

MARK SCHEME for the May/June 2014 series

9697 HISTORY

9697/06

Paper 6, 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.

Cambridge will not enter into discussions about these mark schemes.

Cambridge is publishing the mark schemes for the May/June 2014 series for most IGCSE, GCE Advanced Level and Advanced Subsidiary Level components and some Ordinary Level components.

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GENERIC MARK BANDS FOR ESSAY QUESTIONS

Examiners will assess which Level of Response best reflects most of the answer. An answer will be required to demonstrate all of the descriptions in a particular Level to qualify for a Mark Band. In bands of 3 marks, examiners will normally award the middle mark, moderating it up or down according to the particular qualities of the answer. In bands of 2 marks, examiners should award the lower mark if an answer just deserves the band and the higher mark if the answer clearly deserves the 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 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>

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Section A: Source-based question

1 'Between 1838 and 1865, the sugar economy of the British Caribbean was ruined.' How does the evidence of Sources A–E support this statement?

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

These answers write generally about the ruin of the sugar economy but they ignore the key issues in the question i.e. they do not use the sources as information/evidence to test the hypothesis. Include in this level answers which use information from the sources but only in providing a summary of views expressed by the writer, rather than testing the hypothesis.

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 A, B and E offer support.*

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

As L2 these answers use the sources at face value. They show that testing the hypothesis involves both attempting to confirm and to disprove it.

For example: *Source C shows hope and Source D describes growing success in Barbados.*

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

These answers show a capacity to use sources as evidence, e.g. demonstrating their ability in testing the hypothesis, by interpreting them in their historical context, i.e. not simply accepting them at their face value.

For example: *At face value Sources A and B do seem to support the hypothesis but Source A is dated early and British Guiana later recovered. Source B is only slightly later in date and Source C offers a different view of Trinidad.*

L5 BY INTERPRETING/EVALUATING SOURCES IN CONTEXT, FINDS EVIDENCE TO CHALLENGE AND SUPPORT THE HYPOTHESIS [17–21]

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

For example: *As L4 plus uses C to contrast with B as both are about Trinidad (both sources are from the Governor). Source D shows that whatever is happening elsewhere, Barbados took a steady path of improvement, contrasting with the decline in Jamaica in Source E.*

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

For (a) the argument must be that the evidence for agreeing/disagreeing is better/preferred. This must involve a comparative judgement, i.e. not just why some evidence is better, but also why other evidence is worse.

For example: *Only Source E fully supports the hypothesis. Sources A and B are early in the period and reflect early problems after full emancipation. Using contextual knowledge, British Guiana had increased production by 1865.*

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: *Of the major producers, Jamaica was the exception. The others faced problems but were not ruined. Documents record success in Trinidad and Barbados. (Candidates may point to longer term issues.)*

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Section B

2 How important were the activities of the anti-slavery reformers in bringing about emancipation in the Caribbean?

Historiography

- Traditionally, the successful abolitionist campaigns in Britain, France, Netherlands and Spain were viewed as a victory for humanitarianism over oppression.
- More recently another interpretation became more prevalent, stressing economic motivations. Slavery was no longer profitable. Slavery was ended less by religious and humanitarian impulse than the demand of European capitalism.
- Most recently the significance of the actions of the slaves themselves has been an area of focus for Caribbean historians.
- Other considerations, self-emancipation (Haiti, Danish St Croix), 'it was the Jamaican rebellion that proved the decisive factor', political changes, relative decline of sugar, British example.

By nations

- British emancipation came first: campaign for emancipation, 1823 Society for the Mitigation and Gradual Abolition of Slavery, 1830 Agency Committee and Whigs in power, active abolition movement, Jamaica revolt, new economic directions.
- France, government under pressure from Société pour l'abolition de l'esclavage, 1840 Amelioration, Victor Schoelcher created consciousness on the issue and secured passage 1849: free trade, sugar beet.
- Danish had planned long-term abolition 1846–47, St Croix 1848.
- Dutch, Suriname was a sugar colony, Abolition Society 1840 following British example (propaganda depicting cruelty), contribution to the national economy questioned.
- Spain, anti-slavery sentiment developed, anti-slavery movement harassed by government but influential through newspapers and pamphlets. Impact of 10 Years War, slave resistance, government acted 1880.

France provided the clearest case of emancipation that demonstrated how the politics of anti-slavery and the economics of free trade combined to destroy the slave system. All free traders insisted that slavery was bad for metropolitan exporters – a slave by definition had little disposable income and was a poor consumer. It was not clear why slaves' struggle should be considered as secondary or peripheral.

3 How successful were the apprenticeship schemes in British and Dutch Caribbean territories

There were substantial similarities in the schemes introduced by the British (1834) and Dutch (1863) governments. British terms included a four or six year term of transition from slavery to freedom, manumission on fair payment, unpaid labour (40.5 hours per week) over that paid, Stipendiary Magistrates to supervise. Dutch conditions involved apprenticeship for those aged 15–60 years, on a minimum wage for 10 years; freed people could choose their employer and sign contracts.

Neither scheme satisfied the various people involved. The British scheme favoured ex-slave owners who exercised customary powers over freed people, refused fair wages. There were disputes over hours of work and the high value of manumission. Stipendiary Magistrates were seen as part of the problem: there were too few of them, they were poorly paid, some became 'planters men' or were seen as favouring the apprentices. By 1837 the system was seen as ineffective; opposition increased both in the Caribbean and Britain. Colonies abandoned the scheme in 1838. The Dutch scheme did not work well either. Labourers refused to return to

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plantations and found ways around the scheme (moved to main towns or to British Guiana). Planters complained of excessive wage demands, laziness and indiscipline on the part of the freed people.

Candidates may approach the question of 'how successful' in different ways. There are critical points to be made about the details of the schemes, how they worked out in detail, about the balance between former owners and former slave expectations and about supervision. In the end, the British scheme ended prematurely (all freed in 1838) and with wide consent, leaving an issue about shortage of labour on estates. The Dutch scheme ran its full course without major disturbances but left the plantation system weakened.

4 To what extent did the lives of freed people change after full freedom was achieved?

There was a sort of balance. The coming of emancipation gave freed people unprecedented control over their social movement, greater bargaining power over wages and conditions, and the right to relocate, to form new communities. Aspirations included escaping from the hardships and humiliations of slavery, freedom of movement, consolidation of family life, just and equitable wages, loose labour arrangements and easy access to provision grounds. On the other hand justice in courts remained elusive, public amenities scarcely deserved the name, cultural expression was suppressed. Emancipation was a managed operation, managed from the top and not intended to have fundamental social and economic consequences – the power equation was against them.

Options available to freed people (relating to landlord labour):

- remain on the plantation, move to another plantation, join a labour gang for day or task work
- seek to achieve a certain distance from the plantation, divide time between plantation labour and part time family cultivation of food crops
- migrate to other islands, towns, hills, squats, farm villages and choose when and where to work
- move completely away from rural areas to establish a new lifestyles in towns.

Jamaicans tested their freedom with physical movement. In the 1840s free villages were formed with the help from Baptist ministers. Villages were often close to the plantations so that they had a source of income to supplement their own produce. Reduced child labour and that of women suggest that a division of labour within families was taking place. Most commonly the family worked to cultivate provisions and the women did the marketing. Small patches of land were purchased, even when prices rose.

Freed people valued most the things denied them as slaves, a home and control of their own labour. They were anxious to apply their labour in a manner and at the time of their own choosing. This was exactly the opposite of what slavery had been.

Free villages and peasantries were formed in many parts of the Caribbean, marking the desire of freed people to change their lives and 'actualise their freedom'. Candidates should be able to provide examples – in Jamaica the share of small settlers in total agricultural output rose from about half in 1850 to nearly three quarters in 1890.

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5 Why were some Caribbean territories more favourable than others to the rise of the peasantry?

Freed people moved off the estates and formed free villages in all parts of the Caribbean. Jamaica was the outstanding example. Various factors were involved:

- proportion of population to land, high density areas were more restrictive
- sugar plantation oriented elite were reluctant to sell land and, through Assemblies, were restrictive
- cost of land was an issue
- geography could limit suitable land
- availability of help – role of missionaries
- Colonial Office supported free villages where they would benefit sugar estates and opposed them where they would not.

The establishment of peasantries was not easy. Landed elites tried to prevent access to land. The peasantry was seen as detrimental. In Antigua, St Kitts and Barbados the land was mostly owned by whites. There was no widespread help from missionaries. In Barbados the plantation sector had a monopoly of land. There was no crown land, prices were high and wages low. Obstacles were no less in large territories where planters were reluctant to sell land, especially early in the period. In Jamaica land prices were also high and wages were low. In British Guiana the planter class persuaded the governor to pass laws to restrict the development of free villages, in 1852 banning the purchase of land by groups of more than 20, in 1856 by more than 10. In Trinidad, Stipendiary Magistrates had powers to restrict squatters on crown lands.

Despite obstacles freed people in most territories found ways to overcome them. In Barbados, where conditions were against the development of the peasantry there were 2674 freeholders in 1860 and 8500 in 1897. In Jamaica by 1842 there were 200 freeholder villages. There was aid from missionaries and anti-slavery societies. The post-slavery period in British Guiana witnessed one of the greatest expressions of land hunger among emancipated blacks in the Caribbean.

At emancipation Trinidad had over 1 million acres of crown land. Much of the land in private ownership was uncultivated. It was virtually impossible for the state and landowning classes to prevent peasantry developing, despite efforts to do so.

6 To what extent was there a shortage of labour on sugar estates after emancipation laws came into full effect?

There is no date boundary. Candidates may concentrate on the early part of the period or go beyond that to include immigration. During apprenticeship the question was raised about how the former slaves would respond to freedom. Would there be a large scale abandonment of the estates?

Jamaica is a major example of what happened. It was a large island with a large population of freed slaves (312,000) but with much land not under cultivation. The peasantry developed quickly (partly rejection of plantations, partly response to coercive actions of planters). Many abandoned work on sugar, wholly or partly. There was a labour shortage. Though immigration was considered, no large scale scheme was implemented.

Other territories which had low population densities were British Guiana and Trinidad. British Guiana had 83,000 freed slaves, Trinidad 21,000. Each was recently acquired by Britain and had much uncultivated land, the sugar industry was developing. Various schemes for immigration were tried. The inadequate labour situation was largely solved after 1850 by immigration schemes developed with the support of the government.

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The main areas of higher density population were Antigua, St Kitts and, especially Barbados. The area of Barbados was 430 square kilometres; it had 83,000 freed slaves, 230 per square kilometre. By comparison Jamaica's population density was 27. In these smaller islands there was little opportunity to make a living off the estates. Planters had the upper hand in labour relations; plots were insufficiently large to provide subsistence levels of produce, so plantation labour was inevitable for most. In Antigua also there was no alternative but to accept wage labour. Within two months of emancipation there, two-thirds of the former slaves had returned to plantations.

Immigration was widespread, not just into British colonies. French and Dutch colonies resorted to immigration, suggesting labour shortages. In very difficult circumstances, the workforce in Cuba was augmented by immigration.

7 How effectively was education provided for the masses in post-slavery Caribbean societies?

Before emancipation, few black children were given an education. In British colonies, the Act of Emancipation provided for a grant to be made to promote education for ex-slaves. This Negro Education Grant was to last until 1845.

In addition funds were available from the Mico Charity and local legislatures. The actual provision of schools was left to the churches (through missionaries). At first there was significant enthusiasm among freed people for education, but the provision of schools was uneven, the curriculum was literary, attendance was sporadic, there was no regular inspection to check on standards. When the grant ended, local legislatures were left to continue the work.

Over the later years, economic issues, as well as the attitudes of legislatures, meant that funding was low. The early enthusiasm waned as concerns about the purposes of education were raised. Planters wanted 'industrial education', or even opposed the provision. Freed people looked for education leading to social change. The influence of missionaries declined. Attendance fell after 1850. The presence of Indian immigrants introduced other concerns about education.

Trinidad had particular problems before immigration. Denominational rivalries, Anglican and Catholic, led to suggestions for non-church schools to be provided. British Guiana had a mix of problems, a local commission in 1851 defined obstacles to progress – lack of money, variety of races, languages and creeds and concentration on religious education. A secular system was suggested. Institutionally the provision of schools took time. With the institution of crown colony, government education remained a problem. Jamaica had 400 schools in 1867, 900 by 1896.

Education was limited in extent and quality. Most colonies spent only 5% of revenue on education. Only half of children of primary age attended any school. Less than 5% had any sort of secondary education. The type of education was irrelevant to the social needs of ex-slaves. The planters' aim was to inculcate obedience and duty. Post-1850 there was a wider curriculum based on British models, but this was still irrelevant. Little was done about scientific or practical training.

Toward 1900, attendance and enrolment rose steadily. Schooling might allow the children of freed people to rise above wage labour and achieve a kind of middle class status. The emancipation of slaves offered the first opportunity to provide schooling for the mass of the people.

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8 How did the former slave owners retain control over colonial governments in the British Caribbean after emancipation?

Two different systems were in use. Older colonies used the Old Colonial System (Legislative System) – Barbados, Jamaica, Antigua, St Kitts, Nevis, Montserrat, Virgin Islands, Dominica, Tobago, Grenada, and St Vincent. These had bi-cameral legislatures. Real power rested with the Assembly. Newer colonies such as St Lucia, Trinidad and British Guiana had crown colony status. The Governor had greater authority in these areas.

In the Old Colonial System, the main elements were the Governor, the Council (selected) and the Assembly (elected). The Assembly's political power was based on control of finance (annual votes). From the Assembly, boards were selected to perform executive duties. The upper houses in the legislative colonies (the councils) combined executive and legislative functions. The Governor was constrained in his exercise of authority. He had the power of veto on decisions but exercised with great caution in case of retaliation by Assembly men. The Jamaica Assembly was particularly difficult to handle.

The emancipation of the slaves was a revolutionary change in the 1830s; no change was made in the system of government. Opposition by the planter majority over prison reform and retrenchment (aimed against Sugar Duties) in Jamaica was very serious.

The Assemblies were elected on a narrow franchise from among people who had to have a high income qualification. Planters usually had the majority. Their priorities in government and finance concerned the interests of the sugar industry. The interests of freed people were not represented.

On the constitutional issue, Jamaica became the centre of trouble. After the passage of the Sugar Duties Act (1846), the Assembly used its financial authority to threaten the process of government in the retrenchment crises of 1848–49 and 1852–53. Attempts at reform foundered. The changes left the Assembly with great power and bills were thwarted or mutilated. Finally, after the Morant Bay Rebellion, the Assembly was persuaded to vote itself out of existence.

Planters were dominant in the judiciary (JPs) and parish vestries.

After 1839 ex-slaves were admitted to the electorate subject to financial requirements. There were hardly any more than 2000 voters on the roll at any one time (the Jamaican population was 450,000 in 1864 and the electorate was 1903, of whom 1457 voted). For the most part the ex-slaves were excluded from the political system, and of those who qualified by virtue of property, many stayed outside.

Post 1865 Crown Colony government initially had no elected element. Property owners were influential members of the Executive Council. Barbados remained a legislative colony. It was still ruled and economically controlled by a rigid oligarchy. There had been no further extension of the franchise since 1842.