

History teacher support material

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Diploma Programme

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The International Baccalaureate aims to develop inquiring, knowledgeable and caring young people who help to create a better and more peaceful world through intercultural understanding and respect.

To this end the organization works with schools, governments and international organizations to develop challenging programmes of international education and rigorous assessment.

These programmes encourage students across the world to become active, compassionate and lifelong learners who understand that other people, with their differences, can also be right.



IB learner profile

The aim of all IB programmes is to develop internationally minded people who, recognizing their common humanity and shared guardianship of the planet, help to create a better and more peaceful world.

As IB learners we strive to be:

INQUIRERS

We nurture our curiosity, developing skills for inquiry and research. We know how to learn independently and with others. We learn with enthusiasm and sustain our love of learning throughout life.

KNOWLEDGEABLE

We develop and use conceptual understanding, exploring knowledge across a range of disciplines. We engage with issues and ideas that have local and global significance.

THINKERS

We use critical and creative thinking skills to analyse and take responsible action on complex problems. We exercise initiative in making reasoned, ethical decisions.

COMMUNICATORS

We express ourselves confidently and creatively in more than one language and in many ways. We collaborate effectively, listening carefully to the perspectives of other individuals and groups.

PRINCIPLED

We act with integrity and honesty, with a strong sense of fairness and justice, and with respect for the dignity and rights of people everywhere. We take responsibility for our actions and their consequences.

OPEN-MINDED

We critically appreciate our own cultures and personal histories, as well as the values and traditions of others. We seek and evaluate a range of points of view, and we are willing to grow from the experience.

CARING

We show empathy, compassion and respect. We have a commitment to service, and we act to make a positive difference in the lives of others and in the world around us.

RISK-TAKERS

We approach uncertainty with forethought and determination; we work independently and cooperatively to explore new ideas and innovative strategies. We are resourceful and resilient in the face of challenges and change.

BALANCED

We understand the importance of balancing different aspects of our lives—intellectual, physical, and emotional—to achieve well-being for ourselves and others. We recognize our interdependence with other people and with the world in which we live.

REFLECTIVE

We thoughtfully consider the world and our own ideas and experience. We work to understand our strengths and weaknesses in order to support our learning and personal development.

The IB learner profile represents 10 attributes valued by IB World Schools. We believe these attributes, and others like them, can help individuals and groups become responsible members of local, national and global communities.

About the TSM

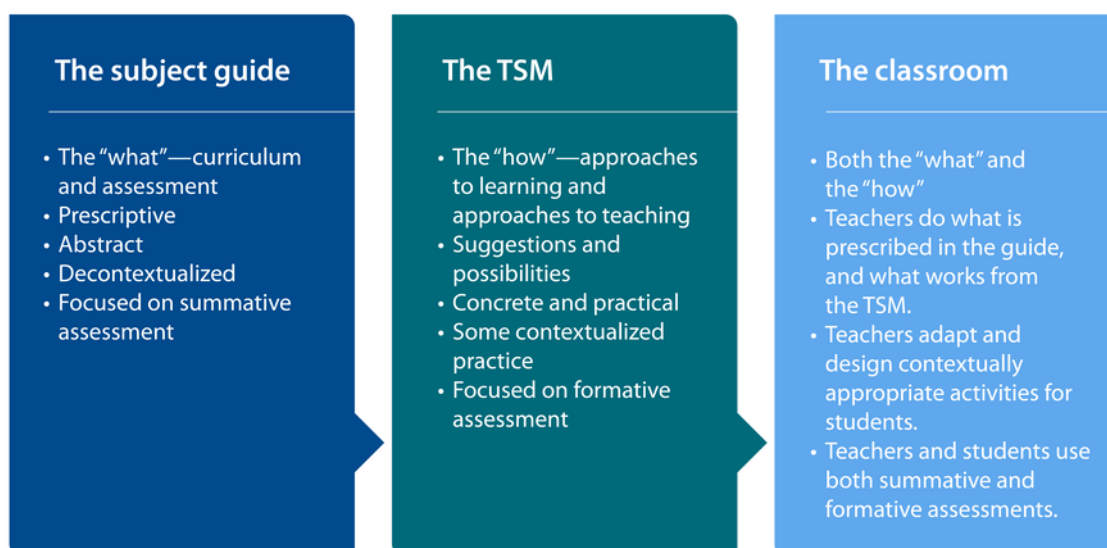
Welcome to the *History teacher support material* (TSM). This TSM accompanies the *History guide* and is intended to add insight, inspiration and guidance to the student and teacher journey through the course.

This TSM is written for an audience of Diploma Programme (DP) history teachers to support the implementation of the course. This includes those who are new to teaching within the International Baccalaureate (IB), those who are new to teaching the DP history course and those who are moving from the legacy guide to the current subject guide.

The TSM has been developed as a bridge between the guide and the classroom, as summarized in figure 1.

Figure 1

A bridge from the subject guide to the classroom



The first point of reference for all teachers should be the subject guide, which provides all the prescribed information on the curriculum and assessment model. The guide provides all the information on “what” needs to be taught, and less on “how” this should be taught. The guide is decontextualized, meaning it provides a common framework that can be applied in any context. The guide is largely focused on the summative assessments of the course, including paper 1, paper 2, paper 3 and the internal assessment (IA).

This TSM unpacks the “what” of the subject guide but also moves into the “how” by providing guidance on how many parts of the curriculum can be taught. All the resources in the TSM are suggestions and possible approaches; they are not intended to be prescriptive or restrictive. The TSM focuses on providing concrete and practical templates and guidance, including examples of contextualized practice such as authentic course outlines developed by practising IB teachers. The TSM is also more focused on formative assessment and provides guidance on how teachers and students can assess their progress and act on this to develop further.

The classroom is the place where teachers and students bring the guide and the TSM together. Teachers have the freedom to take what works from the TSM, developing and adapting any of the activities to suit their context. The TSM aims to inspire and support teachers as they continue innovating and trying new approaches to learning and approaches to teaching in the classroom.

Acknowledgements

The IB thanks the educators, students, consultants and schools who contributed time and resources to the development of the *History guide* and TSM.

Overview

Before beginning to design the course, teachers are recommended to have a clear understanding of their desired learning outcomes. The *History guide* provides all the prescribed information on one aspect of the learning outcomes—the summative assessments of the course.

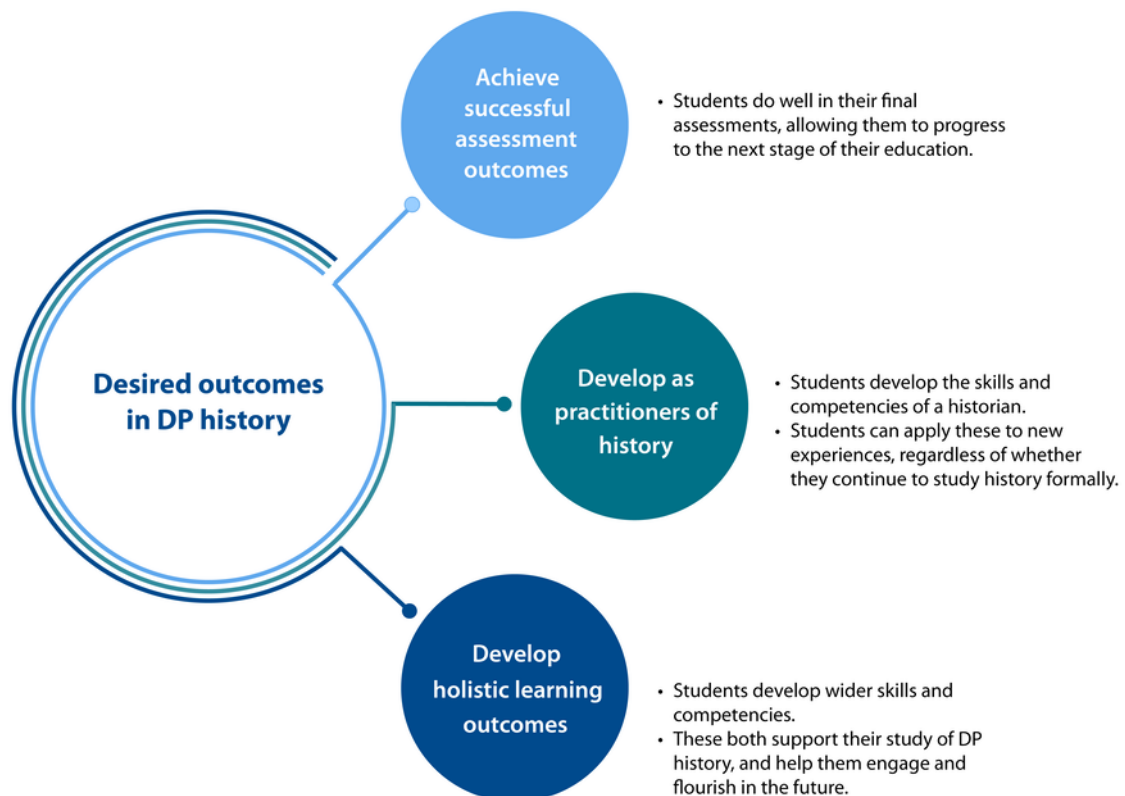
This TSM provides suggested guidance on wider learning outcomes, including students' development as practitioners of history. It also provides guidance on how to incorporate formative assessment into the design of the course.

What can be found in the subject guide	What can be found in the TSM
<ul style="list-style-type: none">Requirements of the summative assessment outcomes of the course	<ul style="list-style-type: none">Guidance on wider learning outcomes, including the development of students as practitioners of historyGuidance on incorporating formative assessment into the design of the course

Learning outcomes

Teachers are recommended to consider what outcomes for students they would like to see as a result of the DP history course. One possible way of thinking about outcomes is given in figure 2.

Figure 2
Learning outcomes in DP history



Achieve successful assessment outcomes

Like all DP courses, the history course contains both external and internal assessments. A successful outcome in these summative assessments can be important for students to progress to the next stage of their academic or professional journeys.

Achieving successful assessment outcomes may mean, among other things, that students:

- understand the requirements of each assessment task
- understand what makes a “good” response
- are well prepared in terms of the required knowledge and skills
- have had multiple opportunities to practise
- prepare for the examinations effectively
- perform well on the day of the assessment.

Develop as practitioners of history

The emphasis of the DP history course is for students to develop as practitioners of history. This is related to the concepts, contexts, content and skills of the course.

Developing as practitioners of history may mean, among other things, that students:

- think conceptually, with particular focus on historical concepts such as cause and consequence, continuity and change, perspectives, and significance
- use historical sources in a variety of ways
- make connections between historical examples
- evaluate historical arguments and reach their own judgements
- ask questions, identify and choose sources, and synthesize evidence to reach conclusions
- develop knowledge and understanding of historical events.

Develop holistic learning outcomes

Teachers may also consider outcomes that are not directly captured in the summative assessments of the course but are nonetheless important. These are holistic learning outcomes.

These may include, among other things:

- research skills, such as being able to search for sources
- academic integrity, including the referencing of work that is not the student's own
- uses of technology in historical inquiry, including the use of artificial intelligence (AI)
- academic writing skills, including the effective organization of essays
- a willingness to work with nuance, uncertainty and complexity, and to reject simple narratives about the past
- an appreciation of the complexities of human agency
- a sense of empathy with people from the past who are different from the student
- the affective skills to cope with emotional and sensitive histories
- an understanding of the role of history in the present.

Planning for learning outcomes

All the learning outcomes are interrelated and interdependent. It is recommended that a range of learning outcomes informs the planning of the course. Overly focusing on one set of learning outcomes could lead to a less fulfilling and less meaningful student experience. For example, if a course focused solely on achieving successful assessment outcomes and preparing for examinations, then much of the richness and potential impact of developing as practitioners of history or other holistic learning outcomes could be lost.

Ideally, the different learning outcomes should complement and support each other, leading to a rich course that allows students to develop holistically and as practitioners of history while also supporting them to be successful in the final assessments.

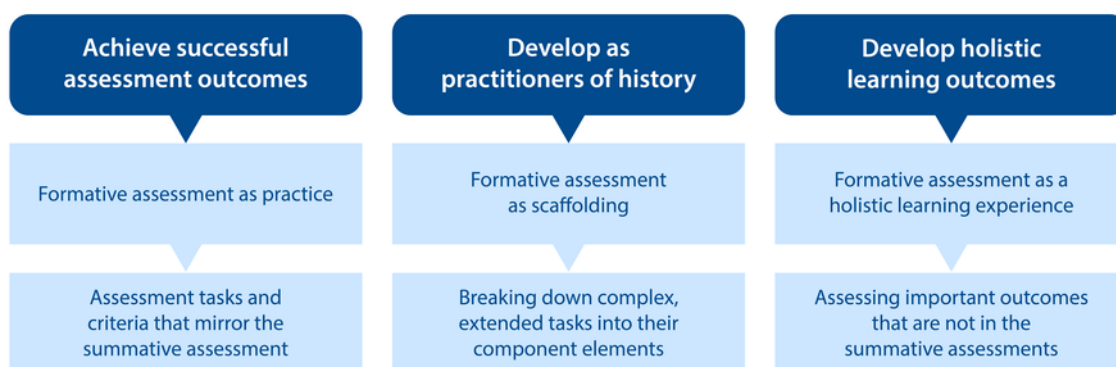
Formative assessment in DP history

Formative assessment is the process of gathering evidence on student learning to provide meaningful feedback that moves learning and teaching forward. The IB has produced a resource called *Teaching and learning informed by assessment in the Diploma Programme* that teachers are recommended to explore. The guidance in this part of the TSM is designed to complement that resource by providing history-specific suggestions.

DP history teachers are encouraged to think about three types of formative assessment that align with the three learning outcomes (figure 3).

Figure 3

Aligning learning outcomes and formative assessment



Formative assessment as practice

Formative assessment as practice refers to a formative assessment task that mirrors and uses the same success criteria as summative assessment tasks. This may include students completing mock papers or practice questions in class and holding mock examinations. Towards the end of the course, there may be an increasing focus on practice papers.

There are limitations to this kind of formative assessment, and it should be used with care. The following list presents some important considerations.

- Are the students approaching the end of the course?
- Are the students able to demonstrate most of the knowledge and skills that are required by this assessment?
- Are the students familiar with the level descriptors for this assessment?
- Have the students seen assessed examples of student work? Are they familiar with the expectations for each paper, such as how much they will be expected to write?
- Do the students clearly understand the instructions for the assessment, especially for papers that have several options?
- Are the students emotionally prepared to take an examination that mirrors the final, high-stakes summative assessment for the course?

When introducing formative assessment as practice, teachers should consider making modifications that may be removed as students progress. The following are some example modifications.

- Have students complete only one part of a summative assessment task.
- Have students complete the task in pairs or small groups.
- Give students additional time to complete the task.
- Provide students with a student-friendly version of the markscheme(s) during the assessment.
- Allow students to complete the summative assessment as an open-book task or with some pre-prepared notes (that could be limited to one page).
- Provide students with feedback on their essay planning before they start to write their response.
- Use traffic light cards during the assessment to highlight if a student is feeling overwhelmed.

Formative assessment as scaffolding

Formative assessment as scaffolding refers to breaking down complex summative assessment tasks into more manageable parts.

In the “[Formative assessment toolkit](#)”, criteria have been developed to support formative assessment as scaffolding. The criteria provide structured support to help students progress from simple to more complex understanding and skills. Feedback is integrated into the learning process, allowing students to reflect on their strengths and identify areas for improvement. The criteria clarify expectations and bring transparency to the assessment process, helping students understand what is required to succeed.

Teachers may consider the following when integrating formative assessment as scaffolding.

- The formative assessment criteria can be combined with many of the activities and resources in the historical concepts and historical skills toolkits.
- By embedding low-stakes formative assessments that scaffold towards the summative assessments, teachers can help students build skills progressively. One possible strategy would be to begin with simple, supported tasks and gradually progress to more complex ones. Using the same criteria across different tasks means that students can track how they are developing the skills needed in the summative assessments.
- The activities and criteria can be used to encourage students to actively engage with the course. Students can be encouraged to retain the criteria and refer to them to monitor their learning. This is part of being a reflective learner as defined in the IB learner profile.
- By using activities and criteria in low-stakes environments, students are more likely to take risks and explore different learning approaches.

Formative assessment as a holistic learning experience

Formative assessment as a holistic learning experience addresses important curriculum goals or skills beyond the summative assessments.

Teachers may consider the following when integrating formative assessment as a holistic learning experience.

- Are there underlying skills or competencies which are not directly assessed by the summative assessment, but are nonetheless important?
- How can these be made explicit to students? For example, relevant holistic learning outcomes could be included on the cover page of an assessment.
- Are there ways of measuring holistic outcomes directly, instead of relying on indirect measures such as a traditional test? For example, if effective communication and collaboration are important then direct observation of students engaging in a group activity could be an effective method.

- Are there ways of students self-assessing their progress against holistic learning outcomes? For example, use the sentence stem "in this task/activity/group discussion, am I able to/are my peers able to ..."

Formative assessment toolkit

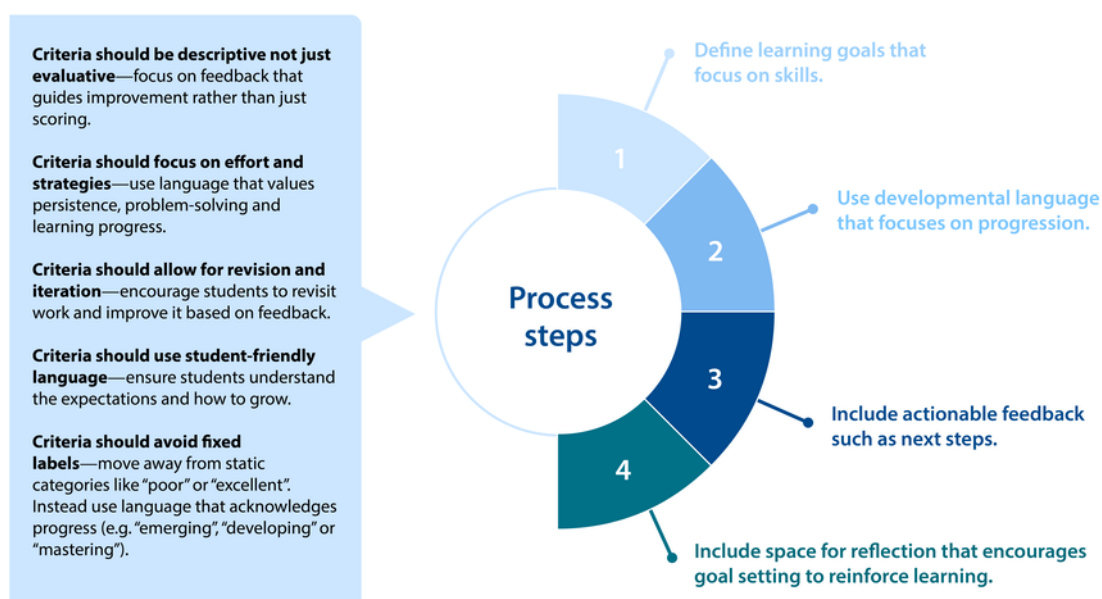
This toolkit includes formative assessment criteria that align with the following aspects of the course.

- Students as conceptual thinkers (PDF)
- Students using sources (PDF)
- Students making connections (PDF)
- Students evaluating arguments (PDF)
- Students carrying out inquiry (PDF)

Designing criteria

Teachers are recommended to adapt the criteria in the toolkit or design their own to suit their context. Figure 4 provides guidelines to help teachers develop criteria that are similar to those provided in this TSM.

Figure 4
Developing your own criteria



Further reading on formative assessment and criteria

The formative assessment criteria and guidance on developing your own criteria in this TSM were developed by practising history educators. Some of the reading that informed their work is as follows.

Jung, L. A. (2024). *Assessing students, not standards: Begin with what matters most*. Corwin.

Perks, K., & Rosenfeld, R. (2022, April 6). A strengths-based approach to assessment rubrics. *WestEd*. <https://wested.org/blog/strengths-based-assessment-rubrics>

Rembach, L., & Dison, L. (2016). Transforming taxonomies into rubrics: Using SOLO in social science and inclusive education. *Perspectives in Education*, 34(1), 68–83. <https://doi.org/10.18820/2519593X/pie.v34i1.6>

Overview

There are many possible ways of structuring the course, and teachers are encouraged to exercise creativity and flexibility.

The key starting point when putting together a course is for teachers to ensure that they understand the requirements of the *History guide*. It is vital that both new and experienced history teachers read the guide thoroughly before designing or redesigning their history courses.

The guide provides all the prescribed information about designing a course, including the requirements for what contexts, concepts, content and skills must be taught, and the summative assessments that must be prepared for.

This TSM provides suggested guidance to support different ways of choosing content and organizing the course, as well as authentic examples of how this can be done.

What can be found in the subject guide	What can be found in the TSM
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Requirements about what contexts, concepts, content and skills must be taught• Requirements of the summative assessment components that must be prepared for	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Suggested guidance on different approaches to choosing content and organizing the course• Authentic examples of how this can be done

Choosing what content to teach

The DP history course provides flexibility and choice of content, allowing teachers to create a course to best meet the needs and interests of their students. The inquiry framework that structures the course ensures coherence, regardless of the diverse range of topics teachers can choose from. Figure 5 summarizes the content choices that teachers must make.

Figure 5

Content choices that teachers must make

Choose a focused study.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choose one focused study from a choice of five. • Whichever choice is made, both examples must be taught.
Choose a thematic study.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choose one thematic study area from a choice of four.
Choose examples for the thematic study.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choose a diverse range of examples—from at least two regions—that will be used to illustrate the thematic study.
Choose a regional study (HL only).
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Choose one region from a choice of four. • Choose 2 in-depth studies from that region, from a choice of 12.

There is no prescribed process or set criteria for making these choices. Table 1 outlines a range of factors that could be considered by teachers when they are making content choices, with suggested guidance.

Table 1

Possible factors for content choices and suggested guidance

Possible factors for content choices		Suggested guidance
Coherence	Alignment	Teachers may focus the course on a particular time period, a specific region or a particular issue, such as “identity”.
	Efficiency	Teachers may choose content that overlaps or is complementary. This can be an efficient, time-saving approach. Taking this approach may provide more space for teachers to integrate conceptual or skills-focused learning and teaching.
Breadth	Complexity	Teachers may consider opportunities to introduce students to a wide range of different content, which will help them see nuance and complexity, and avoid anachronistic thinking or simple narratives. If it is possible to incorporate unusual, atypical examples, this will help

Possible factors for content choices		Suggested guidance
		students recognize that while there can be patterns in history, events are never inevitable.
	Intercultural understanding	Teachers may intentionally include content from a range of regions to help promote intercultural understanding. The intentional inclusion of examples from different parts of the world and points in time can illustrate regional variations and historical trends.
Student engagement	Relevance	Teachers may think about how their history course can be responsive to wider changes in society. This can be an important consideration in ensuring the course remains relevant to students' lives.
	Belonging	Teachers may consider how content choices can help all students to "see themselves" in history or to find areas that interest and excite them in the course.
Teacher considerations	National or state requirements	Teachers may consider how content choices can help them meet national or state requirements.
	Expertise	Teachers may make content choices that reflect specific areas of teacher interest or expertise.
Resources	Availability	Teachers may consider how the availability of textbooks or digital resources can inform content choices. They may also make content choices that allow them to use recent historiography in particular areas, visit museums and/or engage students in fieldwork.
	Networks	Teachers could think about how they can take advantage of local or global, physical or digital networks of history educators to support their content choices. IB Exchange is one such network, available to all IB teachers.

Selecting examples for the thematic study

There are **no prescribed** examples for the thematic study. Examples can be chosen by the teacher, the student or a combination of both. Each line of inquiry must be explored using a minimum of **two** historical examples, which must come from **more than one region**.

There is no fixed definition of what makes an example for the thematic study. Table 2 presents ways of thinking about what could constitute an example.

Table 2
What constitutes an example?

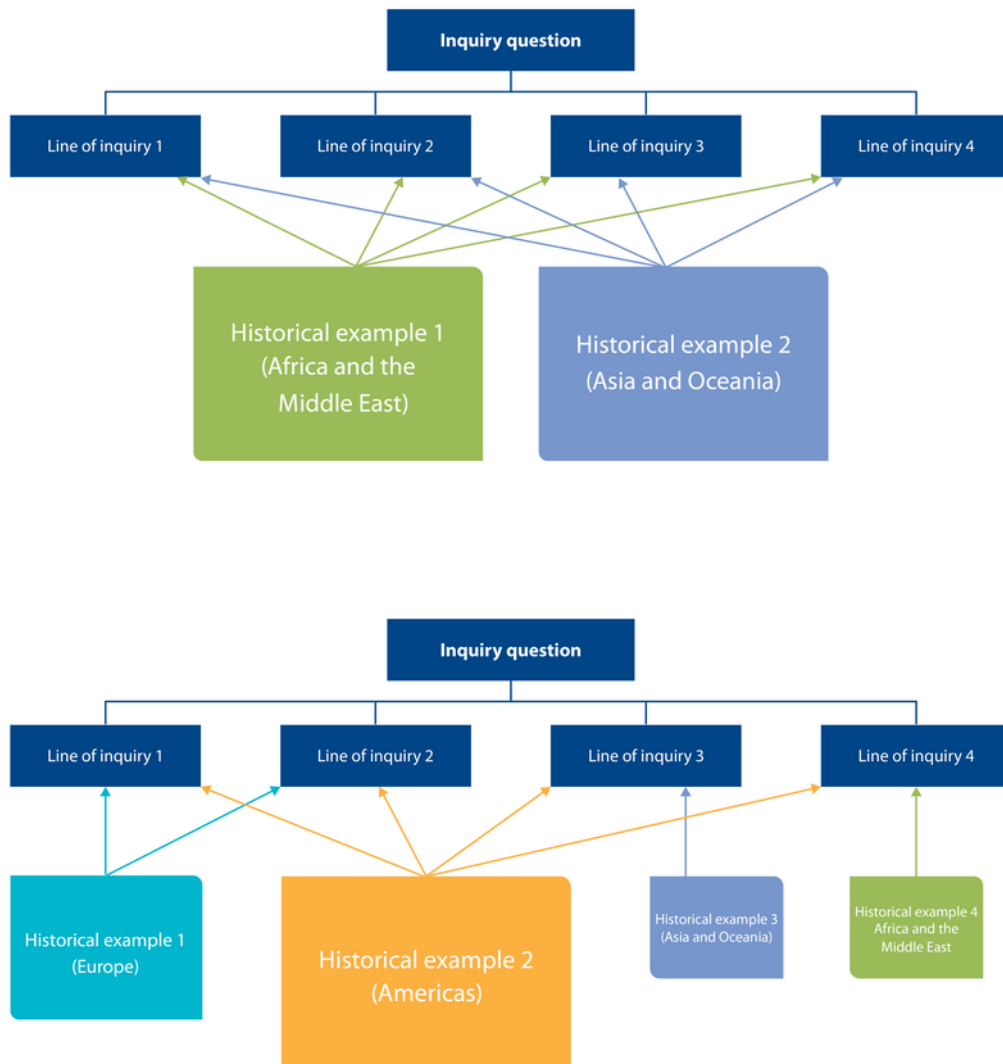
Possible elements	Suggested guidance
People, events, processes	Examples might be narrowly focused on a specific individual or group (e.g. the experience of a particular group in society), events (e.g. a specific conflict) or broad processes or themes (e.g. processes of industrialization).
Geographical scale	Examples might be drawn from a local, national or regional scale. Some of the broadest examples may be cross-regional (e.g. a world war). Specific guidance on how to treat cross-regional examples is provided in the guide.
Duration	Examples might have taken place over years, decades or even longer, depending on the type and scale of the example.

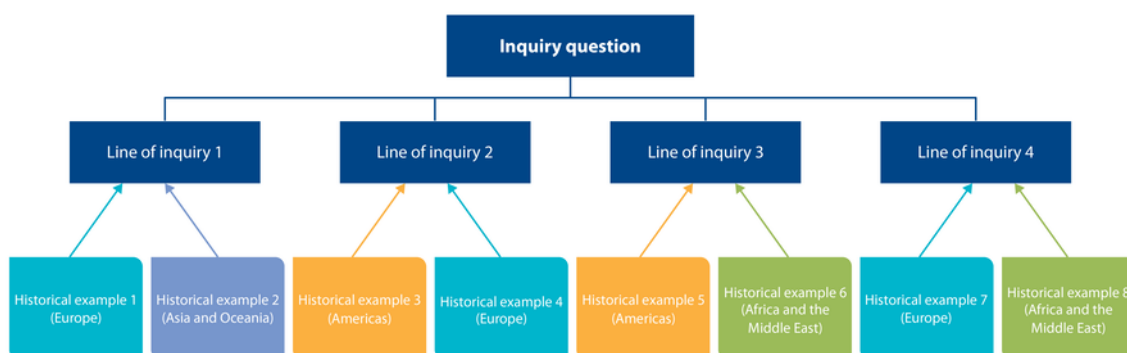
Possible elements	Suggested guidance
Relevance	Narrower examples might be relevant to a single line or multiple lines of inquiry. Broader examples may be relevant to single or multiple inquiry questions, and the broadest examples to the thematic study as a whole. Teachers are recommended to choose the most effective examples to illustrate and explore each part of the thematic study.

The minimum requirement is that each line of inquiry is explored using **two** historical examples, each from a different region. However, teachers are recommended to consider how teaching a variety of examples can benefit students. Figure 6 shows some of the ways that different types of examples could be combined in different ways to best address a thematic study.

Figure 6

Possible combinations of examples for the thematic study





Organizing the course

Once teachers have made their content choices, the course itself needs to be organized. The flexible syllabus structure allows teachers to design the course in a variety of ways.

This section of the TSM provides three possible approaches to organizing the course.

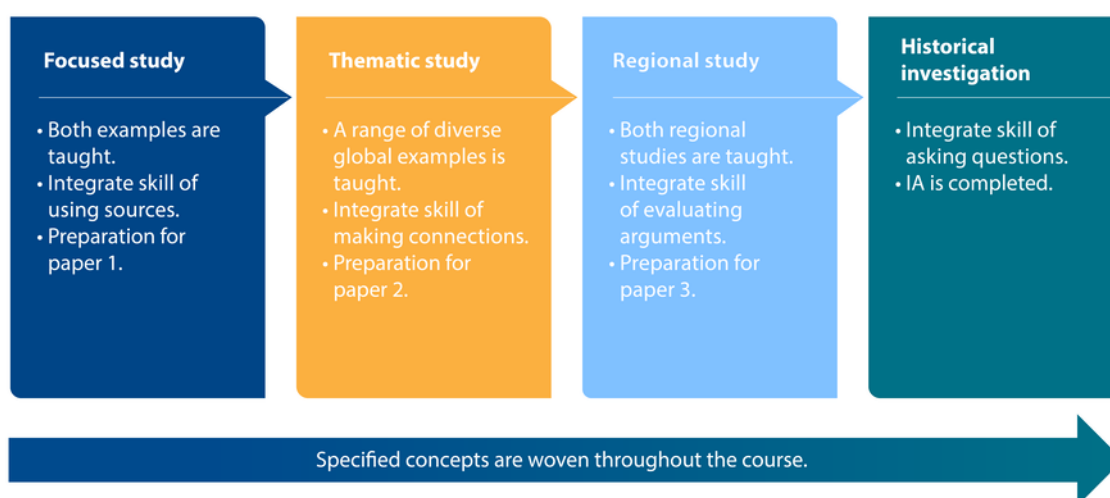
No approach to organizing the course is better than the others. Rather, they allow different elements of the syllabus to be highlighted. Many teachers will combine elements from all three approaches in their organization of the course. All the planning approaches introduced and exemplified in this TSM are examples only and can be utilized in a “mix and match” way.

Non-linear, inquiry context approach

This approach starts with the four inquiry contexts, which can be taught progressively. This is an excellent way to emphasize the historical skills throughout, and allows for a clear assessment focus in each part of the course. The specified concepts can be woven into learning and teaching as appropriate (see figure 7).

Figure 7

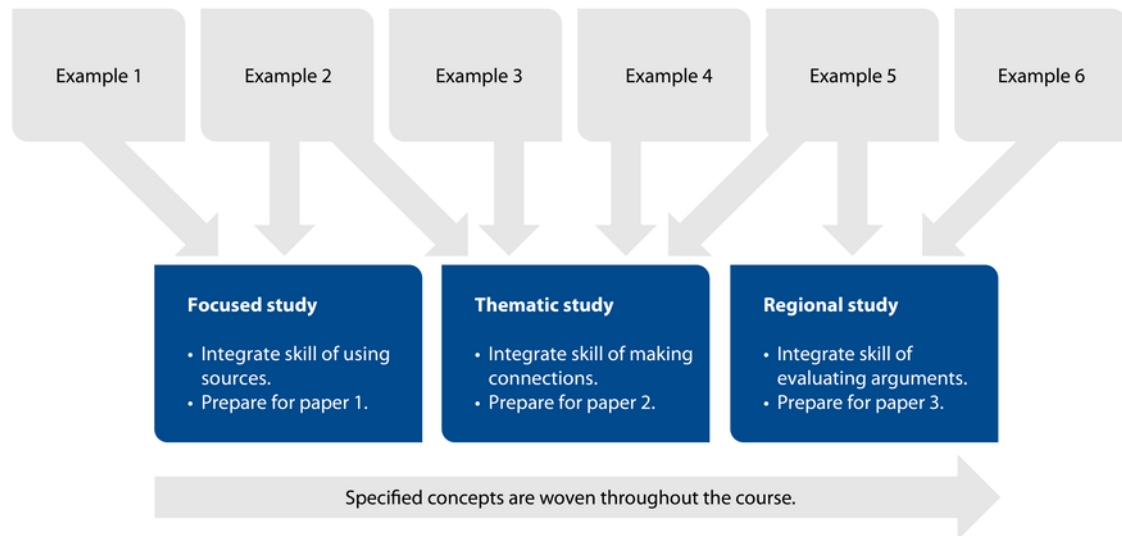
Organizing the course using the inquiry contexts



Linear, content-based approach

This approach starts with a selection of broad examples that have been selected to ensure coverage of the focused study, thematic study and regional study. Some of the examples cover more than one inquiry context. The examples can be arranged chronologically. The historical skills, concepts and assessment preparation can be integrated into the course as appropriate, based on whether a sufficient amount of content has been taught (see figure 8).

Figure 8
Organizing the course around content



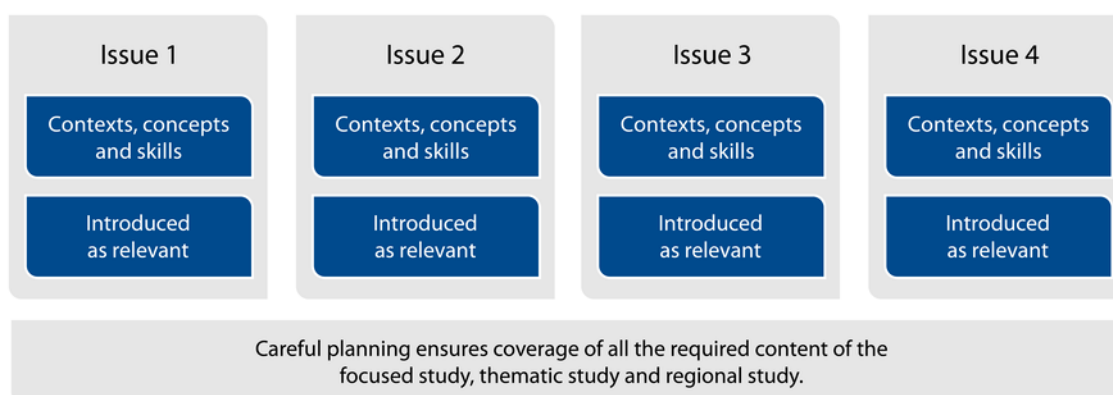
Issue-based approach

This approach starts by identifying a few large and pertinent historical issues, then explores the contexts, concepts, content and skills under the umbrella of these issues (see figure 9).

Issues could be phrased as questions. They could be conceptual, skills focused, or address contemporary concerns to build a course that emphasizes relevance to students' lives. Some example issues, phrased as questions, are as follows.

- What makes things happen in history?
This issue could integrate content from the focused study, thematic study and regional study related to the concept of cause and consequence. It would be a chance for students to draw conceptual links between different inquiry contexts.
- How has war shaped our lives?
This issue could integrate content from all parts of the course, including conflict and displacement (focused study), conflict (thematic study) and the Second World War (regional study). It would give students a chance to explore a pressing contemporary issue through a range of inquiry contexts.
- How can historians use sources to learn about the past?
This issue could have an emphasis on the focused study and the historical investigation (IA), with links made to other inquiry contexts as relevant.

Figure 9

Organizing the course around issues

Examples of choosing content and organizing the course

Four educators were asked to choose content and organize the course for their specific contexts. Their examples provide guidance but do not replace the *Diploma Programme subject outline* and [unit planning documents](#) for formal planning.

The four examples (table 3) are authentic and illustrative of some of the ways of choosing content and designing the history course.

Table 3

Authentic examples of choosing content and organizing the course

Example	School background
1	A private international school in Europe, with an emphasis on approaches to learning and diverse histories in course design (PDF)
2	A state school in the USA, with a focus on developing a coherent, chronological medieval and early modern course (PDF)
3	A private international school in Europe, with a focus on a concept-based approach to organizing the course (PDF)
4	A private national school in Argentina, with a focus on meeting national requirements while promoting student agency in the course design (PDF)

Overview

The historical inquiry contexts (focused study, thematic study, regional study and historical investigation) situate the content of the course in different ways. They are the main organizational principles of both the curriculum and assessment models.

The guide provides all the prescribed information about the historical inquiry contexts, including the available content options within each context, the specific requirements and rules related to choosing content that apply to each context, and the alignment of inquiry contexts with historical skills and assessment.

This section of the TSM supports the learning and teaching of inquiry contexts. This includes suggested guidance of how each inquiry context should look and feel in a DP history classroom, and a toolkit of practical activities and resources. The resources are designed to support teacher planning and instruction, and be shared with students.

What can be found in the subject guide	What can be found in the TSM
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Available content options within each inquiry context • Specific requirements and rules related to choosing content that apply to each context • Alignment of inquiry contexts with historical skills and assessment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Toolkit of practical, downloadable resources and activities that can be used in the classroom, covering every inquiry context. These cover: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ identifying diverse sources for the focused studies ◦ unpacking lines of inquiry and choosing diverse global examples for the thematic study ◦ creating, finding and using historical arguments for the regional study ◦ integrating historical investigation into the rest of the course.

Focused study toolkit

When planning for the focused study, teachers should emphasize students using **diverse historical sources**.

This section provides further guidance on possible sources and suggested ideas for using these sources (see table 4).

Sources relevant to all focused studies

Table 4

Possible sources and suggested guidance

Possible sources	Suggested guidance
Written sources	<p>Written sources can include, but are not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • memoirs, biographies and autobiographies • diaries and personal correspondence • professional communications, such as public announcements, memos, records of meetings, orders, telegrams and emails • legal documents such as laws, policies and constitutions • transcripts of speeches and interviews • stories and novels, both fictional and based on true events • newspaper articles. <p>When using written sources, students may benefit from an understanding of different genres and text types, and the different purposes of writing (e.g. persuasive, argumentative, informative) that accompany these. Students should develop their skill in making inferences from written sources.</p>
Visual sources	<p>Visual sources can include, but are not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • paintings and drawings • political cartoons • photographs • maps and other visual representations of the physical world • television and film, both fictional and based on true events • documentary films and recorded interviews. <p>When using visual sources, students may explore some of the techniques that are used in different mediums. Visual sources are often rich in visual clues and metaphors, and some of these can be highly contextual. For example, political cartoons from the 19th century often represent different countries through specific animals or characters.</p>
Diagrammatic sources	<p>Diagrammatic sources can include, but are not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • statistical information, such as population, health and economic data from surveys and censuses • data representations, such as graphs and flow charts.

Possible sources	Suggested guidance
	When using diagrammatic sources, students may develop some understanding of quantitative analysis, and the different ways that data can be represented (and misrepresented) for different purposes.
Multimodal sources	<p>Multimodal sources can include, but are not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • websites • social media content • any other medium where visual and written content is integrated. <p>When using multimodal sources, especially online, students may wish to explore ways that visuals and text can interact. This may include ways that lead to misrepresentations and misinformation.</p>
Academic sources	<p>Academic sources can include, but are not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • books and peer-reviewed journal articles by academic historians • interviews, articles and podcasts by academic historians in non-academic contexts • historiographical overviews, including debates and disagreements between historians. <p>When using academic sources, students may explore the ways that historians construct their arguments. They should carefully consider the perspectives of historians, the reasons that they provide and their use of evidence.</p>

Possible sources for each focused study

In addition to the general recommendations in the previous section on using sources, each focused study provides unique opportunities to use sources that are specific to that study.

This section identifies possible sources for each focused study, along with suggested guidance (see table 5).

Table 5
Possible sources for each focused study

Focused study	
Climate and innovation (PDF)	Norse exploration (circa 982–1020)
	The Aztec Empire (circa 1428–1469)
Independence and identity (PDF)	The Haitian Revolution (circa 1780–1825)
	Kenyan independence (1945–1978)
Political and economic transitions (PDF)	The Meiji Restoration (1853–1894)
	The Russian Federation (1985–1999)
Conflict and displacement (PDF)	Post-war displacement in Europe (1945–1960)
	Indochina refugee crisis (1975–1990)
Protest and change (PDF)	Feminism in the USA (1960–1979)
	Revolution in Tunisia (1989–2015)

Thematic study toolkit

When planning for the thematic study, teachers must incorporate, at a minimum, **two examples from different regions** for each line of inquiry. Guidance on how to identify and select examples is provided in the “[Designing the history course](#)” section.

This toolkit provides practical resources to support the learning and teaching of every line of inquiry in all four thematic studies.

Each thematic study is organized into four inquiry questions. For each inquiry question, there are possible explorations for every line of inquiry. The possible explorations are a resource that could be shared with students. They provide a variety of ways to think about each line of inquiry and can act as useful tools to encourage deeper inquiry.

Each inquiry question is also accompanied by some possible examples that:

- were co-created with over 50 educators from all regions of the world
- intentionally suggest examples that teachers may be less familiar with
- give concrete, tangible examples of possible inquiries
- can be used as a teacher or student resource to provide starting points for further inquiry and investigation
- do not provide comprehensive content
- aim to inspire and empower teachers to identify and develop their own examples that are meaningful in/for their context.

Conflict (from 750 CE onwards)

Inquiry question 1: Why did conflict emerge?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Economic factors	<p>The economic causes of conflict include different economic conditions and the role of economic actors.</p> <p>Economic conditions can include economic crises, inequality, poverty, scarce resources, the conditions created by different economic systems (such as colonialism and globalization), or an outcome of competing systems (such as capitalism and communism) that can make conflict probable.</p> <p>Economic actors—that may refer to corporations, states and individuals—may see opportunities for aggrandisement, rebalancing or survival, through conflict. From an economic perspective, conflict might be viewed as a rational outcome of a failure of economic cooperation, or the result of economic self-interest (such as a military–industrial complex).</p>
Political factors	<p>The political causes of conflict include both political conditions and the role of political actors.</p> <p>Political conditions can include political crises, such as transitions of power or crises of legitimacy, a breakdown of international political systems for maintaining peace, the conditions created by different, competing political systems (such as colonialism versus anti-colonialism and monarchism versus republicanism) and responses to political oppression.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	<p>Political actors—that will often refer to political leaders such as monarchs and presidents, or groupings such as political parties and states—have often viewed war as “the continuation of politics by other means” (Carl von Clausewitz). In this way, conflict is simply viewed as a legitimate political option. However, the role of accidents, misunderstandings and unintended consequences is also a rich line of inquiry.</p>
Social factors	<p>The social causes of conflict include both social conditions and the role of social actors.</p> <p>Social conditions can refer to the characteristics or features of a society that make conflict more likely. This could include the role of social ideas, such as religion and nationalism, or social crises that lead to a breakdown in peaceful social relations. Social attitudes and cultural norms, particularly those that marginalize or “other” specific social groups, can play an important role in causing conflict.</p> <p>Social actors might refer to civil society organizations, cultural leaders, specific social groups and the media.</p>
Environmental factors	<p>The environmental causes of conflict include both environmental conditions and the role of environmental actors.</p> <p>Environmental conditions can include environmental disasters or crises, including changing climatic and ecological conditions, access to and importance of different natural resources, and the role of geography (particularly important in determining boundaries and borders between different groups).</p> <p>Environmental actors—including Indigenous leaders and societies, environmental campaigners and organizations—play diverse roles in shaping human–environment relationships. Differences in how these actors have perceived, conceptualized or interacted with the environment—whether as a source of economic resources or as a site of tradition, spirituality and belonging—have been key causes of conflict. This is evident, for example, in conflicts between colonial and Indigenous societies.</p>

Possible examples

- [Ethiopian–Adal War \(1529–1543\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)
- [Bangladesh War of Independence \(1971\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [War on Terror \(2001–2021\), cross-region \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 2: What determined the outcome of the conflict?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Role of leadership	<p>The role of leadership, including political and military leaders, is often central to the outcome of conflict. Conflict often leads to the centralization of power and demands rapid decision-making, making leaders more important than in most situations.</p> <p>Leaders can play a role in all kinds of decision-making, including prior to (preparations for) and during conflict. Leaders can play a key role in the morale of a group involved in conflict, and this can be an important factor when conflicts come to an end. In earlier periods, leaders would be directly involved in conflict, often leading from the front.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Strategies and tactics	<p>Strategies and tactics are one line of inquiry, though they refer to two separate, interconnected ideas. The distinction originated in Sun Tzu's <i>The Art of War</i>.</p> <p>Strategies refer to the longer-term, overarching plans, which may encompass geopolitical and military aims, relationships with allies, the use of technology and the broad approach taken to conflict.</p> <p>Tactics refer to the shorter-term, more specific and tangible actions that are taken. This may include decisions such as the use of guerilla tactics, counter-attacks or <i>blitzkrieg</i> tactics.</p> <p>Different forms of conflict, such as total war, revolutions and wars of decolonization, demand different types of strategies and tactics.</p>
Mobilization of resources	<p>The mobilization of resources includes many elements, such as human, environmental and economic factors.</p> <p>The way that people are mobilized in conflict can include conscription into a military and deployment of workers into a conflict-oriented economic activity. Many groups can be mobilized into new areas of life, such as women being integrated into the workforce, or people from colonized places being brought into a conflict by a colonial power. In some forms of conflict, such as total war, all aspects of human life can be mobilized.</p> <p>Environmental and economic mobilization might include the reorientation of normal activity to serve the goals of a conflict.</p> <p>The mobilization of resources, particularly human resources, is often dependent upon political control, and therefore can be supported or undermined by elements such as authority, legitimacy and morale.</p>
Role of technology	<p>Technological developments have often been critical in shaping the outcome of conflict. If one side in a conflict is in possession of a technology that the other side does not possess, this can lead to asymmetries in power and effectiveness that can determine the outcome of conflict. An example is the development of nuclear weapons in the Second World War.</p> <p>Technology both shapes, and is shaped by, conflict. During a conflict, new technologies can be tested or developed that can alter the conflict's outcome. The technology of a conflict can also shape how the conflict is fought—such as machine gun technology shaping the war of attrition in the First World War. This may have an indirect impact on the outcome of the conflict.</p> <p>Technology is not only limited to weaponry—technological developments in communication and healthcare, for example, can also play a role in the outcome of a conflict. Contemporary conflicts are shifting into new technologies, including digital technologies and cyberwarfare.</p>

Possible examples

- [Quilombo dos Palmares \(1690s\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [East Timor conflict \(1975–1999\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [Great Northern War \(1700–1721\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 3: How did the conflict affect people's lives?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Economic impact	<p>Conflict often has a direct, negative economic impact on societies, including damage to infrastructure, disruption to trade and the reorientation of economic activity. As a result of conflict, states may face increased debt, financial instability, resource shortages and inflation. Conflict often disrupts normal economic activity and can lead to both short- and long-term shocks to an economy.</p> <p>Some individuals may profit from conflict, while others experience losses. For example, the physical and psychological impact of conflict can profoundly impact people's ability to engage in economic activity. However, conflict can also lead to new opportunities for some individuals to enter the workforce.</p> <p>The economic impact of conflict may or may not be determined by military success or failure (such as the maxim "won the war but lost the peace").</p>
Social impact	<p>Conflict can shape societies in all kinds of profound ways.</p> <p>The experience of conflict can lead to trauma both among individuals and entire societies. For example, the "lost" generation was a term used to define people who came of age during the First World War, and who were shaped by the collective trauma they experienced.</p> <p>The direct impacts of conflict, such as the loss of human life and damage to infrastructure, the environment and cultural heritage, are all social impacts. The way that conflict is commemorated or memorialized can reveal a lot about the social impact of conflict.</p> <p>Conflict can lead to changes in social cohesion and the fabric of society. Whether a conflict is viewed as justified or not, or as a success or failure, can shape these effects.</p>
Experiences of women	<p>Women's experiences of conflict have sometimes been shaped by expectations around gendered roles. Women have often been restricted to supporting roles in areas such as food preparation and nursing. However, women have increasingly played active combat roles, including in anti-colonial and guerilla wars, and in many contemporary conflicts.</p> <p>Conflict often provides new opportunities for women whose roles have been restricted in times of peace. These new economic, social and cultural opportunities can lead to changing norms around gender roles.</p> <p>A difficult but important topic related to women's experiences is the use of sexual and gender-based violence against women as a tactic during conflict, which has profound impacts on both individual women and society.</p>
Experiences of marginalized groups	<p>The experiences of marginalized groups in conflict can vary greatly. Some groups that were previously marginalized in society may have found new opportunities for social integration or acceptance (e.g. because previous social divisions may have been forgotten in the face of an external threat). Other previously marginalized groups may have found themselves experiencing new levels of marginalization or persecution (e.g. because of assumptions that they lack loyalty in a time of conflict). Additionally, some groups may have found themselves newly marginalized during a conflict (e.g. pacifists or other anti-conflict groups).</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	Many veterans, particularly those who have suffered physical or psychological damage because of conflict, experience marginalization. Similarly, those displaced by, or fleeing from, conflict have often experienced marginalization.

Possible examples

- [Second World War in Australia \(1939–1945\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [Yugoslav Wars—people’s lives \(1991–2001\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)
- [Rhodesian Bush War \(1964–1979\), Africa \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 4: How was peace established?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Military outcome	<p>A military victory for one side in a conflict can result in an end to violence, sometimes referred to as “negative peace”. In the case of an aggressor forcing a conflict, the defeat of this aggressor may be a way of establishing peace.</p> <p>In the case of total war, the only route to peace is often considered to be the complete destruction of the enemy.</p> <p>In limited wars, military success for one side may lead to the retreat of the other.</p>
Political decision-making	<p>Many conflicts end with some form of negotiated peace. This may be in the form of a ceasefire, a negotiated treaty or a dictated set of political terms of surrender.</p> <p>Negotiated peace can happen during a conflict and can lead to a de-escalation of conflict, or it may follow a military success for one side.</p> <p>Sometimes, political decision-making processes may be mediated by, or undertaken with, third parties, such as a dominant external state or international bodies. Political decision-making processes often require legitimacy and acceptance by all sides in a conflict to be successful.</p>
Social factors	<p>Peace can be understood as not simply the absence of violence, but a “positive peace” of social cohesion and harmonious social relationships. The opening lines of the UNESCO constitution state that “since wars begin in the minds of women and men, it is in the minds of women and men that the defences of peace must be constructed”.</p> <p>This line of inquiry can incorporate intellectual, ethical and cultural changes that can alter the nature of social relationships between groups that have previously had a relationship of conflict.</p>
Post-conflict peace-building	<p>Once a conflict has ended, building peace involves a wide range of actors, including political leaders, states, non-governmental organizations and civilian groups.</p> <p>Women, a civilian group whose contribution to peace-building has often been underplayed, have historically played a crucial role in post-conflict peace-building at both family and local levels. Peace-building can incorporate many processes, and there are many theoretical approaches. One example of peace-building processes is truth and reconciliation commissions.</p>

Possible examples

- [Yugoslav Wars—peace-building \(1991–2001\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)

- [Mozambican Civil War \(1977–1992\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)
- [Women and peace-building after the Second World War \(1945–1950s\), cross-region \(PDF\)](#)

Innovation and transformation (from 750 CE onwards)

Inquiry question 1: Why did new innovations emerge?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Social factors	<p>The social causes of innovation include both social conditions and the role of social actors.</p> <p>Social conditions may refer to social problems, challenges or crises that an innovation is attempting to fix or solve. Social conditions could also refer to whether a particular society rewards or inculcates innovation, for example through patronage, education or more broadly through social and cultural norms that prize novel ideas. Social conditions could also refer to the opposite. For example, restrictive or conservative societies might provoke forms of transgressive innovation.</p> <p>Social actors—individuals, groups or organizations that influence or are influenced by social systems—may drive innovation by fostering social networks, collaboration and the exchange of ideas. Their role is also shaped by previous innovations that are socially communicated and shared. Many social scientists have explored the factors that lead to the social adoption of new innovations, such as the idea of the “tipping point” popularized by Malcolm Gladwell.</p>
Economic factors	<p>The economic causes of innovation include both economic conditions and the role of economic actors.</p> <p>Economic conditions may refer to economic systems that reward innovation, a quality that is often ascribed to capitalist societies. Economic competition between individuals or within a market at any scale, for example, can also be a driver of innovation.</p> <p>Economic actors—for example, entrepreneurs—are also often considered central to innovation.</p>
Political factors	<p>The political causes of innovation include both political conditions and the role of political actors.</p> <p>Political conditions can refer to the ways that states or governments create conditions for innovation through the development of legal and political frameworks that encourage new ideas. This might include conditions of minimal government involvement or <i>laissez-faire</i> approaches, which may provide conditions for entrepreneurship.</p> <p>Political actors can refer to political leaders who may promote innovation. This may include government funding and regulation, which have often played a critical role in innovation. Many innovations have emerged from state-funded initiatives, often in collaboration with private social or economic actors.</p>
Environmental factors	<p>The environmental causes of innovation include both environmental conditions and the role of environmental actors.</p> <p>Environmental conditions can include access to natural resources, which often provide the raw materials for innovations. Environmental challenges or</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	<p>problems are one of the largest instigators of innovation, as societies have sought to free themselves from the natural limits of the environment.</p> <p>Environmental actors may refer to individuals or groups that have attempted to understand more about the natural world and humans' relationship with it. For example, in the increasingly globalized and digital 20th century, innovators started to look beyond planetary and natural boundaries, with a growing interest in innovations in space travel and artificial intelligence.</p>

Possible examples

- [Liberation theology \(1950s–1960s\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [Golden Age of Islam \(750–1258\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)
- [Space Race \(1950s–1970s\), cross-region \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 2: How did the innovations transform societies?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Economic change	<p>Some innovations, such as those related to technology, are often designed to bring economic change. However, innovations in other fields can also have (sometimes unexpected) economic impacts.</p> <p>Innovations can lead to changes in economic organization, the nature of work, and the distribution of power and wealth within and between societies (e.g. innovations that led to industrialization).</p> <p>Innovations can be disruptive to the economic status quo, creating new opportunities, as well as new "winners" and "losers". Innovations can also entrench existing economic structures (e.g. by replacing one economic elite with another).</p>
Political change	<p>Some innovations, such as those related to innovative ideas, are designed to bring political change. However, more commonly, innovations in other fields have (sometimes unexpected) political impacts.</p> <p>Transgressive innovations can lead to the questioning of political authority, resulting in challenges to this authority. Innovations in areas such as communication can change the relationship between citizens and the state in different ways.</p> <p>While political factors are often the cause of innovation, this does not mean that political systems and political leaders necessarily benefit from innovation. Indeed, they can sometimes be the victim of it.</p>
Environmental change	<p>Some innovations, such as those related to technology, often bring profound environmental changes, even when they are not designed for this purpose. Novel technologies often demand new or increased levels of energy consumption and/or waste, and this can have significant environmental impacts. Other technologies are expressly designed to change the way that natural resources are used, or they may replace natural resources (e.g. replacing fossil fuels with synthetic/artificial alternatives).</p> <p>Other innovations have changed the relationship of human societies with the natural environment. For example, changes to communication, transportation and infrastructure can bring people closer to, or create barriers with, the environment.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Cultural change	<p>Innovation can transform all features of culture, which can be understood as the ideas, customs and norms within a society. This can manifest through different forms of social interaction, knowledge, beliefs, the arts, laws and social customs.</p> <p>Innovations in one field (e.g. technological innovations) can cross over and influence many aspects of culture. Culture in many societies is not homogenous, and innovations can result in the emergence of new dominant cultures, subcultures and transgressive cultures.</p> <p>Some innovations lead to the transmission of different aspects of culture from one society to another. In other cases, innovations may lead to competition between cultures.</p>

Possible examples

- [Indian textiles \(9th–14th centuries\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [Television in the USA \(1920s–2000s\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [Socialist city \(1949–1980\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 3: How were the innovations resisted?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Resistance from established authorities	<p>Resistance from established authorities has often resulted from a threat or perception of a loss of power, wealth, status or authority.</p> <p>Elite groups, with economic, social or political authority, have a wide range of methods to resist innovations. This can include political or legal methods to block the introduction or spread of new innovations, and in some contexts the use of force (particularly where an innovation has emerged as a direct threat to established authority).</p> <p>Established authorities may also use methods to persuade society to reject innovation, such as the spreading of (mis)information or propaganda through the media.</p>
Forms of popular resistance	<p>Popular resistance to innovation is sometimes characterized as being driven by ignorance or fear (such as the common derogatory labelling of “luddites”).</p> <p>However, much popular resistance is driven by the threat or perception of a loss of social status, economic stability or accepted cultural norms. Popular resistance may increase when innovations are seen as benefitting only a few, widening inequalities in power or wealth, or offering only long-term benefits. Popular resistance to innovation can take many forms, including rejection or refusal to adopt innovations, and protest or violence against the innovation or those who seek to spread it.</p>
Resilience of traditional ideas	<p>Innovations can change the way people think and behave. However, all human societies have traditional ideas, including shared characteristics, norms, history, identity and beliefs. Traditional ideas can be both organic and popularly held, or institutionalized and policed by elite institutions and groups. In this way, traditional ideas intersect with both previous lines of inquiry.</p> <p>Traditional ideas and innovations can compete directly through discussion, debate and a “marketplace of ideas”. However, even when innovations are</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	adopted, traditional ideas can prove resilient, and innovation and tradition can co-exist in relatively peaceful or antagonistic relationships.
Competing innovations	<p>For a variety of reasons, innovations have rarely emerged in isolation. If there is a problem to be solved, then it is likely that multiple individuals and groups will propose solutions. If other developments lead to new opportunities to innovate ("standing on the shoulders of giants") then there are likely to be diverse ways to take advantage of this opportunity.</p> <p>The history of innovation is as much a history of innovations that failed to become widespread, as those that did. The reasons why some innovations succeeded while others did not is a rich line of inquiry. It can result from the superiority of the innovation itself, but also from the role of individuals, the ways in which innovations are communicated, the importance of chance and timing, the use of power or even the use of force.</p>

Possible examples

- [Green Revolution \(1900s–1980s\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [Punk rock \(1970s\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)
- [Smallpox vaccination \(1840s\), cross-region \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 4: How did the innovations affect people's lives?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Experiences of innovators	<p>Innovators who create something novel are often able to benefit significantly from their own innovations, either within their own field (e.g. in terms of status) or in other fields, such as transferring a technological innovation into forms of political and economic power.</p> <p>However, other innovators—such as women—often had very different experiences. Their innovations were frequently co-opted, overlooked or erased from historical records.</p> <p>Historical innovations are, in fact, rarely the result of one individual, but involve networked individuals and groups working in collaborative or competitive relationships. This is one reason why many innovations can appear at the same time in different places, seemingly unconnected.</p>
Experiences of social elites	<p>Historically, innovations were often created and spread through relationships with social elites, such as through patronage. The connections between institutions—including academic and state institutions—and innovation have played a crucial role. These institutions have not only benefited significantly from innovations, but have also served as the hubs through which innovations are controlled.</p> <p>In some instances, institutions can restrict the influence of innovations in other parts of society. Innovations can be used (or abused) by social elites to serve other goals, such as the maintenance of power or privilege, or they can be used in the service of wider social goals.</p>
Experiences of women	<p>Given that many innovations have historically been designed (or co-opted) by men, and that in most historical societies institutions were also dominated by men, it is perhaps unsurprising that women were less likely to be the intended audience or beneficiaries of innovations. Therefore, the experience of women</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	<p>was greatly mixed. In some cases, women found that innovations presumed to be beneficial for society had a negative impact on them.</p> <p>It is important to recognize that the impact of innovations is complex—innovations in one field can have impacts in many other aspects of society, many of which can be unintended. Innovations could lead to changing experiences of all facets of life, including domestic and working life, leisure, standards of living, health and well-being, gender norms and family organization.</p> <p>Women had different options of acceptance and resistance available to them. All innovations were able to be co-opted for purposes other than that for which they were designed.</p>
Experiences of marginalized groups	<p>Innovations that have been adopted by a society are often unlikely to have been designed with marginalized groups in mind. Therefore, the experience of innovations among marginalized groups may be incredibly mixed.</p> <p>Innovations could have impacts on all facets of life, including social structures, cultural norms, and changing ideas around ethnicity, sexuality, religion and class. Different marginalized groups may have found their experience of an innovation to be wildly different to the presumed social impact. Some groups may have been able to accept, resist and co-opt innovations for their own purposes.</p>

Possible examples

- [Changing ideas about gender and sexuality \(19th and 20th centuries\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)
- [Mineral Revolution and gold mining machinery \(19th century\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)
- [Harlem Renaissance \(1920s\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)

Authoritarian rule (from 1750 CE onwards)

Inquiry question 1: Why did authoritarian rule emerge?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Role of ideas	<p>The role of ideas in the emergence of authoritarian rule can include both the ideas themselves and the way they were used.</p> <p>There are many ideas that could be explored. These include various political ideologies, including ideas about systems of government or authority, such as ideas related to monarchy, religion, colonialism and 20th century ideologies such as totalitarianism and communism. There are also broader social ideas—such as nationalism, racism, militarism, populism and futurism—that have played important roles in the emergence of authoritarian rule.</p> <p>Ideas have been used to justify or legitimize authoritarian rule, including in moments of social crisis or breakdown. The propagation and spread of ideas could also be explored, including through political actors (e.g. political campaigning), the media and technology.</p>
Social factors	<p>The social causes of authoritarian rule include both social conditions and the role of social actors.</p> <p>Social conditions may include the role of social ideas, such as nationalism or racism, or social crises that lead to a breakdown of normal social relations.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	<p>Social attitudes and cultural norms, particularly those that marginalize or scapegoat specific social groups (sometimes leading to segregated societies), can play an important role in emerging authoritarian rule.</p> <p>Social actors might refer to civil society organizations, cultural leaders, specific social groups and the media.</p>
Role of conflict	<p>Authoritarian rule has a strong connection to conflict, both within and between societies. In societies where normal, peaceful social relations have broken down, a strong leader who promises order and stability may be appealing. Crisis states, such as those that have entered a period of civil war, may be particularly vulnerable to this.</p> <p>In times of inter-state war, countries often require fast and decisive decision-making, which can lead to centralized, authoritarian rule. When societies suffer defeat in war, they can also be vulnerable to the emergence of authoritarian rulers who promise strength and renewal.</p> <p>Conflict can also lead to the intervention of third parties, such as powerful neighbouring countries, who might introduce authoritarian rule (e.g. by manufacturing a coup d'état) into a country for reasons of self-interest.</p>
Economic factors	<p>The economic causes of authoritarian rule include both economic conditions and the role of economic actors.</p> <p>Economic conditions may refer to the overall state of a country's economy, including factors like employment levels, inflation, income distribution and economic growth or decline. These conditions can influence the rise of authoritarianism in different ways. For example, economic crises may create vulnerabilities in a society that authoritarian rulers promise to remedy. In other instances, authoritarian rule can emerge because of unequal distributions of wealth and power, which might be institutionalized as economically segregated societies.</p> <p>The role of economic actors can refer to powerful economic elites, such as business leaders and financial institutions, that may see self-interested advantages in supporting emerging authoritarian rulers.</p>

Possible examples

- [Isabel Perón and Argentina \(1974–1976\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [Józef Piłsudski and Poland \(1920s\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)
- [Mohammad Mosaddegh and Iran \(1950s\), cross-region \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 2: How was authoritarian rule maintained?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Legal methods	<p>Legal methods can include changes to the apparatus of the state, such as removing legal restrictions on centralized power. This may include abolishing constitutional checks and balances, creating new political structures and enacting laws that consolidate authority.</p> <p>Legal methods may also involve changing how legal and political structures are implemented throughout society—for example, changing individuals' access to legal representation and courts, and changing the bodies that implement the law, such as the police.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Use of force	<p>The use of force can include explicit uses of violence to target opposition leaders or groups, which may extend to arrests, “show” trials and public acts of violence. It can also include the encouragement or coordination of state-led or state-sanctioned violence in society, which may be targeted at specific social groups.</p> <p>The use of force may be sporadic and disorganized, such as the state turning a blind eye to acts of public disorder. It may also be systemized and ideological, such as the use of force by state-mandated militia groups. Additionally, the use of force may include the threat of violence.</p>
Propaganda	<p>Propaganda can include many forms of mass communication using a range of technologies, including art, newspapers, radio, television, cinema, cultural events and the internet. Propaganda can provide a positive message about the benefits being accrued through authoritarian rule, or a negative message that seeks to stigmatize or marginalize specific groups, or spread fear among a society. Propaganda seeks to influence ways of thinking among society, which makes its impact difficult to measure.</p>
Popular support	<p>Though authoritarian rule, by definition, concentrates power in an individual or group, it may still depend on popular support. Popular support can be one of the many ways that an authoritarian regime is legitimized, including through elections, plebiscites, demonstrations, rallies or other displays of support.</p> <p>Though popular support may be genuine, in many cases, these displays will be carefully controlled and manipulated by the state. They are nonetheless highly important to demonstrate legitimacy.</p>

Possible examples

- [Getúlio Vargas and Brazil \(1930–1945\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [Khmer Rouge and Cambodia \(1975–1979\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [Alexander III and Russia \(1881–1894\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 3: How did authoritarian rule affect people’s lives?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Economic effects	<p>The economic effects of authoritarian rule can include economic reorganization, often influenced by the ruler’s ideology or an economic crisis that led to their rise. Because authoritarian regimes often emerge in response to a crisis, the economic effects may depend on how well the regime addresses the problems created by the crisis.</p> <p>Some authoritarian rulers, such as populists, may promise to improve the economic conditions for all members of society. Other forms of authoritarian rule might be characterized by clientelism and corruption, as the ruler seeks to benefit a small section of society.</p>
Social effects	<p>The social effects of authoritarian rule are also influenced by the ruler’s ideology or social crises that led to their rise.</p> <p>In totalitarian states, many authoritarian rulers seek to unify society around the idea of loyalty to the state or leader. Alongside this, many authoritarian states focus on who to exclude from society. In this way, the social effects of authoritarian rule are rarely homogenous and are often unequally distributed.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Experiences of women	<p>Women's experiences of authoritarian rule vary greatly, again depending upon the ideology of the authoritarian regime. For example, some communist ideologies have aspired to liberate and bring social equality to women, while some fascist ideologies have sought to establish patriarchal structures that limit women to domestic roles.</p> <p>Women have always had to make complicated and difficult choices about whether to accept, co-opt or resist expectations created by authoritarian rulers.</p>
Experiences of marginalized groups	<p>A common feature of authoritarian rule is the marginalization, "othering" and scapegoating of specific groups in society. Members of marginalized groups may be subject to discrimination and violence, both by the state and wider society. For many marginalized groups, the intersection of different identities (e.g. ethnicity, gender, class, religion) may have profound impacts on how they experience authoritarian rule.</p> <p>Marginalized groups have always faced difficult choices about whether to accept or resist changing treatment and attitudes.</p>

Possible examples

- [Alberto Fujimori and Peru \(1990s\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [British colonial rule in Bengal \(18th–20th centuries\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [Belgian colonial rule in Congo \(1885–1960\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 4: How was authoritarian rule challenged?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Internal opposition	<p>Authoritarian rule, by definition, concentrates power within an individual or group. This monopoly of power has often created complex internal dynamics, such as personal jealousies, internecine rivalries and internal competitions for power. This can be particularly prevalent when a leader's authority is perceived to have weakened, during transitions of power from one ruler to another, or when a state seems to be heading for decline or collapse.</p> <p>Some authoritarian rulers intentionally create competing centres of power, with the aim of "divide and rule", though this can also be a factor in the emergence of internal opposition.</p>
Popular resistance	<p>Popular resistance to authoritarian rule can include organized, systematic forms of resistance, such as underground resistance movements that engage in acts of domestic sabotage, anti-state propaganda or violent resistance. It can also include less organized acts of resistance, such as acts of solidarity with persecuted groups.</p> <p>Additionally, there are many forms of day-to-day resistance, including standing silent when the national anthem is sung, being intentionally unproductive in the workplace and making jokes that make fun of the authoritarian ruler.</p>
Impact of policies	<p>As explored in other lines of inquiry, authoritarian rulers often depend on legitimacy and popular support despite concentrating power centrally. Therefore, failures in policy can undermine authoritarian rule. For example, an authoritarian ruler's legitimacy may be undermined by their failure to resolve an economic crisis that led to their rise.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	Policies can often be contradictory or have unintended consequences. For example, an authoritarian ruler who promises greater self-sufficiency and less reliance on imports may find that to achieve this goal they have to lower the living standards of the very groups in society they promised to support.
External threats	<p>As explored in inquiry question 1, many authoritarian rulers emerge in response to or through a conflict, and the external threat of conflict can also be a major challenge to authoritarian rule.</p> <p>Authoritarian rulers with expansionist aims may be at particular risk of external military threats. External threats can also include a range of actions available to other governments, including economic sanctions or rejection from international agreements or external organizations. Other actions include boycotts and support for resistance movements.</p> <p>In the cases where there is a significant diaspora, their contributions to resistance movements may also pose a threat to authoritarian rule.</p>

Possible examples

- [Robert Mugabe and Zimbabwe \(1980–2017\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)
- [Omar al-Bashir and Sudan \(1989–2019\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)
- [Spanish colonial rule and the Philippines \(1565–1898\), cross-region \(PDF\)](#)

Popular movements (from 1750 CE onwards)

Inquiry question 1: Why did popular movements emerge?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Political factors	<p>The political causes of popular movements include both political conditions and the role of political actors.</p> <p>Political conditions may refer to many kinds of oppressive, unequal, illegitimate or corrupt political structures, forms of government and legal systems. Criticisms of political conditions can be exacerbated if key political leaders, such as monarchs, act in ways that are perceived to worsen these conditions.</p> <p>Political actors may refer to leaders, who might use an existing or new political position as a platform for beginning a popular movement.</p>
Economic factors	<p>The economic causes of popular movements include both economic conditions and the role of economic actors.</p> <p>Economic conditions may refer to all kinds of economic inequalities. These might be highly visible, such as the legal systems that restrict or control the economic activity of certain groups, or less visible, such as forms of economic discrimination or a lack of opportunities.</p> <p>Economic actors are individuals, groups or organizations that participate in economic activities, such as producing, distributing or consuming goods and services. Economic actors might start a popular movement with the purpose of transforming economic conditions.</p>
Role of ideas	

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	<p>The role of ideas in the emergence of popular movements can refer to the intellectual foundations of a popular movement. The intellectual foundations might draw on diverse sources of knowledge and apply them in new ways.</p> <p>The role of ideas may also refer to grassroots or bottom-up ideas, such as those that emerge from the lived experiences of groups of people who have suffered forms of oppression or inequality. Such ideas may also draw on Indigenous, traditional or contemporary ideas.</p> <p>Ideas in the broadest sense can provide a way for individuals to develop a shared sense of purpose or identity, and therefore form the basis for a popular movement.</p>
Social factors	<p>The social causes of popular movements include both social conditions and the role of social actors.</p> <p>Social conditions can refer to all kinds of ideas, customs and norms within a society, which can manifest through different forms of social interaction, knowledge and beliefs, and the arts. These conditions may promote a single, homogenous view of a society that excludes and discriminates against certain social groups.</p> <p>Social actors may refer to significant cultural figures, groups, organizations or everyday individuals whose social interactions may reinforce social conditions.</p>

Possible examples

- [Abolitionist movement in Brazil \(circa 1800–1888\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [Mothers of the Plaza de Mayo \(1977–2006\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [Pan-European Picnic \(1989\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 2: How did popular movements create change?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Political participation	<p>Popular movements have often focused on achieving forms of political and legal recognition, equality or freedom. This can be achieved through legal methods, such as challenging laws through the courts. It can involve efforts to lobby, persuade or influence members of the political system to become allies or advocates, or use other methods (both non-violent and violent) to pressure political institutions to make political reforms.</p> <p>Political reforms may include the right to vote, the right to become political representatives and legislation to achieve equality. In situations where there is no avenue for authorized political participation, this may lead to unilateral political acts, such as declaring independence.</p>
Non-violent methods	<p>The history of non-violent methods is rich and diverse. It incorporates approaches such as civil disobedience, marches, protests, consciousness-raising, protest art and music, boycotts and sanctions, strikes, symbolic protests and forms of political non-cooperation.</p> <p>Mahatma Gandhi developed the term <i>satyagraha</i> (truth force) to refer to the practice of using non-violent forms of protest to reveal the reality of oppression. This positions non-violence as an active—not passive—form of protest.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	Non-violent methods are often employed by those with fewer resources than the authority they are protesting (e.g. civilians or marginalized groups protesting against the state).
Cultural influence	<p>The relationship of protest movements and culture is long and varied. Many individuals and groups will use cultural methods as a form of protest, including cultural mediums such as art, film, music and photography.</p> <p>The role of the media in popular movements is often critical, and the way that popular movements try to generate favourable and widespread coverage in traditional media (and more recently social media) is a key element in many movements.</p> <p>Ultimately, many popular movements rely on cultural and social changes in the way that the movement is perceived and understood to achieve success. Additionally, although it is sometimes challenging to measure changing social and cultural attitudes, these are critical to the success of most popular movements.</p>
Violent methods	<p>Violence as a form of protest can take many forms. It can be disorganized, unplanned and sporadic, or highly organized, planned and systemic. Violence may also include uncoordinated riots and looting, coordinated acts of civil disorder and acts of terrorism.</p> <p>Historically, states often maintain a “monopoly of violence” through control of the police, army and other forms of state-sanctioned violence. Consequently, popular movements have typically used violence as a last resort or in response to escalating state oppression.</p> <p>The relationship of violent and non-violent methods is often nuanced, and groups and individuals can often make use of both processes symbiotically.</p>

Possible examples

- [Indigenous rights movements in Canada and the USA \(20th–21st centuries\), Americas \(PDF\)](#)
- [Dalit movements \(20th century\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [LGBTQIA+ rights movements in Europe \(20th century\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 3: How were popular movements challenged?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Political opposition	<p>Political opposition to popular movements may refer to opposition from political elites, such as the government, and the use of different branches of the state, including the legal system, police and the military.</p> <p>It can also refer to the ways that other groups in society with opposing views make use of political and legal methods to challenge a popular movement (e.g. by advocating against a change in laws).</p> <p>Additionally, it may refer to how popular movements and their opponents engage in debate and discussion, sometimes through the media, and how the media can shape and influence political discourse.</p>
Divisions within the movement	<p>Popular movements can divide in different ways. There may be disputes over the methods that have been employed (e.g. non-violent versus violent methods) or over the leadership of a movement, which might be the result of a perceived loss of legitimacy or a leader becoming weakened.</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	<p>Popular movements are not static or homogenous, and as they grow or gather momentum, they can incorporate new groups that may take the movement in new directions.</p> <p>Popular movements may also have disputes over their success, or the lack thereof, particularly if a group seems to have lost momentum or has only achieved benefits for some of its members.</p>
Violent opposition	<p>Violent opposition to popular movements can take many forms, including state-led violence (e.g. violence by the police or military) that may be planned or coordinated with non-state actors, such as militia groups.</p> <p>It can also refer to more spontaneous, bottom-up forms of violent opposition, such as riots, extrajudicial actions (e.g. lynchings) and gender-based violence.</p> <p>Violent opposition can happen publicly or privately (e.g. within a household that has become divided by a popular movement).</p>
Resilience of traditional ideas	<p>Popular movements seek, at some level, to change people's minds. However, there are many ways that traditional ideas can prove resilient. For example, popular movements may have brought about political or legal changes, without necessarily changing cultural norms or values.</p> <p>Societies are not homogenous, and new ideas popularized by a popular movement may co-exist, with varying levels of tension, with traditional ideas. Sometimes, ideas from a popular movement can become mainstream, while traditional ideas become unconventional but persist.</p>

Possible examples

- [Taiping Rebellion \(1850–1864\), Asia and Oceania \(PDF\)](#)
- [Sámi people movement in Norway \(1979–1981\), Europe \(PDF\)](#)
- [Les Chatouilleuses movement in Mayotte \(1960s–1970s\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)

Inquiry question 4: What was the impact of popular movements?

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
Political change	<p>Popular movements can bring about political change in a variety of ways, such as by introducing new laws that promote legal equality or regulate different aspects of society.</p> <p>Political change can also refer to increased participation in political life for those involved in, or represented by, a popular movement (e.g. involvement in electoral politics or increased representation in government).</p> <p>Some popular movements do not work within a political system but seek to fundamentally change it. For these movements, political change may involve the replacement of one political or legal system with another.</p>
Social change	<p>Social change brought about by a popular movement can take many forms, including changes to the nature of work, housing, education, poverty, domestic life, culture and the arts. Shifting cultural values, norms, ways of thinking and behaving can all be indicators of social change.</p> <p>Societies are not homogenous, and while popular movements may bring change to some groups or aspects of society, more traditional ways of living can also persevere. Popular movements may create new social and cultural</p>

Line of inquiry	Possible explorations
	norms that become mainstream, while older norms may become less common but still exist.
Experiences of women	<p>Women's experiences of popular movements may refer to the experience of women involved in the popular movement itself. Some popular movements, particularly those focused on the position of women in society, have had significant leadership and representation by women. In other movements, women may have been excluded or underrepresented.</p> <p>Women's experiences may also refer to the ways that women in society experience the changes brought about by popular movements. In some cases, the popular movement may have directly addressed women (e.g. gendered social expectations) or women's roles in the workplace. In other cases, the purpose of the popular movement could indirectly intersect with women's lived experiences in various ways.</p>
Experiences of marginalized groups	<p>Many popular movements aim to improve the lives of marginalized groups. However, these movements can still exclude and marginalize other groups. For example, women's rights movements in the late 19th and early 20th centuries often focused on White, middle-class women, neglecting the intersectional oppression faced by Black and working-class women.</p> <p>Marginalized groups may respond to popular movements by rejecting, opposing, collaborating with, co-opting or integrating into them.</p>

Possible examples

- [Women of Liberia Mass Action for Peace \(2003\), Africa and the Middle East \(PDF\)](#)
- [1960s student movements, cross-region \(PDF\)](#)
- [Fridays for Future \(from 2018\), cross-region \(PDF\)](#)

Regional study toolkit

When planning the regional study (higher level [HL] only), teachers should emphasize students evaluating historical arguments. The regional study is assessed in paper 3, an examination focused on evaluating arguments. It is therefore important that the inquiry topics and specified content for the topics are explored through historical arguments.

The regional study is different to the focused and thematic studies, in that it does not provide inquiry questions for students. This part of the syllabus invites teachers and students to construct their own historical arguments to frame learning and teaching. This section of the TSM illustrates some practical ways that this can be implemented in learning and teaching.

Using historical arguments in the classroom

Historical arguments will provide a perspective on a topic, issue, event or person. They may have a very clear position or be more nuanced or qualified. Historical arguments are constructed through a combination of the inquiry topics and specified content. The inquiry topics provide the broader framing and often have a connection to one of the specified concepts (cause and consequence, continuity and change, perspectives, significance). The specified content provides relevant themes and factors, and often names specific people or events.

Possible strategy	Suggested guidance
Using a teacher-prepared argument to frame a unit	A unit on an inquiry topic could be framed entirely around a well-crafted argument. The teacher could open the unit with a compelling argument, and then spend a sequence of lessons exploring and interrogating this argument, ensuring that all the specified content is covered during the inquiry.
Using a teacher-prepared argument for a debate at the end of a unit	At the end of a unit, a teacher could use a well-crafted argument to lead a class debate. This could be a powerful tool for reflective and collaborative learning among a group of students.
Using teacher-prepared arguments as a collaborative learning tool	The teacher could organize the class into small groups. Each group is given a different argument. After giving students time to unpack the argument, the teacher may ask students to rotate their papers, so each group has a new argument. In the second round, teachers can ask students to identify two to three perspectives on the argument. When this round is complete, teachers may ask students to rotate their papers again. In the final round, students will need to read the work from the first two groups, and then develop a reasoned judgement in response to the argument.
Students developing their own arguments for inquiry	Allowing students to use the syllabus content to design their own arguments can help them direct their own inquiries.
Students developing multiple arguments as a reflective activity	At the end of a unit or sequence of lessons on an inquiry topic, students can work in pairs or small groups to craft as many distinct arguments as possible. By sharing these with their peers, students will have a bank of possible arguments that can be used for revision and preparation for the external assessments.

Possible strategy	Suggested guidance
Using arguments to design formative and summative assessments	Before expecting students to take a mock examination for paper 3, give them opportunities to respond to sample arguments in a variety of conditions. When they are first introduced to evaluating arguments, consider allowing students to answer questions using their notes, a textbook or in groups. Ask students to self- or peer-assess their work using the markscheme. Gradually build up to students completing paper 3 essay questions individually and within a time limit.

This section of the TSM offers four sample regional studies, each with examples of possible arguments. These examples:

- are authentic arguments created by DP history teachers who were provided with the subject guide
- provide concrete, tangible examples of how arguments can be created using the inquiry topic and/or specified content
- can be used or adapted to inform unit and lesson planning for these units
- should not be seen as comprehensive—they are possible arguments, and many other arguments could have been created
- are intended to inform and inspire teachers and students to create possible arguments for their own units
- have **not** been created by the IB for examination purposes.

Example	Regional study
1	Independence movements in Algeria, Angola, Ghana, Guinea, Namibia and Tanganyika (circa 1900–2000) (PDF)
2	Independence movements in the Americas (1763–1860) (PDF)
3	The Cold War in Asia (1949–2002) (PDF)
4	Europe and the Second World War (1918–1949) (PDF)

Historical investigation toolkit

A historical investigation should be thought of as a research process. It includes formulating a historical inquiry question, identifying and choosing sources, evaluating sources and synthesizing evidence to reach conclusions.

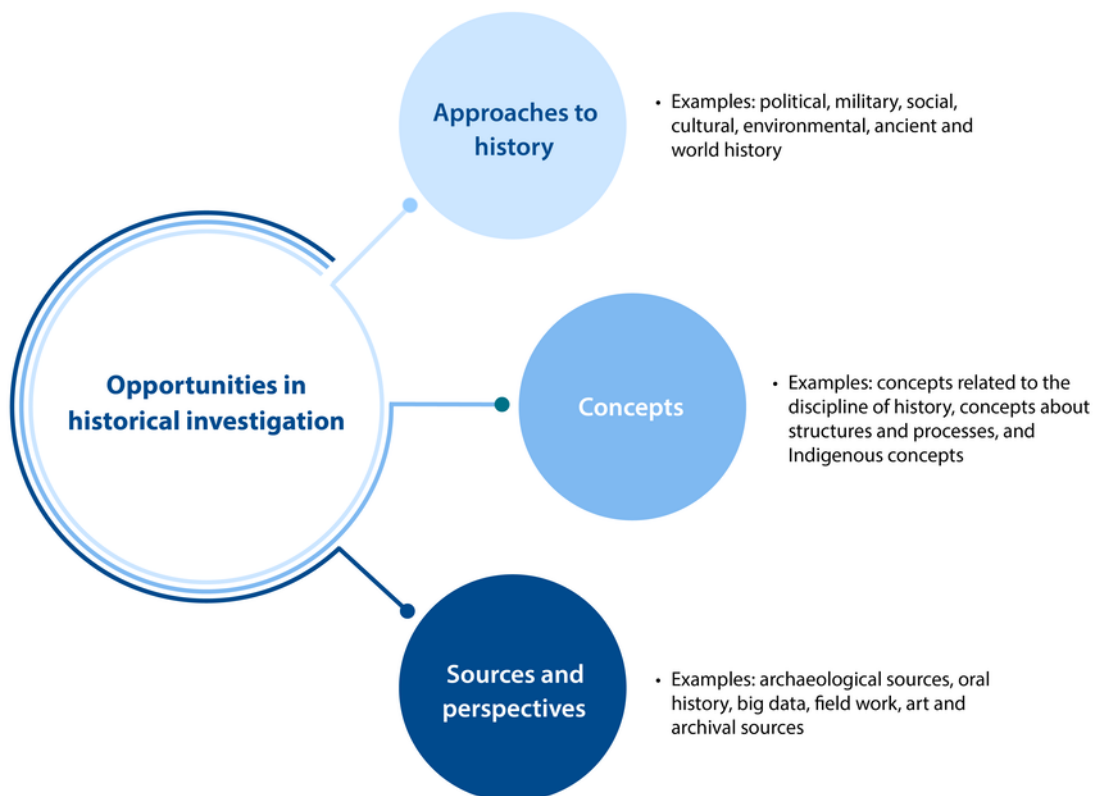
Integrating historical investigation into the rest of the course

Teachers should think of historical investigations as an opportunity for students to have **agency and choice**, to create a history course that is personally meaningful to them. Students may investigate something from the syllabus in greater depth, or something outside the syllabus that they have seen and want to learn more about. Historical investigations support the development of students' academic interests, provide opportunities to explore their personal and community histories, and connect to their future aspirations and university or work readiness.

Historical investigations can also be thought of as opportunities to explore approaches to history, concepts, and sources and perspectives that might otherwise not be addressed (see figure 10).

Figure 10

Opportunities in historical investigation



In this section of the TSM, the three opportunities provided by historical investigation are unpacked further, with suggested explorations.

- [Approaches to history \(PDF\)](#)
- [Concepts \(PDF\)](#)
- [Sources and perspectives \(PDF\)](#)

Overview

The specified historical concepts are designed to be threaded throughout the course. They are an integral part of both the DP history curriculum and its assessment.

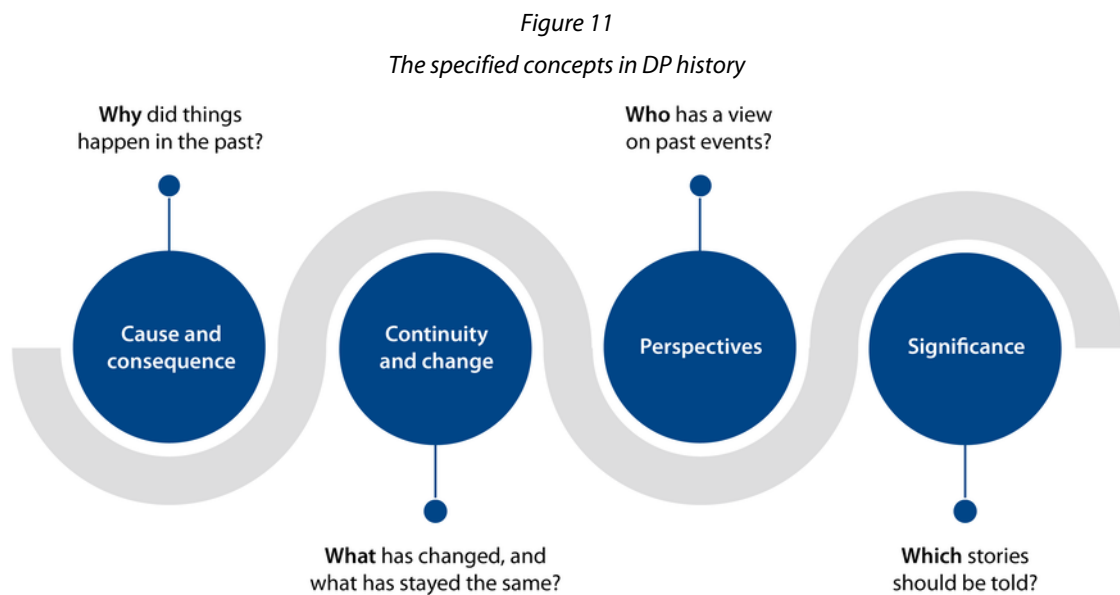
The *History guide* provides all the prescribed information about the specified historical concepts, including their definitions and conceptual understandings, and their integration into each assessment component.

This section of the TSM provides a toolkit of resources that can be used to support the application of the specified historical concepts in the classroom through high-quality learning and teaching. This includes suggested guidance on how to plan for deepening conceptual understanding, as well as practical activities and resources. The resources are designed to support teacher instruction, to be shared with students, and to inform formative assessment and feedback.

What can be found in the subject guide	What can be found in the TSM
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definitions and conceptual understandings for each of the specified concepts • Concepts integrated into the assessment components 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Suggested guidance on how to plan for deepening conceptual understanding • Toolkit of practical, downloadable activities and resources that can be used in the classroom, covering every concept

Planning for deepening conceptual learning and teaching

There are four specified historical concepts. **All** four historical concepts must be taught. The four concepts are represented in figure 11.

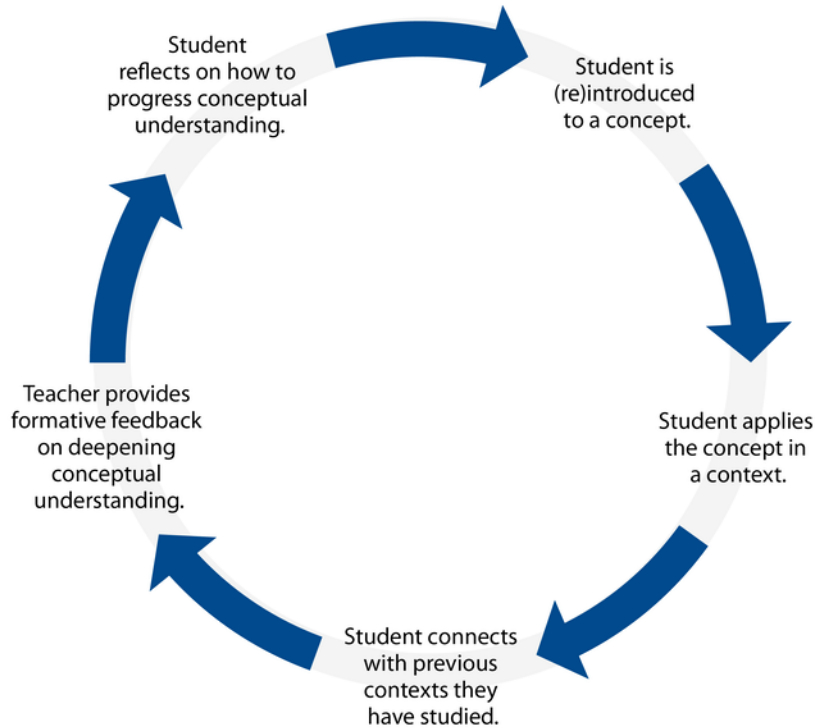


The concepts **should not be taught in isolation**. Though the initial introduction of a concept might be decontextualized (e.g. the teacher might share the definition and conceptual understandings with students in an abstract way), conceptual understanding will only be developed by applying the concept within a specific context.

The concepts should be introduced when relevant and regularly returned to throughout the course. As students revisit each of the specified concepts in different contexts, they will be able to demonstrate increased depth and complexity in their understanding.

Figure 12 provides a template for what a cycle of deepening conceptual understanding could look like.

Figure 12
Cycle of deepening conceptual understanding



There are many strategies that teachers can use to support this cycle of deepening conceptual understanding. These include:

- sharing the concept definitions and conceptual understandings from the guide with students, at appropriate and relevant moments
- referring regularly to the concepts when studying the content of the course
- making use of the strategies in the [“Historical concepts toolkit”](#) at regular intervals as relevant
- using the formative criteria to support teacher feedback and student reflection on their deepening conceptual understanding.

Historical concepts toolkit

This toolkit provides downloadable resources and activities that align with each concept.

Concept	Resources and activities
Cause and consequence	Connecting cause and consequence (PDF)
	Causal mapping (PDF)
Continuity and change	Iceberg systems thinking (PDF)
	Winners and losers (PDF)
Perspectives	Circle of perspectives (PDF)
	Connecting perspectives (PDF)
Significance	Factors that include and exclude (PDF)
	Judging significance (PDF)

Overview

Historical skills are present in all parts of the course and are an integral part of both the curriculum and assessment of DP history.

The *History guide* provides all the prescribed information about the historical skills, including their definitions, and their integration into the assessment objectives and markbands for each assessment component.

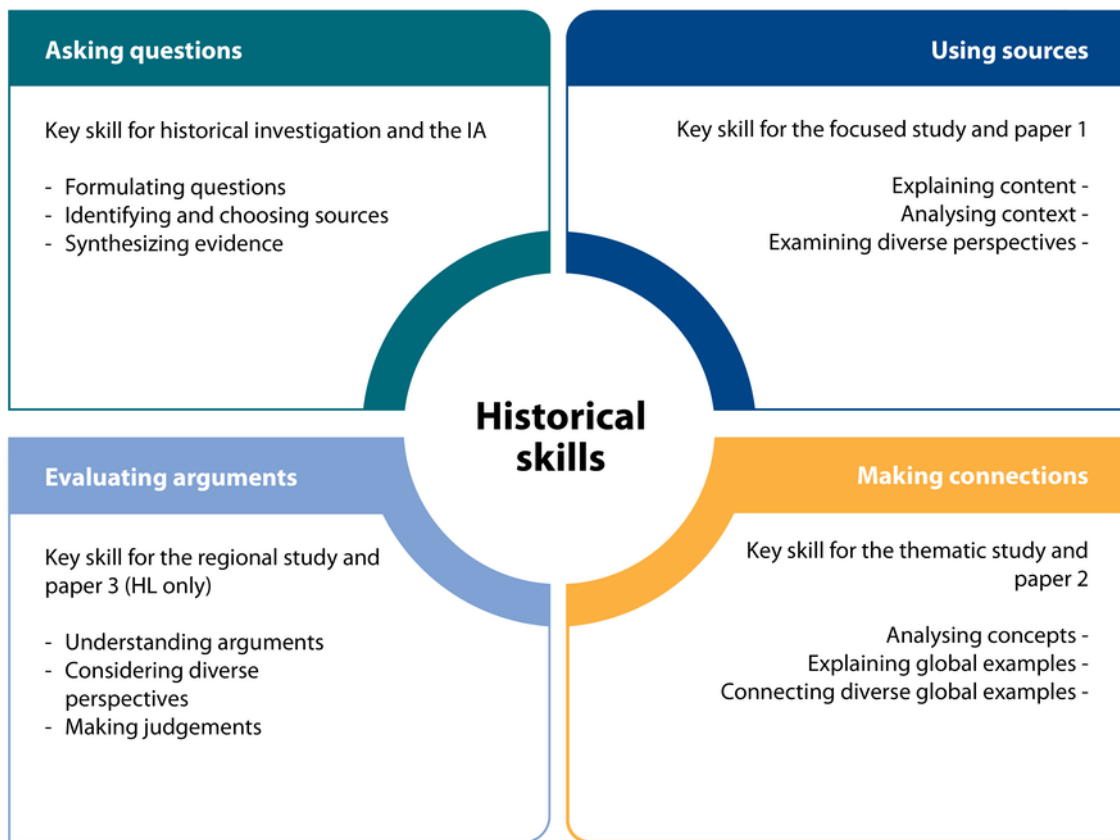
This section of the TSM provides a toolkit of resources that can be used to support the application of historical skills in the classroom through high-quality learning and teaching. This includes suggested guidance on how to plan for skills development, as well as practical activities and resources. The resources are designed to support teacher instruction, to be shared with students, and to inform formative assessment and feedback.

What can be found in the subject guide	What can be found in the TSM
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Definitions of each skill, integrated into the introduction to each inquiry context in the syllabus section Skills integrated into the assessment objectives Skills integrated into the markbands for all assessment components 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Suggested guidance on how to plan for skills development Toolkit of practical, downloadable activities and resources that can be used in the classroom, covering every skill

Planning for skills development

Historical skills support inquiry through practical processes. This course highlights a variety of historical skills, which are summarized in figure 13.

Figure 13
Historical skills



The skills have prominence in different parts of the course, but should not be compartmentalized during learning and teaching. All the historical skills are present, to different degrees, in all parts of the course.

There are many strategies that teachers can use to support the development of historical skills. These include:

- identifying the most appropriate and relevant moment to introduce a historical skill when planning the course
- intentionally looking for opportunities to return to previously taught skills throughout the course
- using activities and resources in the “Historical skills toolkit” at regular intervals as relevant
- using the formative criteria to support teacher feedback and student reflection on their skills development.

Historical skills toolkit

This toolkit provides downloadable resources and activities that align with each historical skill.

Skill	Resources and activities
Using sources	Explaining content from historical sources (PDF)
	Understanding the context of historical sources (PDF)
	Analysing the context of historical sources (PDF)
	Identifying perspectives with historical sources (PDF)
	Examining diverse perspectives in historical sources (PDF)
Making connections	Connecting examples and concepts (PDF)
	Explaining relevant examples (PDF)
	Connecting diverse global examples (PDF)
Evaluating arguments	Understanding arguments (PDF)
	Identifying diverse perspectives (PDF)
	Making judgements (PDF)
Asking questions	Components of a historical inquiry question (PDF)
	Reflecting on historical inquiry questions (PDF)
	Identifying diverse sources and perspectives (PDF)
	Selecting sources and perspectives (PDF)
	Synthesizing evidence (PDF)

Overview

It is crucial that both teachers and students have a good understanding of the assessment model for DP history.

The *History guide* provides all of the prescribed information about the assessment model, including the duration, weighting, markbands and command terms for each component.

This section of the TSM provides a toolkit of resources that can be used to support the application of assessment through high-quality learning and teaching. This includes guidance on the use of AI in the history IA and resources that unpack the key terms of each question and provide guidance on characteristics of high-level responses and possible misunderstandings. The resources are designed to support teacher instruction, to be shared with students, and to inform formative assessment and feedback.

What can be found in the subject guide	What can be found in the TSM
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessment objectives • Assessment outline, including the duration and weighting of each component • Assessment details, including markbands for all components • Glossary of command terms for all components • General requirements on the use of artificial intelligence (AI) in the internal assessment (IA) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific guidance on the use of AI in the history IA • Toolkit of practical guidance on every assessment component

Internal assessment and AI

The IB has produced a number of resources and guidance related to the use of AI in student coursework.

A key resource is the document *Evaluating 13 scenarios of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in student coursework*. Everything that is included in this document applies to the history IA, and teachers are highly recommended to read and follow the guidance found there.

A general principle is that **AI can support student learning but should not replace it or be used by students to submit work that is not their own**. While AI can enhance learning in history, as in all academic disciplines, it also poses risks for academic integrity.

Can a source generated using AI be one of the historical sources in the IA?

The IA task is focused on carrying out research using carefully selected, authentic historical sources. During the IA process, students should be encouraged to search for and engage with a wide variety of historical sources. Students need sources that provide diverse perspectives and a range of evidence to answer the inquiry question.

It is possible that students will consider using a source generated using AI as one of the historical sources for their IA. It is recommended for teachers to carefully consider the requirements of the IA task. When identifying and choosing their sources, students need to show an understanding of the **perspective of their sources** (in section 2) and integrate an **evaluation of sources** into their synthesis of evidence (in section 3). To do these things effectively, students will need to have a good understanding of the **context** of the source. As defined in the guide, the context of the source refers to the creation and preservation of a historical source, such as the author of the source and their purpose.

Some AI-generated sources **may** be appropriate for the historical investigation. For example, a student may want to choose a source created by a specific author using AI and posted on social media. The student could then explore and evaluate the perspective of the source using a range of primary sources and the work of academic historians.

Other sources generated using AI are likely to be very problematic for the historical investigation. Sources generated using AI by the student themselves would not be appropriate. “Fake” AI-generated sources that are presented as authentic primary or secondary sources would be in breach of the IB academic integrity policy. Sources generated using AI with an unclear context (e.g. no clear author or purpose) are very likely to be self-penalizing, since it will be very difficult for students to meet the requirements of the task.

In this way, sources generated using AI should be thought of in a similar way to other sources such as encyclopaedias, textbooks, websites or video content with very general content and a lack of clear origin. **It is highly recommended that students refrain from using any such sources in their IA work.**

How should AI be used in the process of historical investigation?

Table 6 includes a selection of the general recommendations from the resource *Evaluating 13 scenarios of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in student coursework*, along with suggested guidance for applying this to the DP history IA.

Table 6

General recommendations on AI use and suggested guidance for the history IA

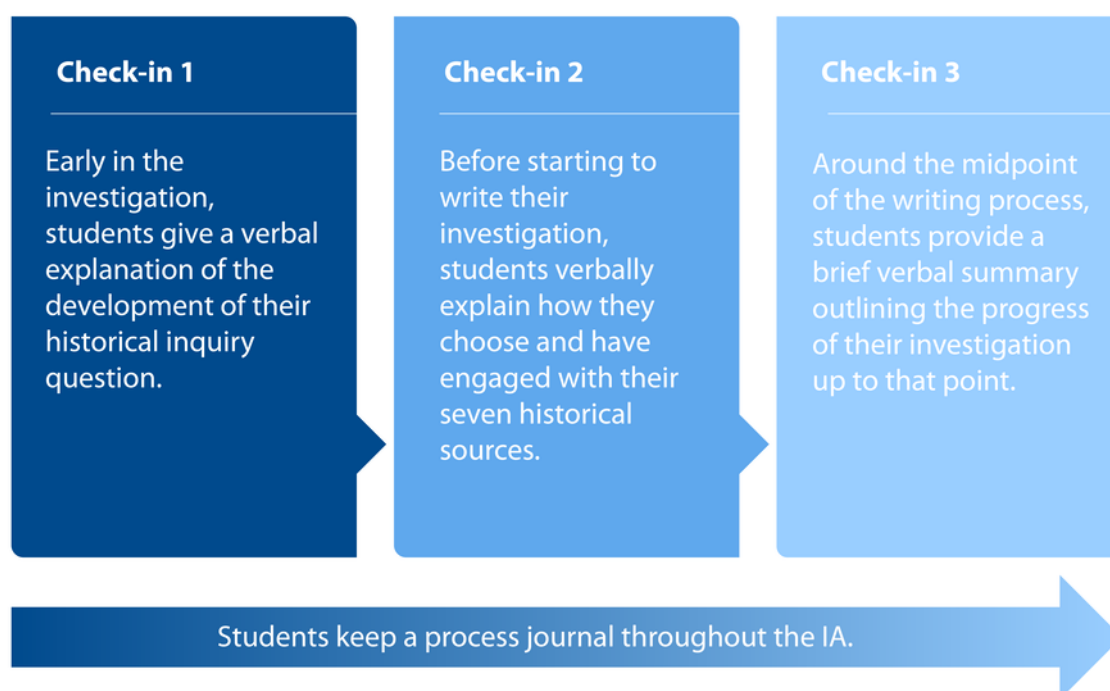
General recommendation from the 13 scenarios	Suggested guidance for applying to IA
Teachers can instruct students to retain developmental work.	<p>Students could be asked to keep a process journal where they can record the development of their IA. Some of the developmental work they might retain includes but is not limited to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the development of their historical inquiry question for section 1 (which should be reflected on, and should evolve in response to the sources and perspectives they identify) all of the sources that they identify and choose for section 2 planning and drafts for section 3.
Teachers should trust their instincts on the academic integrity of work.	<p>Teachers may build opportunities for students to share updates on the development of the IA at regular intervals. This could be in the form of “five-minute check-ins” where individual students are asked to give a quick overview of their progress.</p> <p>These kinds of informal, quick check-ins can be a useful way of monitoring progress. If the teacher has any instinctive concerns regarding academic integrity, they may follow up with the student or review other strategies in this TSM.</p>
AI cannot be used to develop a research question or to “reflect” on a research question.	<p>The creation and development of the student’s historical inquiry question is a crucial part of the process of the IA. It should emerge from the student’s own interests and evolve through a reflective, iterative process, including revision as the student learns more about the topic and engages with diverse sources and perspectives.</p> <p>To ensure that reflection is authentic, teachers may encourage students to have conversations where they explain how their thinking on the inquiry question has evolved.</p>
Students can use AI to identify counter-positions, but they are expected to conduct their own research to understand and develop these arguments without further reliance on AI.	<p>Students may use AI to identify possible perspectives or sources for their historical inquiry question. This is a valid and effective use of AI to support learning in the IA.</p> <p>However, students must carry out their own research into these sources, which means authentically engaging with the sources themselves. Students should be expected to engage with these sources, including evaluating them, without further reliance on AI.</p> <p>The IA requires students to select no more than seven sources to be included in the final work. Teachers may consider opportunities for students to present their seven sources and evidence that they have engaged with them. This could be by producing annotated or highlighted copies of articles or media sources, written notes on a book they have read, a transcript or recording of an interview, a diary or photos of a visit to a historical site, or a short verbal explanation of what they found in the source.</p>
It is not acceptable for a student to use AI to find quotes on the topic and copy them without investigating further.	<p>If a student has quoted from a source, it would be reasonable for the teacher to ask students to show them that source as well as the other sources that they have engaged with. Asking questions such as “What is the perspective of this source?” and “Could you tell me some other useful</p>

General recommendation from the 13 scenarios	Suggested guidance for applying to IA
	evidence you found in the source?" will help teachers quickly assess whether students are authentically engaging with the sources.
If students use an AI tool, they must clearly reference the AI tool in the body of their work and add it to the bibliography.	It is recommended that teachers advise students that the use of AI for the process of historical investigation (e.g. the process of identifying possible sources or the appropriate use of a spelling- and grammar-checking tool) in the IA will not be considered as one their seven historical sources.

Teachers may consider dedicating a significant portion of the 20 hours allotted for the IA to a series of verbal check-ins with individual students. These check-ins can take place during class time that is dedicated to students working on their IA. In each check-in, students should be able to present, discuss and provide some evidence of a different element of their historical investigation (see figure 14).

Figure 14

Possible process to ensure appropriate use of AI during IA



Assessment toolkit

This toolkit provides downloadable resources that align with each assessment component.

Component	Resources
Paper 1	First question (PDF)
	Second question (PDF)
	Third question (PDF)
Paper 2	Section A (PDF)
	Section B (short response) (PDF)
	Section B (essay response) (PDF)
Paper 3	Paper 3 questions (PDF)
IA	Section 1 (criterion A) (PDF)
	Section 2 (criterion B) (PDF)
	Section 3 (criterion C) (PDF)