AP® European History
2008 Scoring Guidelines
Form B

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Question 1—Document-Based Question

Explain the reasons for the adoption of a new calendar in revolutionary France and analyze reactions to it in the period 1789 to 1806.

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

1. Has acceptable thesis (thesis may not simply restate the question).
   An acceptable thesis is based on the documents, appropriately addresses and explains the reasons for adopting a new calendar, and analyzes the reactions to it between 1789 and 1806. The thesis may appear at the end of the essay.

   Examples
   Unacceptable: The National Convention adopted a new calendar to replace the Gregorian calendar. There were many reasons for the adoption of a new calendar, and many reactions to it in the period 1789 to 1806.
   Acceptable: The National Convention adopted a new calendar to get more workdays out of the peasants, and the clergy and peasants didn’t like it.

2. Discusses a majority of the documents individually and specifically.
   The student must use at least six documents, even if used incorrectly, by reference to anything in the box. Documents cannot be referenced together in order to get credit for this point (e.g., “Documents 1, 4, and 6 suggest …”). Documents need not be cited by number or by name.

3. Demonstrates understanding of the basic meaning of a majority of the documents (may misinterpret no more than one).
   A student may not significantly misinterpret more than one document. A major misinterpretation is one that leads to an inaccurate grouping and/or a false conclusion. (Saying that the Abbé de Sieyès represents the Church is not a major error since no outside information is required for the document-based question.)

4. Supports the thesis with appropriate interpretations of a majority of the documents.
   Students must use six documents to explain reasons for the change AND analyze the reactions to that change; even if the thesis deals with only one part of the question, the documents used must address both parts of the question.

Some general categories of reasons
Response to the people: 1
Opposition to ignorance and fanaticism: 2
Symbolize equality of the Republic: 2, 6
Anti-tradition: 3
Pro-reason: 4, 5
Anti-Church/clerical: 3, 10
Promotion of efficiency: 1, 5

Some general categories of reactions
Supportive of new calendar
Government officials and writers in 1790s: 2, 9
Villagers: 6
Question 1—Document-Based Question (continued)

Not supportive of new calendar
Church: 3, 4
Peasants: 7
Conservative Girondins: 8
Napoleonic officials, 1806: 11
Ineffective: 9, 10

Note: A student cannot earn this point if no credit was awarded for point 1 (appropriate thesis).

5. Analyzes bias or point of view in at least three documents.
The student must make a reasonable effort to explain why a particular source expresses the stated view by:

- Relating authorial point of view to the author’s place in the political or social arena OR
- Evaluating the reliability of a source OR
- Grouping documents in a way that explicitly and correctly shows awareness of point of view OR
- Recognizing that different kinds of documents serve different purposes OR
- Analyzing the intent or “tone” of the documents; must be well developed

Note: Mere attribution of sources does not constitute analysis of bias or point of view.

6. Analyzes documents by grouping them in at least three appropriate groups. (A group must have two documents.)
A fallacious grouping (e.g., merchant views) receives no credit. A group must serve as a valid tool of analysis. In addition to those listed above, groupings and corresponding documents may include the following (list is not exhaustive):

- Government officials: 2, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10
- Lovers of morality: 2, 6, 11
- Citizen comments: 1, 6, 7
- Supporters of reason: 2, 5, 9
- Opposition documents: 3, 7, 8, 11
- Chronological changes in reaction: 1, 2, 3, 10, 11
- Favorable comments: 1, 2, 5, 6, 9
- Reasons for change: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10

EXPANDED CORE: 1–3 points to a total of 9 points
Expands beyond the basic score of 1–6 points. A student must earn 6 points in the basic core area before earning points in the expanded area. A student earns points to the degree to which he or she does some or all of the following:

- Has a clear, analytical, and comprehensive thesis
- Uses all or almost all documents
- Addresses all parts of the question thoroughly
- Uses the documents persuasively as evidence
- Shows understanding of nuances in the documents
- Analyzes point of view or bias in at least four documents cited in the essay
Question 1—Document-Based Question (continued)

- Analyzes the documents in additional ways (e.g., develops additional groupings)
- Brings in relevant “outside” historical content, although most of the essay should be based on the documents
Question 2

Contrast late-nineteenth-century European attitudes and policies about race to those after 1950.

9–8 Points
- Thesis is clearly stated and addresses BOTH attitudes and policies in BOTH periods.
- Organization is clear, consistently followed, and effective in support of the argument.
- Essay is well balanced; attitudes and policies in BOTH periods are covered.
- Discusses at least two points of contrast for each period with at least several (two to three) specific examples.
- May contain some minor errors that do not detract from the argument (for example, Israel was established in 1950).

7–6 Points
- Thesis is clearly stated and addresses BOTH attitudes and policies in BOTH periods but may emphasize one period over the other.
- Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
- Essay is balanced overall; both periods AND attitudes and policies are discussed, although one might be discussed more superficially or in less detail.
- Discusses at least two points of contrast for each period with at least one supporting piece of evidence for each.
- May contain several minor errors or a major error that detracts from the argument.

5–4 Points
- Thesis is clearly stated but might only address one aspect of the question.
- Organization is apparent but is ineffective or inconsistently followed.
- Essay shows imbalance: discusses either attitudes or policies in both periods, or discusses attitudes and policies in both periods superficially.
- Most of the major assertions in the essay are supported by at least one piece of relevant evidence.
- May contain major errors or misleading overgeneralizations that detract from the argument.
- May contain irrelevant information (the slave trade, the Holocaust, Hitler, the United States Civil Rights Movement).

3–2 Points
- Invalid or irrelevant thesis, or the thesis simply restates the question.
- Organization is unclear and ineffective.
- Essay shows serious imbalance: only one period is discussed adequately, and either attitudes or policies are ignored.
- Includes only one or two major assertions about one of the periods.
- Offers little factual support or specific examples.
- May contain several major errors that detract from the argument.
- May contain irrelevant information.
1–0 Points

• No discernable attempt at a thesis.
• Poorly organized.
• Tends to be a rant against the evils of racism, or entirely off task (for example, an essay on the slave trade).
• Ignores major aspects of the question.
• Off task chronologically and/or geographically.
• Little or no supporting evidence is used.
• Contains numerous major errors and irrelevant information.
Question 2 Historical Background

This question asks how European attitudes and policies about race were different after 1950 from attitudes and policies in the late nineteenth century.

To answer this question a student would need to think about what those attitudes were in the two different times and contrast them. A student would not need to explain how those attitudes were alike, although the stronger essays might do so. The simplest essay might list accurately the attitudes and policies in each period and describe the differences.

Textbook Material

Material in this section is derived from the following texts:

Chambers et al., The Western Experience (9th edition, 2007)
Kishlansky, Civilization in the West (7th edition, 2008)
Noble et al., Western Civilization: Beyond Boundaries (4th edition, 2007)

Most texts do not talk about “race” in the late nineteenth century, so a student would need to remember that anti-Semitism would fall into this category and call up knowledge of Social Darwinism as well. When talking about the period after 1950, a student would have to resist any automatic response concerning race in the United States and think about decolonization, including the decline of the British Empire and the French withdrawal from Algeria, as well as the influx of immigrants into Europe.


Late Nineteenth Century

- Herbert Spencer and Charles Darwin: Social Darwinism and “survival of the fittest,” equating cultural with racial superiority and used as a rationale for the colonial scramble and European Imperialism.
- Rudyard Kipling and the “white man’s burden.”
- Anthropology identifies racial differences and scientifically reinforces Darwin.
- Anti-Semitism: institutionalized persecutions and massacres (pogroms), even though the Jews were given religious and civil rights in the mid-nineteenth century. Professional and intellectual success leads to mass antipathy among the European population, and Jews were blamed for economic problems of the period—Dreyfus Affair, Zionism, Theodor Herzl, BUT not the Holocaust.
- Off task: slavery, the slave trade, Nazism.

Post-1950

- Guest workers and former British Empire citizens: discrimination in schools, even in birth countries. Post-1973 oil crisis attempts to restrict and/or control foreign workers.
- In Germany, third- and fourth-generation foreign workers (especially Muslims and Turks) denied right of naturalization (“guest workers”/“Gastarbeiter”).

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• Non-whites from former colonies in Britain, France, etc.
• Anti-Semitism weakened in postwar Europe.
• Some racist reaction (neo-Nazis, skinheads) but generally anti-racist policies from 1990 on.
• Soviet Union: Chambers mentions Stalin, Trofim Lysenko, and anti-Semitism.
• **Off task:** Hitler, Nazis, Japanese internment camps, United States (civil rights, Ku Klux Klan, Martin Luther King, Jr., etc.).
Question 3

Analyze the ways in which TWO of the following groups challenged British liberalism between 1880 and 1914.

Feminists
Irish nationalists
Socialists

9–8 Points
- Thesis is clearly stated and addresses two groups with reference to liberalism.
- Organization is clear, consistently followed, and effective in support of the argument.
- The essay offers an analysis of the challenges BOTH groups posed to British liberalism.
- The essay demonstrates an understanding of the challenges to British liberalism.
- Several pieces of relevant evidence are offered in support of each group.
- May contain minor errors that do not detract from the argument.

7–6 Points
- Thesis is clearly stated and addresses two groups, although one group might be treated more superficially.
- The essay demonstrates an understanding of the challenges to British liberalism, even superficially.
- Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
- Essay is balanced, although one group might be discussed in greater detail.
- At least one piece of relevant evidence is offered in support of each group.
- May contain a major error or several minor errors that detract from the argument.

5–4 Points
- Thesis is relevant and clearly stated but might refer to only one group.
- Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
- Essay shows some imbalance: the two groups might be discussed appropriately but not in relation to liberalism, or the two groups’ relation to liberalism might be discussed superficially.
- Most of the major assertions in the essay are supported by at least one piece of relevant evidence.
- May contain a few major errors that detract from the argument.

3–2 Points
- No clear thesis or a thesis that merely repeats/paraphrases the prompt.
- Organization is unclear and ineffective.
- Essay shows serious imbalance: only one group may be discussed, or there is no discussion of liberalism.
- Only one or two major assertions are supported by relevant evidence.
- May contain several major errors that detract from the argument.
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Question 3 (continued)

1–0 Points

- No thesis or a thesis that is off task.
- No discernable organization.
- Only one of the groups is discussed superficially, or neither of the groups or liberalism are mentioned.
- Little or no supporting evidence is used.
- May contain numerous errors that detract from the argument.
Question 3 Historical Background

This question asks students to present some specific information about two of the three groups of people listed and to relate those groups to “British liberalism.” This suggests that students need to know and indicate in some fashion an awareness of the principles of “classical British liberalism,” although the question does not require them to list those characteristics. Perhaps even more simply, students will also need to have a somewhat sophisticated understanding of the meaning of the word “challenged.” A simple essay might list some ways two groups opposed the government. A more sophisticated essay might generalize from specific information and form a thesis that encompasses both groups (e.g., “All these ‘outsiders,’ whether successful in achieving their own goals or not, transformed the classical liberal limited government into a ‘welfare state’ through unparliamentary, usually violent, means”). Few essays go beyond broad generalizations. Any attention to (correct) detail is likely to move the essay into the “stronger” category.

Textbook Material

Merriman, Modern Europe from the Renaissance to the Present (2nd edition, 2004)
Noble et al., Western Civilization: Beyond Boundaries (4th edition, 2007)
Spielvogel, Western Civilization Since 1300 (6th edition, 2006)

Palmer expresses the changes in British liberalism caused by all three of these groups. Violence replaced parliamentary means for outsider groups; nationalism increased over property rights; laissez-faire was limited by humanitarianism.

Feminists: primarily challenged paternalism of British liberalism and (as suggested by Hunt) male domination of property and politics.

Some texts (Merriman and Palmer in particular) give more theoretical background. During the nineteenth century women received greater rights of custody, control over property, and access to some professions. As other groups, including rural males, were granted parliamentary means to solve economic and civil rights issues, women (systematically excluded by liberals) saw suffrage as a necessity. Merriman says women’s demands were opposed by liberals who (citing scientific opinion) believed women were less intelligent and less able to understand issues. Radicals and liberals also believed women would be inclined to listen to clerical recommendations. Texts discuss the internal conflict between moderate and radical women’s groups as the movement became progressively more violent (from Kagan’s description of Millicent Fawcett and the National Union of Women’s Suffrage Society to Emmeline Pankhurst’s Women’s Social and Political Union [WSPU], which bombed David Lloyd George’s house and was repressed by Herbert Henry Asquith’s policies). The right to vote was granted in 1918 only to independent women who owned property as a reward for service in World War I. Mary Wollstonecraft and John Stuart Mill are mentioned as theorists.

- 1900: International Women’s Suffrage Alliance.
- 1903: Women’s Social and Political Union (WSPU).
- 1903: Emmeline Pankhurst leads radical wing of WSPU; violent confrontation.
- 1903: Beginning of violent protests, acid on golf greens, acts of vandalism.
- 1903: Beginning of mass arrests and suffragette hunger strikes.
- 1905: Bombing of David Lloyd George’s home by WSPU.
Question 3 Historical Background (continued)

- 1907: Women may serve in local government.
- 1913: Public suicide of Emily Davison at Epson Downs.

**Irish nationalists: challenged liberal support for self-determination and individual rights in conflict with the rights of property.**

Most texts see the Irish nationalist goal of Home Rule as part of the larger “Irish Question.” A solution to Irish discontent was always a goal of William Gladstone and of many liberals. In 1886 the liberals succeeded in disestablishing the Anglican Church. However, Gladstone’s efforts were thwarted by liberals who wanted to protect the rights of Irish landowners. In this case, two British liberal values, self-determination and property rights, clashed. The Irish nationalist response to liberals was to create an increasingly militant organization from the merger of the Irish Land League and the Irish Republican Brotherhood in 1879. The conflict within the Liberal Party eventually led to the creation of a Labour party, as Liberal Unionists split on the Irish Home Rule issues. Home Rule passed in the Commons several times and was vetoed by the House of Lords, but it finally succeeded in 1911 after the Parliament Act of 1911 limited the veto power of the Lords. Home Rule was suspended by the impending World War, and it was not until 1921 (after a guerrilla civil war) that the Irish Free State was created.

- 1879: Beginning of Irish farmers’ land war against absentee English aristocracy.
- 1879: Irish Land League supported the farmers’ land war.
- 1880: “Boycott” entered the English language, as Irish Land League takes on Captain Boycott.
- 1880: Charles Parnell (Liberal Irish Protestant) began to push for Home Rule.
- 1882: British officials hacked to death in Phoenix Park, Dublin.
- 1919: Creation of the Irish Republican Army (IRA).

**Socialists: challenged liberal philosophy of laissez-faire and limited government action in social issues.**

All texts point out that British socialism was unrelated to Marxism or other international radical movements. Merriman identifies British socialists as reform socialists interested in increasing political participation in order to pass legislation to improve working conditions. They were willing to cooperate with other parties, notably the Fabian Society, in favor of gradual change to improve living standards, and H. M. Hyndman’s Social Democratic Federation. Spielvogel, Kagan, and Noble especially describe the political changes in response to socialist demands. In 1901 the trade unions and the Fabians created the Labour Party after the Taff Vale decision making trade unions responsible for business losses caused by labor strikes. By 1906 the Liberal Party (challenged by the trade unions, Fabians, and the threat of a new Labour Party [1901]) began to support social reform such as retirement pension, health care, income tax, and death duties. It was Lloyd George’s efforts at social reform that led to the elimination of the veto power of the House of Lords.

- 1884: Fabian Society
- 1893: Independent Labour Party
- 1899: Thomas R. Steels and the Trade Union Congress
- 1901: English Labour Party
Analyze the similarities and differences in the methods used by Cavour and Bismarck to bring about the unification of Italy and Germany, respectively.

9–8 Points
• Thesis is clearly stated and addresses BOTH statesmen and compares and contrasts their methods of unification.
• Organization is clear, consistently followed, and effective in support of the argument.
• Essay is well balanced; the similarities and differences of both Cavour’s and Bismarck’s efforts are correctly described.
• Evenly compares and contrasts the methods of Cavour and Bismarck.
• Uses multiple examples to support the analysis of the similarities and differences.
• May contain some minor errors that do not detract from the argument (examples: calling the Seven Weeks’ War the Seven Years’ War; saying that Bismarck took over Denmark).

7–6 Points
• Thesis is clearly stated and addresses BOTH statesmen and compares and contrasts their methods of unification, although more attention may be paid to one aspect of the question.
• Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
• Essay is somewhat balanced, though the treatment of similarities and differences might be uneven.
• Contains at least two or three specific examples to support the analysis of the similarities and the differences.
• May contain several minor errors or one major error that detracts from the argument.

5–4 Points
• Thesis is clearly stated, but not fully responsive to the question; it might focus on either similarities or differences.
• Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
• Essay shows imbalance; the methods of either Cavour OR Bismarck may be discussed superficially.
• The analysis of the methods of either Cavour OR Bismarck might be supported with minimal examples and little factual support.
• May contain major errors or misleading overgeneralizations that detract from the argument.

3–2 Points
• The thesis is not clearly stated or just restates the question.
• Organization is unclear and ineffective.
• Essay shows serious imbalance; either just the similarities OR just the differences are discussed.
• Offers little factual support for analysis.
• May contain several major errors that detract from the argument.

1–0 Points
• No discernable attempt at a thesis.
• Poorly organized.
• One or none of the major topics suggested by the prompt is mentioned.
• Little or no supporting evidence is used.
• May contain numerous errors that detract from the argument.
This question asks students to compare and contrast the methods used by Cavour and Bismarck. In order to answer this question, students need to know some specific facts about the unification process for each country. The stronger essays may generalize from these processes to some principles of state-building.

**Textbook Material**

Burns et al., *Western Civilizations* (9th edition, 1980)

Kishlansky, *Civilization in the West* (7th edition, 2008)


This is a mainstream question. All texts discuss this topic and give good detail about the process.

Kishlansky, Noble, and (to a lesser extent) Palmer explicitly compare the methods of Cavour and Bismarck, suggesting that both were opportunists as well as realists compelled by Realpolitik. Both used diplomacy, but Bismarck had greater access to military force while Cavour cunningly got others (France) to use their military for his ends. Burns and Spielvogel emphasize the similarities in their methods. Merriman is less concerned with the agency of Cavour and Bismarck and more interested in the forces at work and the situation in Europe at the time.

Cavour was an opportunist who achieved unification by manipulation of diplomacy and international events. He used his influence to achieve liberal administrative reforms in the government of Piedmont-Sardinia and entered the Crimean War (1853-56) in order to sit at the peace conference. An alliance with France and Napoleon III against Austria gained him Lombardy in 1850, and subsequent plebiscites enabled other central Italian states to join Piedmont-Sardinia. Cavour was a shrewd political tactician, supporting a liberal parliamentary government with an anticlerical policy. Other small Italian states sought annexation with Piedmont-Sardinia. In southern Italy Cavour’s liberal goals persuaded the followers of Giuseppe Garibaldi in Sicily and Naples to join with Piedmont-Sardinia to create a unified state. After Cavour’s death, Italy gained Venetia in 1866 through an alliance with Prussia, and in 1870, when Napoleon III was under attack from Prussia, took Rome.

Bismarck is described as a ruthless chess master, a Junker who joined with the liberals to gain a common end (Kishlansky). He did not just use wars to attain his goals; he provoked them. Palmer, in detail, describes Bismarck’s technique. In 1864 Bismarck joined with Austria to challenge Denmark for Schleswig-Holstein with Russian support, since he had supported Russia the previous year during the Polish rebellion. He reformed the German Confederation with a parliament and universal suffrage and reinforced the Zollverein customs union, which was led by Prussia and excluded Austria. In 1866 he challenged Austria over Schleswig-Holstein, fighting the Seven Weeks’ War to exclude Austria from a united Germany. In 1867 Bismarck annexed several German states to create the North German Confederation. Alsace and some of Lorraine were added as some of the spoils of the Franco–Prussian War (1870-71). The Zollverein and the military were the backbones of Bismarck’s united Germany with its old military order and economic modernization. He undermined his opposition by using the masses against the private interests of the nobility and the Church and even negotiating with socialists and incorporating some of their policies.
Key Dates in Italian Unification

1848: Mazzini and "Young Italy."
1849: France sends troops to Rome to protect the Pope.
1852: Cavour becomes prime minister of Piedmont-Sardinia.
1854: Crimean War begins (ends in 1856); Piedmont sides with France and Great Britain.
1856: Peace of Paris ends Crimean War.
1858: Treaty of Plombières (France and Piedmont-Sardinia).
1859: Austrian declaration of war against Piedmont-Sardinia.
1859: Battles of Magenta and Solferino.
1860: Treaty of Turin.
1860: Garibaldi campaigns in Sicily and southern Italy.
1861: All-Italian parliament with the exception of Rome and Venetia.
1866: Prussian–Italian military alliance.
1866: Italy annexes Venetia.
1870: France pulls out of Rome.

Key Dates in German Unification

1834: Zollverein (customs union of German states) formed, without Austria.
1848: Frankfurt parliament; "Kleindeutsch" versus "Grossdeutsch" debate; abortive liberal revolutions in the German states.
1848: First Schleswig–Holstein crisis.
1854: Crimean War begins (ends in 1856).
1856: Peace of Paris (ends the Crimean War).
1862: Bismarck becomes Prussian prime minister.
1863: Polish revolts against Russia.
1864: Prussian/Austrian–Danish War.
1864: Peace of Vienna.
1866: Prussian–Italian military alliance.
1866: Prussian–Austrian War (Brothers’ War or Seven Weeks’ War).
1866: Peace of Prague.
1867: Northern German Confederation, without Austria.
1869: Leopold, Spanish crisis.
1870: Ems Telegram; outbreak of Franco–Prussian War.
1870: Battle of Sedan; Siege of Paris.
1871: Treaty of Frankfurt.
1871: Establishment of the Second Reich, Hall of Mirrors, Versailles.
1873: Bismarck begins Kulturkampf against Roman Catholic influence.
Question 5

Analyze the reasons for the decline of the Holy Roman Empire as a force in European politics in the period 1517 to 1648.

9–8 Points

• Thesis is clearly stated and addresses the question.
• Organization is clear, consistently followed, and effective in support of the argument.
• Essay covers the entire chronological period, treating events in BOTH centuries.
• Essay presents at least three reasons for the decline of the Holy Roman Empire, supported by specific historical examples.
• May contain minor errors that do not detract from the argument (for example, a discussion of Spain and/or the Hapsburg Empire, if not off task, is an irrelevancy but not an egregious error).

7–6 Points

• Thesis is clearly stated and addresses the question.
• Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
• Essay is balanced overall; covers events in BOTH centuries.
• Essay presents at least two reasons for the decline of the Holy Roman Empire, supported by specific historical examples.
• May contain a major error or several minor errors that detract from the argument.

5–4 Points

• Thesis is clearly stated but may not address the entire historical period.
• Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
• Essay shows imbalance; it might analyze just the events of the sixteenth century and ignore much of the seventeenth century, or vice versa.
• Essay presents at least one reason for the decline of the Holy Roman Empire, supported by at least one historical example.
• May analyze the disintegration of Germany OR purely internal Imperial politics but be generalized about the causes.
• May contain a few major errors that detract from the argument.

3–2 Points

• Thesis is not clearly stated or simply restates the question.
• Organization is unclear and ineffective.
• Essay shows serious imbalance in the discussion of chronology and factors.
• May give little detail about the decline of the Holy Roman Empire.
• May just describe the Protestant Reformation and/or the Thirty Years’ War with inadequate and/or erroneous analysis.
• Only one or two major assertions are supported by relevant evidence.
• May contain several major errors that detract from the argument.
Question 5 (continued)

1-0 Points

- No discernable attempt at a thesis.
- No discernable organization.
- One or none of the major topics suggested by the prompt is mentioned.
- Little or no supporting evidence is used.
- May contain numerous errors that detract from the argument.
This question asks students to recall information about the Reformation, the Peasants’ War, and especially the Thirty Years’ War, and to organize those facts into a cause-and-effect structure. “Analysis” in this question means that students must present their knowledge into a comparison of the role of the Holy Roman Empire in Europe during the period and to some extent after the Thirty Years’ War. Students may concentrate on the ending period and discuss only the consequences of the Protestant Reformation and the Thirty Years’ War, and if this is done well, it is a partial answer to the question. The strongest essays must also discuss the Holy Roman Empire in relation to the rest of Europe.

Textbook Material

Merriman, Modern Europe from the Renaissance to the Present (2nd edition, 2004)
Noble et al., Western Civilization: Beyond Boundaries (4th edition, 2007)
Spielvogel, Western Civilization Since 1300 (6th edition, 2006)

Ideally, students should remember that the Holy Roman Empire was ruled by an emperor chosen by electors (seven in 1517 and eight in 1648). This may be mentioned as an aspect of the issue of decline. According to Merriman, the Holy Roman Empire was dysfunctional after the Protestant Reformation. Economically, there were tolls among the many small German states; politically, many states held noncontiguous territory, and the seven electors were usually unable to agree on foreign policy, except to oppose the Turks. As a result of the Protestant Reformation and the Peasants’ War, the German states were independent as to religion and secularized after the Peace of Augsburg (1555). The Peace of Westphalia (1648) emphasized the autonomy of the German states. Furthermore, the territorial devastation after the Thirty Years’ War left few resources and little interest for European involvement. Noble emphasizes Turkish pressure and the Lutheran rebellion as reasons for ineffectiveness. Spielvogel identifies the religious divisiveness as one key element in the irrelevance of the Holy Roman Empire during this period and after the Thirty Years’ War. Dynastic power politics, both the rivalries within the Holy Roman Empire and those of European powers outside the Holy Roman Empire, contributed to its decline. After Westphalia the German states were virtually independent. Palmer devotes a section of his book to “The Thirty Years’ War and the Disintegration of Germany.” He describes the Holy Roman Empire as united by language but almost evenly divided religiously. German universities were in decline because of dogmatic controversies, commerce was decaying, there was little capital, the Rhine mouth was controlled by the Dutch, and banking was in decline. The Thirty Years’ War was a civil war with religious entities, small states, and nobles fighting one another as well as the emperor and centralization. The war resulted in the loss of territories by both the Dutch and the Swiss, and Alsace-Lorraine came under French control. After the Peace of Westphalia, the German states were virtually sovereign, except for foreign policy that required unanimous agreement of all electors. This resulted, according to Palmer, in feudal chaos.

Key Dates for the Decline of the Holy Roman Empire

1500: Charles V comes to the throne.  
1515: Beginning of pressure and rivalry from Valois France (Francis I).  
1517: Luther’s 95 Theses.  
1524: Peasants’ War.  
1526: Turkish Wars begin (end in 1566).  
1546: Schmalkaldic War begins (ends in 1547).  
1555: Peace of Augsburg; Charles V resigns and splits the Hapsburg lands in two.
1618: Thirty Years’ War begins (ends in 1648).
1648: Peace of Westphalia.
  • Loss of Alsace
  • Loss of Holland from Spanish Hapsburgs
  • Loss of Lorraine
  • Loss of Pomerania
  • Loss of Switzerland
Question 6

Analyze the impact of TWO cultural and/or technological developments on European education in the period 1450 to 1650.

9–8 Points
- Thesis must include reference to the impact of two relevant developments (either cultural or technological, or one of each) on European education.
- Organization is clear, consistently followed, and effective in support of the argument.
- Essay is well balanced; equal attention is given to the discussion of each development and its impact on European education.
- Multiple (at least three to four) specific facts are provided in the discussion of each development.
- The impact of each development on education is discussed in some detail.
- May discuss the consequences of these developments for post-1650 Europe (the Enlightenment), but most of the essay remains within the proper chronological period.
- May contain minor errors that do not detract from the argument.

7–6 Points
- Thesis must include reference to the impact of two relevant developments (either cultural or technological, or one of each) on European education.
- Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
- Essay is balanced, although more attention may be paid to one development and its impact on education.
- Several (at least two to three) specific facts are provided in the discussion of each development.
- The impact of each development on education is discussed in adequate detail.
- May contain a major error or several minor errors that detract from the argument.

5–4 Points
- Thesis is explicit but may mention only one relevant development or ignore the impact of both developments on education.
- Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
- Essay shows some imbalance; it may focus on one development with minimal detail on the second development, or it may describe two developments with minimal or no analysis of impact on education, or it may suggest some changes in education without indicating the causes of the changes.
- Some (at least two) specific facts are provided in the discussion of each development.
- May contain a few major errors that detract from the argument.

3–2 Points
- No explicit thesis or a thesis that merely repeats/paraphrases the prompt.
- Organization is unclear and ineffective.
- Essay shows serious imbalance; it may discuss only one relevant development and/or ignore the impact on education.
- Only one or two major assertions are supported by relevant evidence.
- May contain several major errors that detract from the argument.
1–0 Points

- No discernable attempt at a thesis.
- No discernable organization.
- May discuss superficially only one relevant development OR may discuss only education in the period.
- Little or no supporting evidence is used.
- May contain numerous errors that detract from the argument.
This question asks students to talk about two cultural and/or technological developments and then to relate them to European education during a 200-year period. They are not asked to compare and contrast, but to describe cause and effect. (Many students have a difficult time with this task: they can describe the developments more thoroughly than they can discuss their impact.) The two developments do not need to have originated between 1450 and 1650 but merely to have had an impact on European education in that period. (Thus, the printing press, which was invented in the 1440s, is a legitimate technological development to discuss.) The developments need not be described as positive, although most students pick developments that improved education. The question does not restrict students to describing the impact on formal education.

Many students will discuss the printing press as an important technological development. The better essays will talk about the rise in availability of printed matter—not just religious matter (the Bible, devotional works, sermons) but also books and pamphlets on a variety of topics, some of the most popular of which were nature, discoveries in the New World, and instructions on how to make things. The printing press also made caricatures and cartoons more widely available. The ample availability of printed materials was also used by local and national rulers, who printed didactic works intended to instruct their people about religion in order to ensure religious conformity.

**Textbook Material**


Palmer and Noble offer the most interesting observations about changes in education during this period. Palmer focuses on formal education, pointing out that by 1500 there were over 100 universities in Europe. During the Renaissance, Italian humanists created a secondary system to teach rhetoric and other practical applications of learning and deportment. Erasmus, during the Northern Renaissance and the Reformation, believed that the Bible should be available in the vernacular and that responsible citizens involved themselves in worldly affairs to achieve peace and tolerance. His goal was a critical and reforming zeal. In addition during the sixteenth century, a form of civic education was developed to prepare clerks and agents in commerce and government in order to provide for bureaucratic record-keeping and civic law. Between 1580 and 1640, Palmer points to grammar schools in England and France. Ursuline Sisters began to educate girls. All of these developments included the education of more middle- and lower-class Europeans. Hause and Maltby add that humanists thought that educating the mind benefited the soul. Noble identifies the grammar schools of Guarino in humanist Italy that taught ethics and morals to young men. The humanist recovery of ancient literature indicates the valuing of culture and discipline and led to the spread of literacy. The printing press also enabled the use of printing games and exercises to further education and formal study. Merriman adds that the Reformation led to greater emphasis on education as a means of fostering religious conformity by encouraging reading of specific texts. Chapbooks and pamphlets were printed to accomplish that end.

**Examples of relevant technological developments**

- Printing press (invented 1440s; printing press spread the ideas of the Reformation as well as the Counter-Reformation and the classical learning of the Renaissance).
- 1467: the first press in Rome was established by two German printers; within five years they had produced 12,000 volumes.
- 1490s: Frankfurt became an international meeting place for printers and booksellers.
c. 1450s: Western Europeans create the carrack, a deep-hulled ship using square and lateen sails and capable of long sea voyages.

Telescope (built in 1609 by Galileo, after hearing of a similar instrument built by Dutch astronomers).

Examples of relevant cultural developments

- Age of Discovery/colonial expansion in the Americas led to a greater accuracy in map-making.
- Renaissance (c. 1330–1530; marked by the rediscovery of classical learning and of classical artistic techniques).
- Reformation (began 1517; emphasized reading the Bible in the vernacular).
- 1540: Society of Jesus (Jesuits) established; Jesuits became the educators of the European elite; established system of education.
- Learned societies began appearing in major cities, including Rome and Paris, by the 1620s.

Other significant dates (some are beyond the chronological framework)

- 1522: Martin Luther translated the New Testament into German (first full translation of the Bible into German).
- 1534: Luther translated the Old Testament into German.
- 1543: Nicholas Copernicus’ *Concerning the Revolutions of the Celestial Spheres* published; death of Copernicus.
- René Descartes (1596–1650).
- Francis Bacon (1561–1626).
- Tycho Brahe (1546–1601).
- Johannes Kepler (1571–1630).
- Galileo (1564–1642).
- Blaise Pascal (1623–62).
- Sir Isaac Newton (1642–1727).
- 1637: Descartes published *Discourse on Method* (“Cogito, ergo sum”).
- Edmund Halley (1656–1742).
- 1662: Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge founded.
- 1666: Royal Academy of Science founded in France.

Events outside the period 1450–1650 that students might cite (these are off topic, not erroneous)

- The Enlightenment (c. 1688–1789).
- The Agricultural Revolution (eighteenth century).
Compare and contrast the political ideas of Hobbes and Locke.

9–8 Points
- Thesis clearly compares and contrasts the political ideas of Hobbes and Locke, either in general terms or in specific ways.
- Organization is clear, consistently followed, and effective in support of the argument.
- Essay is well balanced; the political ideas of these thinkers are both compared and contrasted.
- At least multiple (three to four) political ideas of each man are discussed when comparing and contrasting these thinkers.
- May contain minor errors that do not detract from the argument.

7–6 Points
- Thesis clearly compares and contrasts the political ideas of Hobbes and Locke, either in general terms or in specific ways.
- Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
- The political ideas of these thinkers are both compared and contrasted, but equal attention may not be given to both areas.
- At least several (two to three) political ideas of each man are discussed when comparing and contrasting these thinkers.
- May contain a major error or several minor errors that detract from the argument.

5–4 Points
- Thesis is clear but not fully responsive to the question; the political ideas may be compared OR contrasted.
- Organization is clear and effective in support of the argument but not consistently followed.
- Essay shows some imbalance; may examine similarities OR differences in the political thought of the two men.
- May describe the political thought of Hobbes and Locke with no effort at comparison OR contrast.
- May examine similarities and differences in a balanced but superficial manner, with few or no details.
- May contain a few major errors that detract from the argument.

3–2 Points
- No explicit thesis or a thesis that merely repeats/paraphrases the prompt.
- Organization is unclear and ineffective.
- Essay may confuse the two figures OR their political ideas or may discuss only politics in the seventeenth century.
- No attempt at analysis; factual information is limited.
- May contain several major errors that detract from the argument.

1–0 Points
- No discernable attempt at a thesis.
- No discernable organization.
- One or none of the major topics suggested by the prompt is mentioned.
- Little or no supporting evidence is used.
- May contain numerous errors that detract from the argument.
Question 7 Historical Background

This is a traditional question. It asks students to identify the differences and similarities in the political writings of Hobbes and Locke. Students need to understand the writings as well as be able to compare and contrast their content. Students might do this by using context as a vehicle and focusing their discussion on direct comparisons of major points in the works of the two writers. This is, in many respects, a Palmer question.

Although a traditional question, it is more challenging than it seems at first glance. It is far easier for students to contrast than to compare the political ideas of Hobbes and Locke. An acceptable comparison is one that discusses, for example, the fact that each man believed that government was necessary. In addition, the question asks about the political ideas of each man. Many students will include information on each man’s views regarding human nature. As long as they show how these ideas shaped the political ideas, this information is relevant. An essay that deals only with their views on human nature is off task entirely, however.

Textbook Material

Burns et al., Western Civilizations (9th edition, 1980)
Chambers et al., The Western Experience (9th edition, 2007)
Hause and Maltby, Essentials of Western Civilization (2nd edition, 2008)
Kishlansky, Civilization in the West (7th edition, 2008)
Lerner and Burns, Western Civilizations (1st edition, 1993)
Merriman, Modern Europe from the Renaissance to the Present (2nd edition, 2004)
Noble et al., Western Civilization: Beyond Boundaries (4th edition, 2007)
Spielvogel, Western Civilization Since 1300 (6th edition, 2006)

The textbooks do not present the same interpretations of the two thinkers. There is even an instance of contradiction. We need to be careful as we score this question that students are not penalized for the textbook they have used. The books tend to emphasize differences, but many books also note their similarities. Even the better essays will have more to say about the differences than the similarities. Locke may be wrongly identified as a supporter of democracy.

Hobbes’ Leviathan

- **Kishlansky**: Government formed for self-preservation and to escape the brutal state of nature. Rulers rule; subjects obey.
- **Palmer**: Sees Hobbes as materialistic and atheistic. Hobbes believed men were unable to govern themselves. From fear and to retain order, men make a contract giving up personal freedom to the ruler who has absolute unrestricted power in return for security, peace, and the rule of law. Government was created by and for humans.
- **Burns**: Compares Hobbes and Bodin. There is no limit on the ruler’s authority. Burns uses words like “ruthless,” “trample on,” and “tyrannize” to illustrate the power of the ruler.
- **Hause and Maltby**: See Leviathan as a consequence of the English Civil War requiring an autocratic superstate.
- **Kagan**: All people have the right to everything, and equality breeds perpetual enmity. Hobbes’ politically organized society and state was to deliver people from a corrupt government: social contract.
Noble: Hobbes compared the state to a machine running by laws and maintained by the ruler. Citizens were seen as potentially equal and constrained neither by morality nor natural obedience.

Merriman: Compares Hobbes and Locke. Both believed government is for the good of mankind. Hobbes says individuals surrender rights for protection. In analyses of Hobbes, many variations of his statement that life outside of government was “solitary, poor, nasty, brutish, and short” can be seen.

Locke’s *Two Treatises on Civil Government*


Palmer: Like Hobbes, Locke sees government for human good and as a contract. But since people learn from experience, they can be enlightened by education. Government is established to enforce natural rights. The social contract has mutual obligations: rationality and responsibility. Locke admits the right of people to resist bad government.

Burns: Via the social contract, people bestowed on government the executive power of the law of nature. Rights not expressly surrendered are reserved for the people. The right to overthrow a tyrannical government exists.

Chambers: Locke learned from Hobbes. The state of nature is a state of war. Contract government ends anarchy that preceded civil society. However, three rights (life, liberty, and property) are inalienable without the consent of the governed. Consent is granted through the representative assembly of men of property.

Kagan: The law of nature creates everyone equal and independent; people in nature are reasonable and able to function but establish government to solve problems and facilitate social life. Government should primarily protect property.

Hunt: Hobbes and Locke saw all people have a state of nature; Locke’s definition of nature is peaceful. Locke emphasized the importance of property.

Spielvogel: The state of nature, according to Locke, is equality and freedom: “community perpetually retains supreme power.”

Noble: People, according to Locke, were capable of self-restraint and mutual respect in the pursuit of self-interest. Locke envisioned a political society based on human rights.

Merriman: Locke concluded that the rights of individuals are protected by parliamentary limits on monarchical prerogatives.

**Major Points of Comparison between Hobbes (1588–1679) and Locke (1632–1704)**

**Political ideas**

- Both agree that governments do not originate from God.
- Both agree that governments must be created by man.
- Both agree that governments should be established in accordance with natural laws.
- Both agree that governments should be rationally, ethically, and consciously conceived.
- Both agree that governments must be based on a contract between those governed and the government.

**Other ideas** (Some of these may be used to explain the underpinnings of each man’s political thought.)

- Both reject the cynicism of Machiavelli.
- Both wrote in the seventeenth century.
- Both were heavily influenced by the rationality of the Scientific Revolution, 1600–1700.
Both were heavily influenced by the events of the English Civil War, 1642-49.
Both backed a specific side in the English Civil War.
Both agree that governments are necessary.
Both agree that man’s true character can be found in a “state of nature.”

Major Points of Contrast between Hobbes and Locke

Political ideas
• Hobbes argued for royal absolutism, while Locke argued for constitutionalism.
• Hobbes believed that once governments are established, they may not be challenged and overthrown, while Locke believed that if the social contract is violated, the governed have the right to overthrow the government.
• Hobbes backed the king, while Locke backed Parliament in the English Civil War.

Other ideas (Some of these may be used to explain the underpinnings of each man’s political thought.)
• Hobbes backed the losing side, while Locke backed the winning side in the English Civil War.
• Hobbes believed that man’s state of nature was violent and selfish, while Locke believed that man’s state of nature was peaceful and reasonable.
• Hobbes had little interest in private property, while Locke argued that private property was a cornerstone of government.

Key Dates
1642-49: English Civil War.
1649: Execution of Charles I.
1649-59: Interregnum (Republic, then Protectorate).
1658: Death of Cromwell.
1660: Restoration of the monarchy (Charles II returned from France).
1685-88: Reign of James II.
1688-89: “Glorious Revolution.”