to the need for capital or additional support, these merchants and government officials came together to form state-supported companies for transoceanic trade. By the early seventeenth century, a growing number of these companies existed; the British East India Company, established in 1600, was one such example. Some of these companies were failures, however, and shook the confidence of investors.

Adam Smith's *The Wealth of Nations* was sharply critical of mercantilism, especially its emphasis on monopolies and protective tariffs.

Highlights from leading practitioners of mercantilism:

France
King Louis XIV's chief financial minister, Jean-Baptiste Colbert, became a leading proponent of mercantilism. Colbert advocated a favorable balance of trade for France, and he worked to take advantage of France's vast claims in Canada. His goal was to make France self-sufficient, since he believed that trade led to inevitable conflict among nations. Colbert utilized state support of both existing and newly created industries to achieve self-sufficiency. For example, he granted royal privileges to luxury industries (lace making, tapestry weaving, etc.) to encourage growth, and he granted special privileges to skilled foreign craftsmen willing to immigrate to France.

To improve communication and transportation for trade, Colbert undertook massive public works projects to improve roads, canals, and bridges in France. He also abolished many domestic tariffs (the Five Great Farms created a free trade zone within France, for example) and simultaneously placed high tariffs on imported goods to reduce competition. Colbert also succeeded in creating a powerful merchant marine to transport French goods.

Question 5 Historical Background (continued)

Great Britain

The factor that separated the British practice of mercantilism from that on the Continent was the idea that government economic regulation could also serve the private sector; in France and elsewhere, mercantilist views put the needs of the state far above those of private interests. Another key feature of British mercantilism was the abolition of guilds, for they were viewed as conservative and a hindrance to economic growth.

The British relied heavily on their colonial empire to promote economic growth within the confines of mercantilist thought. The British East India Company was given exclusive rights to Asian trade and proved very successful. Other ventures, such as the Royal African Company, were less successful, however.

The Navigation Acts, established in 1651, remained in effect until 1786. British merchants and ship owners created a virtual monopoly on trade with their colonies. Colonists had to use British ships for their goods, and they were also expected to buy almost all of their European goods from Britain in order to provide British merchants and workers with profits and employment. The initial target of the Navigation Acts was the Dutch. Successful wars with France and Spain also resulted in British control of the West African slave trade, or *asiento.*

Netherlands

The Dutch East India Company was established in 1602 to exploit the riches of Asia gained at the expense of Portugal. The company was initially enormously profitable, though the Dutch West India Company, established in 1621, was less successful.

Colonies were established in North America but were eventually lost to Dutch rivals in the New World. Warfare with Britain and France in the latter part of the seventeenth century undermined the Dutch commercial empire. However, the Dutch were more willing to treat gold as a commodity (rather than simply something for accumulation), so they were able to pioneer a lucrative triangular trade system and develop financial institutions that were critical to their commercial success. The Dutch merchant fleet was the largest in Europe during much of the period; indeed, mercantilist policies in France and Britain were initially designed to counter Dutch commercial success.

Other areas, including Spain, the German states, and Russia experimented with various aspects of mercantilism. Spain fought feverishly to maintain its colonies and acquire large amounts of gold and silver from them. Prussia welcomed Protestant and Jewish refugees as skilled laborers, and the Prussian government encouraged development of industry. Peter I of Russia had been deeply impressed with the mercantilist policies of Colbert in France and attempted to implement similar policies in Russia to spur economic growth.

Question 6

Compare and contrast the victorious Allied powers' treatment of Germany after the First World War with their treatment of Germany after the Second World War. Analyze the reasons for the similarities and differences.

9–6: Stronger
- Has a clear, well-developed thesis.
- Is well organized.
- Addresses the terms of the question.
- Supports the thesis with specific evidence.
- May contain minor errors; even a 9 need not be flawless.

Indicators
- Discusses treatment of Germany after both the First and Second World Wars using specific supporting evidence.
- Describes both similarities and differences in treatment; one area may be more developed than the other.
- Develops at least one reason for similarities and/or differences; essays in the 9–8 range will develop more than one reason.

5–4 Mixed
- Contains a thesis, perhaps superficial or simplistic.
- Provides uneven response to the question's terms.
- May contain errors, factual or interpretive.

Indicators
- Discusses treatment of Germany after both the First and Second World Wars but does so with limited supporting evidence.
- May focus only on one aspect of compare/contrast OR offer only superficial treatment.
- Offers superficial or vague reasons for similarities and differences in treatment.

3–0: Weaker
(Essays scored 1 or 0 may attempt to address the question but fail to do so.)
- Thesis is confused, or absent, or merely restates the question.
- Misconstrues the question or omits major tasks.
- May contain major errors.

Indicators
- May contain little or no supporting evidence about treatment of Germany following one or both of the wars.
- May ignore the compare/contrast aspect of the question entirely.
- Offers little or no explanation of reasons for the similarities and differences in treatment.

Question 6 Historical Background

Following World War I

The German government asked for peace at the end of World War I on the basis of the Fourteen Points put forth by Woodrow Wilson. Emperor William II abdicated, and a republican, socialist-led government signed the armistice. The German people were largely unaware that their army had been defeated; therefore, they expected a mild postwar settlement and felt betrayed by the Versailles agreements.

Wilson's idealism came into conflict with the more practical war aims and secret treaties of the other victorious powers. The British and French people had been told that Germany would be made to pay for the war. France was eager to weaken Germany in order to preserve French superiority. Germany attempted to play on the fears about the spread of communism to get better terms, but the Allies (especially the French) were not swayed.

Germany was excluded from the peace negotiations; they were simply presented with a treaty and compelled to accept it, thus undermining the concept of "peace without victors" and giving justification to the complaint that the treaty had been dictated.

As a result of the peace treaties, France received Alsace-Lorraine as territorial compensation from Germany and gained the right to work the coal mines of the Saar for 15 years. The creation of the League of Nations was an essential part of the peace negotiations, yet Germany was originally excluded from membership. Germany west of the Rhine (and 50 km to the east) was made a demilitarized zone as a concession to French demands for a buffer zone; Allied troops were permitted on the west bank for 15 years. Germany also lost part of Silesia, and East Prussia was cut off from the rest of Germany by the Polish Corridor. German colonies were awarded to the League of Nations as mandates, though in reality they were administered by the Allied powers.

France and Britain demanded reparations to pay for civilian and military costs of the war and to offset their own debts to the United States. The war guilt clause was added as justification for huge reparation demands. The French invasion of the Ruhr in 1923 in response to failure to meet reparations demands exacerbated economic problems; the reparations were eventually renegotiated under the Dawes plan. The Locarno agreement solidified French and German borders, partially easing tensions between the two nations.

Following World War II

Germany surrendered in May 1945 with demands by the Allies calling for unconditional surrender.

Several meetings during the war (Atlantic Charter, Tehran, Yalta) had already laid some groundwork for a peace settlement. Great Britain, the USSR, and the U.S. had agreed on German disarmament, denazification, and division into four zones of occupation (to include France). Stalin also demanded $20 billion in reparations; this point was never agreed upon and eventually became a source of contention between the Soviets and the other Allies.

At Potsdam, the Soviet frontier was moved far into Poland and included most of German East Prussia. Poland gained East Prussia and part of Germany east of the Oder-Neisser River. Potsdam also solidified plans for four zones of occupation for Germany.

Question 6 Historical Background (continued)

Allied powers continued to have some differences over the fate of post–World War II Germany. The Soviets feared a strong, self-sufficient Germany and took action to dismantle German industry in their zone of occupation. The other Allies (led by the United States) were more conciliatory, believing that restoring Germany's industrial base would create a strong, self-sufficient economy that would be resistant to political turmoil and communism. When the Western powers agreed to go forward with a separate constitution for the western sectors in 1948, the Soviets refused to participate. They attempted an unsuccessful blockade of Berlin (within the Soviet sector but divided among all four powers).

Cold War tension led to a separation of Germany into West Germany (German Federal Republic) and East Germany (German Democratic Republic) until 1989. The Allies continued to oversee the development of political institutions in West Germany until 1951; the Soviets established East Germany as nominally independent by 1955, but it remained a satellite of the USSR.

The division of Germany became a major consequence of the emergence of the Cold War, marked by the policy of containment and the Marshall Plan. West Germany was one of the primary beneficiaries of the economic aid provided by the Marshall Plan. Eastern European nations (including East Germany) were invited to take part; the Soviets, however, refused to allow them to participate, fearing the erosion of control in their newly created satellite nations.

The NATO agreement was signed in 1949, and West Germany was permitted to join several years later. The Warsaw Pact was signed in 1955 among the Soviet satellites, including East Germany, and solidified the division of Europe into two unfriendly blocs. The Cold War hastened the acceptance by the Western powers of German rearmament; though France initially objected, West Germany was fully rearmed by 1955.

Question 7

Analyze the factors responsible for decolonization since the Second World War.

9–6: Stronger
- Has a clear, well-developed thesis.
- Is well organized.
- Addresses the terms of the question.
- Supports the thesis with specific evidence.
- May contain minor errors; even a 9 need not be flawless.

Indicators
- Explains at least three factors responsible for decolonization (may be contextual within examples) OR may *thoroughly* discuss two relevant factors.
- Provides specific evidence about individuals, colonies, and/or colonizers associated with the process.
- Attempts to discuss factors that address a geographic or chronological range (e.g., British *and* French decolonization efforts).

5–4: Mixed
- Contains a thesis, perhaps superficial or simplistic.
- Provides uneven response to the question's terms.
- May contain errors, factual or interpretive.

Indicators
- Identifies three factors without offering explanatory details OR offers superficial discussion of only two factors.
- Provides limited specific evidence of individuals, colonies and/or colonizers associated with the process.
- May have limited geographic and/or chronological scope.

3–0: Weaker
(Essays scored 1 or 0 may attempt to address the question but fail to do so.)
- Thesis is confused, or absent, or merely restates the question.
- Misconstrues the question or omits major tasks.
- May contain major errors.

Indicators
- May identify only one relevant reason for decolonization.
- Provides little or no specific supporting evidence about individuals, colonies, or colonizers.
- Offers little or no analysis.

Question 7 Historical Background

Effects of World War II

- Wartime weakening of colonial regimes and colonial powers; troops returned to Europe to participate in the war effort.
- Japan's wartime success in ousting Europeans and Americans as colonial powers.
- Prewar and wartime promises regarding autonomy (e.g., Britain and India).
- World War II Allied war aim for self-determination undermined the holding of colonies.
- Allied, especially French, feelings of indebtedness to some of the nations of Africa for their role in World War II.
- Wartime experiences and rapid economic development of the Middle East.
- The need to focus resources on the rebuilding of Europe after the war, rather than on maintenance of colonial empires.

International Pressures and Factors

- Pressure from the U.S. to push forward with decolonization efforts in light of growing civil rights movement.
- Eclipse of Europe's power (e.g., Suez Crisis of 1956).
- Soviet and Chinese support for anticolonial movements.
- Distraction caused by escalating Cold War tensions.
- Easing of Soviet control over Eastern European satellites (an "informal" imperialism) and eventual break-up of the Soviet Union.

New Intellectual and Political Currents

- New generation of nationalist leaders in colonies, some of whom had been educated in Europe (e.g., Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya); their names became known in the European press.
- New attitudes among European leadership (e.g., British Prime Minister Harold MacMillan's "Winds of Change" speech).
- Loss of European self-confidence and feeling of moral superiority/justification.
- Rising self-confidence among colonial peoples.
- Democratization of European states (e.g., Portugal, Spain); Mozambique and Angola were liberated after a revolution in Portugal in 1974.

National and Colonial Resistance

- Growing modern nationalist movements in many colonies.
- Anticolonial warfare, including Communist resistance to the colonial nations (e.g., Algeria, Kenya, Vietnam, Indonesia, South Africa, Angola, Mozambique).
- Passive resistance by colonized people (e.g., Gandhi, Nehru).
- Mass political demands for liberation.

Question 7 Historical Background (continued)

Other Key Developments

- Britain led the way in postwar decolonization. India was independent by 1947, and Burma and Sri Lanka gained independence in 1948. In some cases (Ghana, Nigeria) decolonization was planned, while in other cases (Malta, Cyprus, Middle East) it was under pressure.
- The Dutch and the Belgians withdrew amid turmoil from the East Indies and the Belgian Congo, respectively.
- The French tried to maintain their possessions, though they were driven out of Southeast Asia by 1954, Algeria by 1962; they lost their sub-Saharan colonies in a series of referendums on independence.