The purposes of this paper are to follow the development of the International Baccalaureate (IB), examine its aims and its methods for achieving those aims, and discuss the possible future paths which IB may take. International Baccalaureate is a secondary school which offers a curriculum and examination system that is relevant to the needs of an international student body and that is recognized by the university systems in the home countries of participating students. Plans for the IB were first drafted in 1964 at the International School of Geneva. Goals of IB were to (1) work within the framework of various international schools to produce agreement on an IB curriculum, (2) develop an efficient and reliable examination structure, and (3) achieve acceptance by a number of national universities to grant IB diploma holders the equivalent status of a student studying within the national educational system. Curriculum includes language; study of man (social studies); experimental sciences; mathematics; specialized electives; theory of knowledge; and cultural, aesthetic, and social services activities. Development of IB was completed in 1975 and it is now operating in almost 80 schools around the world. Appendices include notes and syllabi for a history course and a course on film making at the Copenhagen International School.
The International Baccalaureate
Its Development, Operation, and Future

James Keson
Copenhagen International School
Høje Gladsaxe Torv 4
2860 Seborg, Denmark

March 1976
When the first supersonic passenger service was inaugurated in February of 1976, the human size of the world suddenly became 40% smaller. But even before the Concorde landed, the concept of one limited, inter-dependent world was no longer a philosophical dream but a reality demonstrated by billions of people who streamed out of jumbo jets, were hypnotized by satellite pictures of events 10,000 miles away, or were subject to political ideas developed in nations far from their own. Internationalism is no longer a remote goal of statesmen, but a practical solution to local problems for millions of people in government, business, and educational activities.

As I sit down to my Olivetti typewriter in Copenhagen, another teacher may be doing the same thing in East Lansing, Michigan. We may both have had the same Sunkist orange juice for breakfast, the same Danish ham for lunch, watched the same BBC report on the Rhodesian situation, listened to the same Berlin Philharmonic version of Debussy, or read the same Art Buchwald column in our local newspapers. National boundaries, never the impregnable barriers indicated on maps, have become more and more permeable after the Second World War, as politicians, businessmen, and technocrats recognized that it is impossible for one nation to live in isolation within the confines of our spaceship earth.

International education began with a very specific problem: how could the children of diplomatic personnel be educated outside of their home countries? The solution--
international schools which agreed to have one or two languages of instruction and to prepare students for as many national examinations as necessary—revealed that the daily contact between young people and teachers of varying nationalities and backgrounds could do much to break down prejudices and stimulate an interest in international understanding.

In 1969, when I joined the international school in Copenhagen, the Americanization of Europe was at its height. At our English-language high school, fully 60% of the students were the children of American government officials, businessmen, or visiting scholars. For them, a standard high school curriculum guaranteed that they would get all the courses needed to enter an American college. For the others, for whom American History in the 11th Grade was also required, well, the experience of studying the history of any particular country in depth was of some value.

In 1968, the school had been approached by a representative of the newly-formed International Baccalaureate Office, offering a curriculum and examination system, which, it was hoped, would be relevant to the needs of an international student body and would be recognized by the university systems in the home countries of each of the students.

We agreed to begin preparing students for some of the examinations, and over the past seven years we have watched the International Baccalaureate grow from a tentative option to become the unifying curriculum of our school. As our appreciation for the International
Baccalaureate was growing, across the world the numbers of students achieving the International Baccalaureate Diploma increased tenfold. The International Baccalaureate, or simply, IB, has gained official recognition from nearly every major government and university around the world. The IB philosophy, that the curriculum offer not only a course of studies which is relevant to the needs of each student, but that all its disciplines emphasize the inter-relatedness of nations and peoples, has attracted the interest of some 80 schools and brought it to the point of receiving the endorsement of the United Nations.

For the International Baccalaureate of 1976, the developing years are over. The personalities and programs which gave direction and purpose to the interminable meetings, the tedious process of persuasion and compromise necessary to achieve agreement on syllabusses and structures, the negotiations over the terms of acceptance by university systems, and the all-important search for funding during the initial years, have finished. The IB is established, it has achieved recognition, and it is regular.

The purpose of this paper is to follow the development of the International Baccalaureate, to examine its aims and its methods for achieving those aims, and finally, to discuss the possible paths which the IB may take from here. I'll be giving an insider's point of view, for I have been working with the day-to-day problems of teaching in an IB school for the past seven years, and as one who is
committed to any program which seeks to further international understanding and cooperation among young people, I cannot be totally objective about the concept of an International Baccalaureate. But I will attempt to present a clear picture of how the IB came to be what it is, and what it means to be a student or teacher in the International Baccalaureate.
Development of the IB

The beginnings of the International Baccalauréate go back to the grand old lady of international education, the International School of Geneva. The Ecole Internationale de Genève, or Ecolint as it is called, is one of the oldest international schools in the world, having been founded in 1924 to provide educational facilities for the children of the delegates to the League of Nations. With about 1600 students it is the largest school of its kind, and counts among its former students such illustrious personages as Indira Ghandi.¹

Up until about 1950, Ecolint was about equally divided along language lines—about half of the 500 students followed an English-language curriculum with French as a foreign language, and the other half pursued a French curriculum with English as the second language. There was a single headmaster, a single staff association, shared athletic programs, cafeteria, and so on. But the burgeoning expansion of American businesses and US involvement in international organizations brought hundreds of English-speaking children to the Geneva area. In the '50s and '60s the population of the International School of Geneva tripled in spite of the creation of two other English-language schools in the vicinity. About half of the students of Ecolint were now Americans, the French side of the school comprised less than 25% of the total. The physical growing pains forced Ecolint to divide more and more into two
institutions with separate headmasters, staffs, and student associations for each side. This unfortunate division along language lines was further compounded by the fact that students were being prepared for five different national examinations—the British "O" and "A" levels, the American College Boards, the German "Abitur", the Swiss "Maturité", and the French "Baccalaureat".

Gradually the tensions caused by a widening split between the swelling English section and the static French section began to affect every activity of the school. French students who studied English did so through textbooks oriented toward the French "Baccalaureat". American children who wanted to enjoy the benefits of the French culture at the International School were discouraged from enrolling in the French section and found themselves doing French from workbooks printed in London. A tightened budget found the majority on the English side more than willing to cut back on many programs carried out on the French side, and a subsequent series of confrontations brought the International School of Geneva to a position that threatened its ability to continue as a functioning school, much less one which attempted to further international understanding. 3

Clearly some way of circumventing the narrowly nationalistic examination systems of the two sections would be a step along the road toward re-integration. A number of teachers on the English side had been interested in developing an international examination that would be
acceptable to more than one ministry of education, and in 1961 the head of Ecolint's History Department, Robert Leach, visited international schools all over the Northern Hemisphere to investigate the need and interest in such a proposal. When he returned to Geneva, he and his colleagues drew up a syllabus and examination in Contemporary History which was taught to four students in 1962-63. One of the students was later admitted to Harvard which accepted his work in history as the equivalent of their first-year program. Copies of the Contemporary History syllabus were sent to ministries of education all over the world, and the responses that came back to Leach were generally very positive. 4

With the first indications that an international examination system would be acceptable by a number of governments, the English section of Ecolint began work on the outline for the curriculum for an International Baccalaureate. The first draft was completed in 1964, and proposed a two-year program (about the average length of stay for international students) leading to examinations in six to eight areas. In History and World Literature the syllabusses reflected the original thinking of the individual staff members of Ecolint, while in other areas the British "O" and "A" levels clearly stood model. The Egyptian-born head of the mathematics department at that time confided to me that the original Maths syllabus was essentially the same as the Southampton project, and only later developed a slightly different character.
The Philosophy exam was essentially French in origin, and Biology was close to that of the American BSGS program.

A fairly well-developed course of studies and the professed interest of a number of international schools as well as national examining boards enabled the budding International Schools' Examination Syndicate to obtain support from the International Schools Association. In 1963 the Twentieth Century Fund gave the ISA $75,000 to establish the machinery for the development of a common curriculum and examination program for international schools.\(^5\)

Aided by the money, the International Baccalaureate saw its main tasks as

1) working within the framework of the various international schools to produce agreement on an IB curriculum,
2) developing an efficient and reliable examination structure, and
3) achieving acceptance by a number of national university systems or examining bodies to grant an IB Diploma holder status equivalent to that of a student who had studied within the national system.

This developmental period of the IB was to last ten years, from 1965 to 1975, during which time the numbers of students and schools was to be limited to "reasonable numbers." The goals which the IB set itself, however simple they may have seemed at the time, were fraught with difficulties that became obvious during the innumerable
conferences and meetings which followed in the next few years.

The basic structure for the course of studies leading to an IB diploma required examinations in roughly six different areas. This was intended to fit neatly between the French "Baccalaureat" requirements for 12 or 13 examinations and the British custom of very intensive preparation for only three or four "A" levels. It so happened that at this time in France there was a growing amount of criticism about the necessarily superficial approach taken to so many examinations while across the Channel the complaints of British teachers could be heard that the narrow specialization in the secondary schools worked against a broad, liberal education.

But although the number of examinations seemed generally acceptable to most teachers concerned, the specific subjects to be examined turned out to be a very sticky wicket indeed. Although a quick look at European curricula and exams indicated that there was about a 70% overlap, it was the remaining 30% which provided enough fuel to make the regular subject matter panels warm and wearisome affairs. And although copies of national curricula were readily available and several organizations, among them the International Education Association and the College of Education at Oxford, had done thorough studies of European secondary education, the panel participants preferred to ignore such ready-
made data and proposals in favor of hammering out guidelines according to what they felt was best at their particular school.

Oddly enough, it was easiest to come to agreement on the History and Social Studies curricula. Nearly everyone seemed to acknowledge his own national and ethnocentric viewpoints. (The fact that nearly all represented Western European points of view should not subtract from their accomplishments in achieving consensus.) The real sticking points were the subjects like mathematics and the hard sciences in which few could see or admit that differences from one nation to the next were due to arbitrary cultural influences. In France, mathematics contains a significant amount of topology (many of the outstanding topologists were French), in Denmark and Britain topology is neglected in favor of more work with calculus, a field very useful in technological applications. In physics, the French emphasize statics, while the Germans have abandoned it long before the "Abitur."

It was in the field of foreign languages that the representatives found it most difficult to overcome national differences. The traditional ways in which languages had been taught and tested varied greatly, and few wished to barter away the particular strengths which their own methods ensured. The British demanded that the examination contain a passage in the language being examined to be translated into the language of instruction; the Germans wanted no translations; and the French were willing
to accept either, but required an essay to be written in the examined language, a task which the British felt was too difficult.

Ultimately the British backed away from their position, since for many of the IB candidates, a translation from the examined language would mean a translation from a third language to a language which was not native to them. As of 1976 the examinations for languages are a remarkable blend of all viewpoints, a synthesis which offers the most thorough examination of a student's ability of any large-scale examination I have yet seen. One hour of objective questions covers grammar, vocabulary, and comprehension. This is followed by about 40 minutes of "listening and comprehension", in which the students listen to a taped dialogue and answer short questions on paper. Then two hours are devoted to essay questions on general topics of everyday life in the country of the language being tested and on specific literary works which the school has studied. Finally a recorded oral examination of about 20 minutes is conducted in which the student speaks into a cassette recorder on a question about one of the authors he has studied, and later carries on a conversation with his teacher about some simple everyday subject.

All during the time that committees of interested teachers, administrators, and advisors were going about the wearisome task of reaching agreement on the topics to be included in each disciplinary area, the International
Baccalureate as a matriculation exam was a reality for a growing number of students. When the Copenhagen International School first agreed to have a few of its students sit for some of the exams in 1969, about 300 students from 10 other international schools were doing the same——thereby providing a mass of data for the individual subject area committees, as well as for the Oxford Research Unit, headed by W.D. Halls, which was charged with the job of developing a set of equivalencies with the various national examinations.

Using the statistics provided by Halls and the records of students who had taken IB examinations and were now studying at universities in many countries, the IB office began a long series of negotiations with the educational authorities of the major countries represented by IB candidates. Every country approached agreed with the aims of the IB—in principle. It was the exact conditions that were subject to discussion.

Even the exact number of the examinations to be taken by each candidate pointed out the different educational philosophies held by the ministries of each country. A representative for the University of London expressed doubts that British universities could accept any examinations which were below the standards of the rather specialized "A" levels. A spokesman for the French Ministry of Education doubted that the Ministry could accept any exam system in which the students themselves
were allowed to select the subjects they were to be examined in. 8 Advocates of both sides understood the objectives of the other, however, and managed to cooperate in developing a compromise which stood a decent chance of being acceptable to most university systems. Finally agreement was reached that the IB would demand passes in seven subjects—a language of instruction, a second language, a social study, math/science, and three others selected from a long list of possibilities. There subjects were to be studied at the higher level, and four were to be taken at a lower or subsidiary level.

A year later it became apparent to all of the subject matter panels that it would be impossible to teach seven subjects to a sufficient depth in the two years that IB preparation should take, and so six subjects were suggested—three at the higher level and three at subsidiary level. The students course of studies consisted of one examination in the language of instruction, one in a second language, one in the social studies, i.e. History, Economics, Geography, Social Anthropology, Philosophy, or Psychology. A science subject could be either Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Physical Science, or Scientific Studies. Mathematics was the fifth subject, and a sixth subject could be any of the above, or Art or Music, or a course developed and examined by the individual school.

By 1970 most of the large problems of syllabus and curriculum development had been ironed out. In addition,
the educational authorities of most major countries had granted provisional recognition of the IB Diploma as having equal status with their national examinations. Australia, the Netherlands, New Zealand, and the Scandinavian countries accepted Diploma holders without qualification, and Switzerland and France accepted them with the qualification that the IB was only for foreigners and citizens living abroad, i.e. the nationals of those two countries would not be allowed to get around national exams by taking the IB at an international school in the country. In Germany the IB was in the hands of the individual states, but the federal government had made a recommendation that the IB be acknowledged as equivalent to the "Abitur". Since university acceptance was in the hands of the individual colleges and departments within the universities of the United Kingdom, no blanket acknowledgement was possible, but most of the British schools had accepted IB Diploma holders on a par with students who had taken the "O" and "A" levels. The same situation existed in the United States, but with the imprimatur of P. Hanson, Director of Advanced Placement, College Entrance Examination Board, American students who had taken individual IB examinations found that they were awarded advanced placement in virtually every university and college in the US.

The experimental period of the IB was over, the developmental had begun.
From 1970 to 1976

By 1971, 601 students from 12 international schools were sitting for IB examinations. Although only 76 of them expected to gain the complete IB Diploma with examinations in six disciplines, the rest were interested enough to follow the difficult syllabuses in the hope that a few good examination scores would help them in whichever school they would be attending. The numbers of students taking the IB showed a remarkably wide geographic distribution. Copenhagen had 25, International College, Beirut 23, Frankfurt 21, Ecolint, Geneva 36, Montevideo 45, the UN school in New York 60, Saint Germain, France 75, Sèvres, France 36, Tehran 55, United World College of the Atlantic, Wales 185, Ibadan, Nigeria 39, and Choueifat, Lebanon 1. 9

Four years later the number of candidates was 1217, with 377 going for the full Diploma. The number of schools participating in the IB had stretched to 30 with another 25 schools from Argentina to Zambia actively developing an IB program within their school. IB diploma holders had been accepted at 330 universities in 33 countries. Three international schools were in the process of organization with the IB program as their core. Two countries were investigating the possibility of using the IB as a national examination scheme. 10 Clearly the International Baccalaureate was on its way to becoming an internationally recognized system for educating

17
a great number of secondary school students in an international way.

Perhaps this is a good point to examine exactly what the International Baccalaureate has become and what it is trying to do for its students. Although it has changed somewhat from its original concepts, basically it is still a two-year program for 17- to 19-year-olds leading to a diploma which will be recognized by most colleges and universities. But the IB makes one important distinction between itself and national courses of study--the IB is committed to the philosophy that an international education with an international syllabus, teaching staff, and student body will be able to give each person an understanding and appreciation of an international over an ethnocentric viewpoint. A.D.C. Peterson, the Director General of the IB Office and one of the major forces in its development pointed to Hegel's comment that the years between 16 and 18 are the years in which a youngster could benefit most from exposure to cultures and viewpoints other than his own. "Before that period, Hegel felt, the concepts through which cultural life is interpreted were inadequately developed, while after it they might well be already so firmly established in the ethnocentric mold as to provoke too strong a resistance to foreign influences."

The importance which the IB places on broadening the cultural base of the student can be seen in the make-up of the six disciplinary areas the student is expected to
follow.

Language A

The first, which is non-committally called Language A, is usually, but not always, the language of instruction of the school. Because it is intended to be the language the student is most fluent in, it requires a good deal of fluency of expression by the student in addition to a rather thorough knowledge of the chosen works of literature.

To prepare for the Higher Level examination (corresponding roughly to an examination above an "O" level but below an "A" level, a student must study the characteristic works of at least seven authors. He must specialize in two specific works by a single author, and write an extended essay of about 25 pages on a literary topic of his choice. In addition he must obtain a satisfactory knowledge of the literature of three world area or ages, such as Japan, the Middle East, or Renaissance Europe. This Higher Level syllabus is normally a two year-course, with students often opting to take the Subsidiary level examination (usually an abridged version of the Higher Level syllabus) at the end of the first year to get an indication of their progress.¹²

The IB in the classroom in Copenhagen

There are five students preparing for the Higher Level English examination. One is a boy whose parents would like him to go to Oxford, but who doesn't show a burning desire to do so. The second is a Scottish girl who does, and will if
her scores on the IB examinations are halfway decent. A tall Swedish boy apologizes for being late. As student council president he gets blamed every time the students' vending machine jams, and this morning he had to help a student get his 1 krona piece back. A German girl in the process of becoming a naturalized American is temporarily at the school as is a blonde girl whose home is a farm in Kenya, but who has come to Copenhagen to complete the second year of her IB.

The teacher is a small dignified American woman who speaks calmly and with authority. "The reason we've chosen to read Hamlet for the IB is that everybody expects us to do so. Never mind the fact that Shakespeare didn't know anything about Denmark, placing a legendary king of Jutland on the island of Zealand, forget that Hamlet's Castle in Elsinor was built after the death of Shakespeare--I want you to leave this course realizing that Hamlet is one of the great works of the English language, and," she adds conspiratorially, "knowing that Shakespeare really understood the adolescent mind."

A tape of the first scene is played, and the students watch the fleecy white clouds scudding over the green hills outside the windows, trying to imagine a murky night on the battlements. Notebooks are dutifully taken out to record the significance of several passages, and then the bell to end the
period rings, the Italian boy asks the class to help
him look for a particular Italian novel in English.
"It's for my extended essay--the Italian Novel of the
1950's--but it's out of print in Italian," he explains.

In our experience, the degree of specialization and
intensity of the syllabus for Language A corresponds
roughly to what a Freshman would get in a rigorous program
at a good American university, minus, of course, all the
practice in writing papers. British educators, on the
other hand, see the Language A, Higher Level as distinctly
inferior to the experience an English "A" level candidate
would get in preparing for any one of the local "A" levels.
This may well be true, and represents one major weakness of
the IB with respect to getting nationals accepted by
universities in their own country. But at the Copenhagen
International School, for about 80% of the students taking
the Higher Level Language A examination, the language is
not their mother tongue, but a second language which is
necessary to be accepted at a U.K. or U.S. university.

The fact that for many of the IB candidates the language
in which they are doing their most advanced work might not
be their own, was no doubt the major factor in the development
of the Language A syllabus. Anyone who has had a chance to
look at most of the international schools around the world
would recognize that the languages of instruction reflect
the relative position of the world languages in business,
technology, and diplomacy. The majority of international schools use English as the primary language, with French, Spanish, and German running far behind. This means that it is likely that an American student at the International School of Teheran will be able to prepare for his Higher Level English examination with no difficulties, but a Persian student at Atlantic College in Wales will only be able to study Persian if there are enough Iranian students to warrant hiring a Persian instructor. A generous estimate of the number of students who are studying at international schools which have their mother tongue as the language of instruction is around 50%.

For the others, the decision must be made between preparing for the Higher Level examination in their own language without a teacher (a discouraging prospect) or attempting the higher level in the language of instruction and taking their own language at the Subsidiary Level. The choice is not an easy one. Right now we have a student in Copenhagen whose first language is Slovenian. She had learned Serbo-Croatian as a second language, but is forced by the limitations of our curriculum to choose English as her first language and French as her second.

Language B

The complaints that the English language syllabus are not up to British standards are matched by those that contend that the foreign language requirements (Language B) are impossible for any British student. And although they may a pear stiff to any comprehensive school student patiently

22
parsing French sentences, the fact is that British as well as American students, normally the least lingual of all nationalities, do quite well when exposed to a teacher who is a native speaker of the language and a school full of lively teenagers who rattle on about the most interesting things in the foreign language.

The French B Subsidiary class has been discussing the statement of Candide that we live in the best of all possible worlds. An Italian boy, whose father represents the Bank of Sicily, speaks in hesitant French about the poverty and superstition of the peasants in the France of Voltaire. Outside a couple of boys are kicking a basketball up and down the corridor, until it bumps against the door for the third time and the French teacher must go out and tell them to stop. "The best of all possible worlds?" she asks as she returns, and the class laughs knowingly. A Hungarian girl asks if they might not get a little off the subject and talk about the earthquake in Guatemala.

It's the classic ploy to keep them from having to recite, but Mlle. Alexis obviously feels that the Guatemalan situation is more important than the syllabus. "It's horrible," she replies in a tangy Bretón accent. "Can you imagine what it's like to have just a hut of bricks, and now even that is taken away from you. The people I saw in Guatemala
are not even living on the same planet as we are. We just think about what we’re going to eat next and which cinema we should go to, and they don’t even know where they can find their next meal.”

Eyes flashing, she talks about the United Fruit company and the wealth of a few families. This is too much for the Italian boy, who breaks into English to say that he doesn’t think that multinationals can do anything about the level of poverty of a whole country. A British girl retorts that the millions of dollars in bribes could have done something, and the class continues arguing in English until the end of the hour. A bit guiltily, Mlle. Alexis tells the group to read the next two chapters for the next day.

The IB recognizes the special conditions present in an international school. Teaching a language in an international school bears little relation to foreign language instruction for a homogeneous group. Often the pupils in the same class may have five or six different mother tongues, and translation, the backbone of the traditional language lesson, is counterproductive to the development of fluency. From the first day, pupils hear and speak the target language; translation is only used as a last resort. This total immersion is unavoidable in an international school and it is normal for students to progress twice as quickly as their counterparts might back home.
In the Language B, the student is primarily expected to gain proficiency in reading, writing, and speaking the language. Literature is of course studied, but there is no attempt made to cover the complete literary history of the culture. Only a few representative works from the major periods or movements are chosen. The examination does place a good deal of emphasis on some topics grouped under the charming phrase "life and civilization." These are quite often an examination of the role of the press in the country or an evaluation of the educational system. The examination itself places a minimum of importance on the ability of the student to translate from the examined language into his own, concentrating instead on his ability to understand the written and spoken language and to express himself fluently in that language.\(^\text{13}\)

Study of Man

At the heart of the IB program can be found the social studies curriculum, or the Study of Man as it is called to distinguish it from more traditional concepts of what high school social studies should be. Although the other subjects in the IB may touch on some aspects of internationalism, only the Study of Man has as its major purpose the study of different cultures and environments. Students may specialize in History, Geography, Economics, Philosophy, Social Anthropology, or Psychology, but it is recommended that each school make its individual programs as broad as possible,
utilizing team teaching by a number of teachers who try to pinpoint what is essential to an international viewpoint, rejecting outmoded and ethnocentric concepts. (A syllabus and examination for Higher Level History are included in appendix A.)

As in the history syllabus, a great deal of freedom of choice of topics is given in the other Study of Man subjects. In many cases, the teacher may choose almost any area of specialization which is of interest to his class, and the examiner will make up his questions accordingly.

It is interesting to note, however, that even though the aim of the Study of Man is to get as universal an outlook as possible, some ethnocentricity was unavoidable. In Economics, for instance, Marxist economical systems are given little exposure in the whole syllabus, and although an economics teacher is free to devote more time to non-Western economic systems, it has been our experience that IB examiners are less than willing to accept that particular viewpoint. The IB Psychology syllabus ignores Freud and treats behavioral psychology minimally (the only reference to it is found under "animal behavior; possible applications to human behavior."). This seems to imply a traditional European approach to the subject.

The Economics class is a large one by Copenhagen International School standards—nearly 15. Only half of them are going to take the IB examination, the rest
are there because a scheduling conflict makes it difficult for them to take anything else.

A box labelled "Denmark" is drawn on the blackboard. A big arrow is drawn into the box, a little one coming out. Pencils are poised over fat notebooks. "And why, in spite of this miserable balance of payments, is Denmark's GNP per capita among the highest in the world?" asks the amiable-looking man sitting at the front desk. "I'll tell you why," he continues with a hint of sarcasm. "It's because the Danish government provides those statistics. And in those statistics it makes no difference to the GNP if it's a Danish bureaucrat pushing papers around to the tune of £10,000 a year or five British workmen actually producing something but only pulling down £2,000 per annum. Don't trust statistics unless you know what's behind them," he thunders, and 15 notebooks write down the quote in capital letters.

A Chinese boy asks, "But the Danes do produce some things, don't they? I mean like bacon and butter and fish."

"Sure, sure," the teacher agrees. "But don't forget that the production of pigs is limited by the amount of land and food available. It's not like making transistor radios, here the production can easily keep pace with the increase in population."

"But fishing?" the boys continue.
"Fishing! Why, what was it somebody once said? If most countries raised chickens the way they went about fishing they would eat up all the feed, the eggs, and the chickens, and burn the henhouses to keep themselves warm. Where is the Danish fishing industry, or any fishing industry going to be unless we get some international controls on the sea?"

He glares at the members of the class and they all look impressed by the seriousness of the question.

The Experimental Sciences

Including Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Physical Science, and Scientific Studies (a general introduction to science for those IB candidates who will not be continuing on in any science), the Experimental Sciences place a great value on practical laboratory work. As a matter of fact, when the science syllabusses were being drawn up, there was little agreement on anything but the fact that students needed to understand the scientific method. Although the areas to be studied in each field are rather specific ("Amines: Primary, secondary and tertiary amines (both aliphatic and aromatic)"), it is emphasized over and over that the subject matter is a continual state of flux, and that both the facts learned and the underlying theories are not inviolate truths, but concepts which may have to be changed when new experimental evidence is presented.

Biology is the most popular science, with 41% of all
IB students choosing it. Chemistry and Physics are taken by 26% and 29% respectively, while Scientific Studies, originally designed as an escape clause for non-scientifically-minded students, is chosen by more than 2% yearly.

The IB Physics class is slow getting underway because the lab equipment, which belongs to a Danish gymnasium, was being used by a Danish teacher. When the oscilloscope is finally located and lugged into the classroom, a couple of connecting cords are discovered missing. The teacher, who is new to the school, asks one of the students, a Dutch girl, to ask one of the Danish students where the cords are. She returns presently with four cords and the apparatus is finally set up. Adjustments are made but the meters refuse to indicate what theory says they should. "A perfect example of Murphey's Law," one of the students says. Just before the end of the hour the equipment is operational, and everyone hastens to collect the data.

Mathematics

On one hand, mathematics can be described as the queen of the sciences—a universal common denominator for everyone going on to higher education. On the other hand, millions of students look back to their mathematics classes with a mixture of awe and disbelief at the uselessness of what was taught. Strangely enough, it was the math teachers
who advocated making mathematics an optional subject in
the IB scheme, no doubt thinking of the problems of prepping
uninterested students for standardized questions on a pre-set
examination. But a majority of teachers represented felt
that mathematics was as useful as a 'pons asinorum' as it was
a tool for further studies, and negotiated a compromise in
which a student would have to pass one of four examinations
before he could be awarded his Diploma. Further Mathematics,
the most advanced course, is chosen by 2% of IB candidates,
all of whom plan to major in mathematics in college.
Mathematics, Higher Level, corresponds to "A" level Maths.
Mathematics, Subsidiary Level A, was the course that most
teachers had in mind when they stipulated that every IB
student should meet the minimum standards for mathematical
literacy. Mathematics, Subsidiary Level B, is the most basic
of all, constructed for that small percentage of students
for whom mathematics is and always will be a great mystery.
Last year that percentage was slightly more than 1/3 of
all the IB students, and of those, only 32.3% achieved a
passing grade. Clearly, there does exist a need to
develop a math program for the non-mathematically-inclined,
one that will be capable of conveying the basic concepts
successfully.

The Subsidiary Level Math class is studying
statistical probability, according to the bearded
teacher "the most difficult of any mathematics
because there are only two rules—the addition
rule and the multiplication rule; and the chances are that you'll pick the wrong one 50% of the time."

He pauses and looks at a Yugoslavian girl. "Nataša says she can tell the difference between Pepsi and Coca Cola. How you you test this? You blindfold her and you let her try. She gets it right. So what? She could have been lucky. What if she gets it right ten times in a row? She could have been lucky ten times in a row. Now what is the mathematical probability that she is right in ten trials through sheer luck?" He peers around the class and a few students purse their lips and stare at the ceiling. Finally someone says, "The multiplication rule. It's 50% to the tenth."

"Right," says the teacher, "One over one-half to the tenth or a little less than one chance in a thousand. Now say she gets five right and five wrong. Can she tell the difference or not?" One fourth of the class thinks so, one fourth do not, and the rest are undecided.

Going to the board the teacher writes down the calculations for getting at least a certain number right out of ten trials, turning to the students to do the calculations for him. When a table ranging from zero right to ten right is finally on the board, it turns out that there is a 50% chance that she gets at least five right through sheer luck, and that if
she gets seven right there is only a 15% chance that it was due to luck.

Natasa agrees to be blindfolded and is given sips from the colas put into two plastic cups. She identifies them correctly in nine out of ten trials, to the rather loud delight of the class.

Sixth Subjects

In addition to the five subjects stipulated by the IB scheme, each Diploma candidate is required to select a sixth which may be dictated by the admissions requirements of the university he wishes to enter, or by his own interests. Most students who plan to enter departments of science, engineering, or medicine find that more than one science course is required. For similar reasons, others can select Latin or Greek, Practical Art or Art History, or Music. But in addition to these subjects in which the IB has a ready-made syllabus, each school is empowered to develop a course of studies on nearly any topic, which, after proper investigation, can be accredited by the IB Office. Courses which have been recognized so far include Drama, Environmental Studies, Islamic Studies, Marine Science, Photographic Science, Physics of the Universe, Political Thought, and The United Nations--Aggression and Disarmament.

At the Copenhagen International School I introduced a course in film-making in 1971 and submitted the proposed syllabus to the IB office. (Appendix B) A few months later
a Swedish television producer came down to take a look at how we were carrying out our objectives, and spent a day talking to the students and watching the films that had been produced. He recommended that film-making be recognized as a Sixth subject, and the following year several students enrolled in the course for IB credit. Unfortunately for Film-making, over the years our students have become more and more career-minded and tend to reject Film-making in favor of another, more academic Sixth Subject which they feel will make more of an impression on an admissions officer. This seems to be a general tendency at most IB schools: even at Atlantic College where only 22 students, out of 292 chose the excellent Marine Studies Program as their Sixth Subject.

The Film-making class is working without their teacher who is on the way to the Kodak lab to track down some lost films. They are supposed to film one scene for a 16mm film called "Perception and Reality" in which different camera techniques and psychological tricks illustrate the difficulty of defining reality. The four girls and three boys were each given a script the previous week, but only two persons remembered to bring theirs along. The camera and tripod are taken out of the storeroom, and the group leaves the school area to walk to a flagstone sidewalk at the base of a high retaining wall. The sidewalks slopes slightly, and the purpose of the scene is to make it appear that
it is nearly vertical, and that a person who appears to be climbing up the vertical cliff is actually lying on his stomach on the sidewalk.

After the camera is fastened to the tripod and carried to the top of the retaining wall, and a boy with a Tyrolian hat is lying on his stomach with his fingers and toes dug into the cracks of the flagstones, it is discovered that there are only ten seconds of film left in the camera. One of the girls is sent back to the school for more film, and the rest relax in the sun, enjoying the curiosity of the little kids who have suddenly appeared. When the film arrives and is thrown up to the film crew, the actor goes through the motions of searching for a handhold, grunting realistically. It is decided to shoot him from a different angle because the light from the sun is coming from below the actor. The actor points himself in the opposite direction, complaining that it won't look very realistic if he suddenly slips "up the cliff", and the scene is shot.

After the camera crew get back to ground level, they check the remaining footage and discover that three meters of film have been shot, about 20 seconds worth. Making jokes about how much time they could have spent filming those 20 seconds if they were getting paid, they troop back to the school.
Theory of Knowledge

The Theory of Knowledge, or TOK as it is familiarly called, was the result of a compromise with the French schools who regarded a knowledge of philosophy as basic to a secondary education, and the other schools who ignored it. In its present form, TOK comprises some 50 to 100 hours of instruction and discussion over a two year period. It is designed to be something more than a glossary of philosophical "isms", ideally an interaction of teacher and student in which specific philosophical problems are posed and the methods of dealing with them are discussed. Obviously, the exact content and teaching methods must vary a great deal from school to school, but in most of the schools where I've had a chance to look at the TOK program, the teachers aim to give a broad philosophical foundation for the students to understand the implications of the subjects they are studying under the IB. At Copenhagen we try to present as many different points of view as possible. This year, in addition to discussions led by most of the teachers, we have had a developmental geometer talk with the students about mathematics, a (left-wing) French student talk about existentialism, and a Danish Red-Stocking (Woman's Lib'er) challenge the students on their sexist views.

Because the teacher is interested in languages, the Theory of Knowledge course is spending more time
than usual on the problem of language and thinking. The Sapir-Whorff theory that language determines what a person thinks has been rejected by everyone in the class, and now the teacher is playing the Devil's Advocate, trying to get the students to think of concepts in their own languages which cannot be expressed in English. Since there are 12 different mother tongues in the classroom there should be a good response, but the students are having a hard time thinking of examples.

"Wong," says the teacher to an alert-looking boy in the back of the classroom. "What is the Chinese word for "crisis"?" Wong looks puzzled until a Chinese sentence with the English word "crisis" in it prompts him from the other side of the room. Laughter. He says the word. "Would you come up to the board and write it out for us?" Wong does so. "Now, what do these two parts of the character mean?" Wong writes them again and without hesitation says, "the first means "Danger" and the other one stands for "Opportunity."

"Aha!," says the teacher with feigned surprise. Do you mean that the Chinese people look upon a crisis as something that is dangerous but is also a great opportunity? What does crisis mean to us English speakers?"

"Something bad," "When things are in a mess," come
the replies.

"If Nixon and Mao both think that they are in a crisis situation, which one would be more likely to take advantage of it?"

"I think you've chosen the wrong example," replies an Italian boy, and the class breaks up in laughter. When they settle down, some new phrases, "Gemütlichkeit," "affair d'honneur", "American Way of Life" are offered, but the class still seems doubtful that their language makes them think in certain patterns.

Cultural, Esthetic, and Social Service Activities

In keeping with the original IB philosophy of educating the whole man, the IB insists that each student participate in some form of cultural, aesthetic, and social service activity. Recognizing that the pressures of preparing for the IB examinations would discourage a student from writing poetry, organizing a dance, or tutoring underprivileged children, the IB Executive Committee recommended that students be encouraged to set aside one afternoon a week to carry out an activity in one of these areas. A log would be kept of each candidate's contributions, and the IB Diploma would include a summary of what he had done.

In practice it has proven difficult to force a student to participate in any given cultural, aesthetic, or social service activity, and since there were no points of reward
or punishment given, students tended to do little more than they would have otherwise. But international schools are like any school in this respect—those who seem to have the most ambitious schedule and the least free time manage to participate in the most extra-curricular activities, and we have been telling ourselves that the spirit of CAS-S.A. is being upheld.

Assessment

A student who is enrolled as a Diploma Candidate is encouraged to sit for six examinations at the end of his second year, taking three at the higher level and three at the subsidiary level. Very few do so—most prefer to take two of their examinations at the end of the first year to get them out of the way, rather than have their entire IB career summed up in two frantic weeks of examinations. Indeed, many would like to sit for four or five exams in the first year, to get an idea of the actual degree of difficulty of each and to build up a reserve of extra points in case they don't do so well on one examination or other. But unfortunately, the IB Office only recognizes two subject examined the first year, and a total of seven during the second—that is, a student may repeat some exams during the second year and also take one examination beyond the six required if the particular college to which he has applied requires it.
The grading scale ascends from 1 to 7, with 4 being a pass. In order to pass the complete IB a student needs a total of at least 24 points. "1" is defined as "very poor", "2" is "poor", "3" is "mediocre" (personally I think a "mediocre" would be a very useful addition to the American grading scale—it would describe that all-too-common work that isn't quite satisfactory but not so bad as to warrant a "D"). "4" is "satisfactory", "5" "good", "6" "very good", and "7" is "excellent". Last year 21% of the exams were given a grade of "3" or lower, while 8% were awarded a "7".

Each IB student receives a certificate for each subject which has recorded his grade. Depending on the subject, the final grade is composed of the results of the various multiple-choice, essay, and oral examinations, the school's assessment of the student's practical work in the laboratory, and the extended essays which a student might have submitted in some subjects. Grades in subjects whose syllabus was developed at an individual school as a Sixth Subject are determined by the classroom teacher. In all other courses the classroom teacher is asked to write a comment about the student's ability, application, and aptitude, and to give an estimated grade. These comments and grades will be taken into consideration by the examiners, and if there is great variance between the examiner's assessment and that of the teacher, the results are given to a panel of moderators who determine the ultimate grade. In my experience at the Copenhagen International School, the vast majority of the
students are given grades quite similar to those which their teachers would have given. In a few cases, IB examiners have given marks which are much more generous than the teacher's assessment. In only four cases out of the 300 examinations given at the school have the student's results been inexplicably lower than expected.

Out of the 3257 examinations in 73 IB subjects given at IB schools last year, 79% were awarded a passing grade ("4" or higher). Of the 377 students who were sitting for the full Diploma, 282 or 75% achieved it. The average grade for all examinations was 4.9. Language B had an average of 5.5 and Mathematics was lowest of all the disciplines with an average of 4.1.21

The Future of the International Baccalaurate

The immediate future of the International Baccalaurate program seems promising. Just the number of students who are enrolled in their first year of the program indicates that the number of examinations to be given in the next couple of years will increase considerably. Among international schools around the world, the IB has established a reputation for being a challenging and relatively uncomplicated examination system whose graduates are being accepted by universities anywhere in the world. The IB is also a subject of interest among teaching colleges in the United Kingdom (nine colleges to date) and junior
colleges in the United States (five, all in the New York--New Jersey region). In addition the government of Mexico has been studying the IB examination system for possible local use within the framework of educational reform. The government of Malta is considering the IB as a replacement for obsolete secondary school courses.22

The United World College system is now firmly based on the two-year International Baccalaureate system. The United World College of the Atlantic was opened in 1962 as an international boarding school in the best tradition of the outward-bound programs, and enjoys a campus situated in and around an old castle perched on the craggy cliffs overlooking the Bristol Channel. Enrollment is a little over 300, from 40 countries, most of whom are sponsored in some part by their own governments. The staff of Atlantic College are among the most productive in the IB schools, preparing nearly 1/4 of the IB candidates and also doing much to develop new IB course and teaching techniques. The guiding idea of the United World Colleges was to have a number of similar institutions on different continents, and that goal is well on its way toward being reached with the establishment of the Lester Pearson College in Vancouver, the inauguration of the United World College of South-East Asia in Singapore, and the progress made toward the building of a World College in Trieste, which, with support from the Italian government, will devote much of its program toward adult education.
But while the original concept of the International Bacalaureate seems destined for widespread acceptance among the international schools for which it was intended, there are a number of forces which may begin to broaden or change the focus of the IB. One of them, ironically, is the very success of the International Baccalaureate itself. As long as there were only a few students and teachers experimenting with different syllabusses and teaching methods, university systems could easily afford to commit themselves to accepting everyone whom the IB turned out. But with more and more students achieving the IB Diploma, the blanket admission is becoming more a thing of the past. This year, for instance, a girl in our school, who had applied to a college of Oxford, was told that her IB Diploma would have to include three successful Study of Man examinations, a prospect which dazed her and threw our class schedule into utter confusion.

An increase in size (and IB officials have privately mentioned a possible tripling with the next three years) carries with it some inescapable administrative problems. The present IB Office, with a budget of less than £165,000 per year for the development and administration of the examinations, salaries for examiners, and general dissemination of the International Baccalaureate idea, is running on the idealism and energy of a few people who believe intensely in the IB. As the IB expands, the administration costs will most probably rise disproportionately to the numbers of...
students involved.

The exams themselves will have to be expanded and refined so that a maximum level of reliability can be maintained. Where the University of London spent $401,000 to develop a series of objective questions for the "O" level Chemistry tests alone, \(24\) the IB issues a special admonition to proctors that because the objective questions on the examinations remain similar from year to year, they are kindly requested not to photocopy them for next year's examinees! Obviously, if the IB is to remain a respected institution, it must be prepared to spend a good deal more money to develop safeguards that can replace a reliance on the idealistic enthusiasm of the teachers in its schools.

The matter of governmental and intergovernmental support is a two-edged sword. On February 4, the ministers of education of some 14 European and Middle Eastern countries met in the Hague to discuss what they could do to further the International Baccalaurate. And while we at the Copenhagen International School are hoping to get some significant subsidy for our IB program, it is not likely that the Danish government will do that without some kind of controls over how we utilize its money.

There are at least 14 IB schools which are run by the governments of the countries in which they are located. In some of them students are allowed to select any courses they please. But in many, the selection is limited to
those which are most similar to courses of studies in the national schools. Even an independent school like Atlantic College is not entirely free to run its own programs. Receiving money from the Belgian government makes it possible for a number of Belgians to attend the school, but as the headmaster observed wryly, "We must offer two hours a week of Walloon History." 25

If Malta and Mexico begin to offer the International Baccalureate as part of their national program, it is obvious that some of the international flavor will be watered down as the administration of the program is taken over by the ministries of education to provide for a single-culture, stable student body.

Broadly speaking, the incorporation of the IB into a national program could fall within the original IB philosophy. Even though it may not be as broad and flexible as a scheme designed for an international student body, the structure and content of the individual subjects are undeniably international, and it would be difficult to teach any part of the IB syllabus without promoting an international over a narrowly nationalistic viewpoint. It will be interesting to see if, when Malta and Mexico do begin to use parts of the IB, whether what actually comes out of it is very dissimilar to that which is practiced in international schools.

One significant criticism of the International Baccalureate is that it is a very academic program. It was developed
to satisfy entrance requirements of European universities, which traditionally have been providing a professional and liberal arts education for the upper 5 to 20% of a nation's young people. What about those students in international schools who do not wish to enter the universities but prefer to take some kind of technical, business, or language training?

Technical training seems to be out of the question at the moment, for few international schools have the facilities for adequate training in most technical fields. In addition, a technical education, which many equate with vocational education, would undoubtably split a student body into separate groups. Language schools which prepare a student for a career as a translator, interpreter, or multi-lingual office worker, abound in most large cities. A business-oriented curriculum is being seriously considered, however. Courses ranging from simple office procedure to a study of the role of multinational corporations have been suggested. One line of thought has the Commercial IB running parallel to the academic IB. Another, supported by A.R. Tunnecliffe of the United World College of South-East Asia, would have Commercial students taking many of the same subjects as academic students, with the remainder being selected from the commercial curriculum. Right now, however, the implementation of a Commercial Baccalaureate seems stalled in the curriculum development stage.
At the present time (early 1976) most of the time and energy of the International Baccalaureate Office is directed toward the implications of a more far-reaching development—the decision of Unesco to insure the long-term future of the IB. For a long time it had been clear to those people who had been responsible for securing the grants and contributions which made up three-fourths of the IB budget that some kind of inter-governmental support would be necessary if the IB were to develop to its full potential. Accordingly, a series of negotiations was carried on with the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, whose educational aims were parallel to those of the IB. In 1974 a draft resolution was unanimously accepted by all 70 Unesco members present.

This resolution called for the Director General to "study what steps could be taken from 1977 on, to help in carrying on the work of the International Baccalaureate Office, and accordingly submit appropriate proposals to the General Conference at its nineteenth session." Understood in the proposal was the Unesco would become responsible for a certain part of the financial burden of the IB and the IB in return would either be integrated into Unesco or work in close association with it. Although the terms of the association have not yet been finalized or even presented to the nineteenth session for ratification, the most probable plan would see Unesco underwriting the costs for the innovative part of the IB—curriculum...
development and special programs. The operating costs of the IB Office (related primarily to examinations) would be paid by school and student fees. In addition, the commitment of Unesco prompted governments who had young people enrolled in the IB program to agree (in principle) to support IB operations. Although few specific statements have been articulated as to the size and kind of support they will be giving, it is felt that subsidies to students and schools from individual governments will ultimately amount to about one-third the actual costs of running the IB program.

The IB has come a long way from the first tentative proposals voiced at the International School of Geneva. There is no doubt that it has fulfilled its primary objective of providing a college entrance examination system for the international students of the world. The interest that many governments, organizations, and individuals have shown in the International Baccalaureate ideals of developing a sense of internationalism in young people indicates that its general orientation is a necessary and appreciated one. Whether the International Baccalaureate can continue to grow and respond to changing political and social conditions is still dependent on a few key individuals and institutions. Certainly they have made a promising beginning.
Footnotes

1. Leach, p. 178
2. Mayer, p. 78
3. Leach, p. 38
4. Mayer, p. 216
5. Peterson, *The International Baccalaureate*, p. 11
6. Mayer, p. 219
8. Mayer, p. 222
15. International Baccalaureate Office, *Bulletin No. 11*, p. 21
17. International Baccalaureate Office, *Bulletin No. 11*, p. 21
20 International Baccalaureate Office, General Guide, p. 19
21 International Baccalaureate Office, Bulletin No. 11, pps 19-21
22 International Baccalaureate Office, Bulletin No. 10, p. 22
23 International Baccalaureate Office, Bulletin No. 10, p. 23
24 Mayer, p. 232
25 Mayer, p. 94
26 United World Colleges, pps. 8-10
27 Unesco, Draft Resolution 18C/260
Bibliography

International Baccalaureate Office, Palais Wilson, 1211 Geneva 14
International Baccalaureate Evaluation Conference,
Sevres, 1974
Introduction of an International Baccalaureate,
(Commercial), Geneva, no date
Semi-annual Bulletin, No. 6, May 1971
Annual Bulletin, No. 8, Nov. 1972
Annual Bulletin, No. 9, Nov. 1973
Annual Bulletin, No. 10, Nov. 1974
Annual Bulletin, No. 11, Nov. 1975


Renaud, Gérard, The Experimental Period of the International Period of the International Baccalaureate, Sevres, International Baccalaureate Office, no date


Aims

a) the development of an understanding of the nature of historical evidence;
b) the development of the capacity to marshal facts and evaluate evidence and to discuss issues from a historical point of view;
c) the development of the capacity to readjust historical views in the light of new evidence or new interpretations of familiar evidence (to be tested partly in oral examinations);
d) the acquisition of a sufficient body of historical knowledge within the topics or periods studied to provide a respectable basis for (a), (b) and (c) above;
e) the development of a sense of historical continuity;
f) the diminution of ethnocentric prejudices and the development of a more international approach to world history.

General considerations

The course should include discussion of social, cultural, economic and ideological history, but with a certain bias towards political history.

The selection of the twentieth century as the core common to both higher and subsidiary levels is designed to meet the increasing interest of students in the contemporary world, particularly those who are not choosing history as one of their major studies. In some schools the history of the last seventy-five years should provide an adequate basis for developing a true understanding of the subject (provided that the earlier historical processes affecting the twentieth century are discussed) since the student will have been engaged in some continuous study of earlier historical periods before starting on the International Baccalaureate course. In others, it may well be that the course itself must cover a longer period if the sense of history is to be developed within it. The two options at higher level, Contemporary History (19th century to present day) and Modern History (mid-eighteenth century to present day) are designed to satisfy these two situations. In the past, schools have tended to regard the teaching of history as a course of "lessons" supplemented by the reading of textbooks and, possibly, discussion. More recently, they have attempted to teach their pupils to handle source material and encouraged them to undertake research projects of their own. Provision has been made for both methods. Parts I and II of the higher level programme are more amenable to a traditional approach, but it is intended that Part III should be regarded as an opportunity for individual study by the pupil.

Certain characteristics are common to both the Contemporary and Modern History courses: Part I is an outline of some problems of contemporary world history serving a twofold purpose: it ensures that pupils will deal with the problems of countries outside the area selected by their school for more detailed study; and includes a number of world-wide issues which cannot be confined to any one of the areas offered for selection and which encourage the topic approach.

Examination questions on this part will be designed not so much to test the pupil's capacity for factual recall as his ability to discuss the issues listed in the programme from a historical point of view and in the general context of twentieth century history.

Part II is also an outline course, though treated in greater detail. Here the time factor is more in evidence. The areas offered for selection are large and some choice has to be allowed for within the limits of each. No detailed syllabus is prescribed therefore; the choice of emphasis being left to the teacher.

In this part of the higher level examination, pupils will be expected to display a more detailed and accurate knowledge of the historical events on which their reasoning is based.

Part III — Individual Study requires the detailed study of a narrow sector of history. It is the intensive counterpart of the extensive survey of Part I. Each pupil will propose a topic which if approved by both his teacher and the chief examiner will be studied under the supervision of the teacher. It is hoped that in any one class as wide a range of subjects as possible will be chosen.

In this part of the higher level course students should, within the limits of school level history, be able to discuss the divergent views of professional historians on the subject they have chosen and give reasons for their own interpretation of it.
PROGRAMME

History offers two alternative programmes for higher level (Contemporary History and Modern History) and a common subsidiary level programme.

HIGHER LEVEL

Option “Contemporary History” (Late 19th century to present day)

PART I – Contemporary World History

The course should provide an outline survey of twentieth century world history with special reference to some of the topics listed below. The chief examiner will select four topics for the two year cycle, to be studied by subsidiary level candidates. Schools will then select two of these for their higher level candidates. The course should provide an outline survey of late nineteenth century to present day world history with special reference to some of the topics listed below:

1. The causes, practices and effects of wars.
2. The economic problems of the inter-war period.
3. The rise and rule of single party dictatorships.
4. Decolonisation and the rise of new nations.
5. The development of the technological culture.
6. Religion and politics — e.g. the influence of Islam, Judaism, religious differences in India, Christian democracy in Europe.
7. Nationalism and neo-nationalism — e.g. the resurgence of China.
8. East / West relations after 1945.
9. Social and economic problems of developing areas.

PART II – Contemporary History (Late 19th century to present day)

A more detailed study of one of the following areas:

a) Africa
b) America
c) Western Asia (including Pakistan)

e) Modern Asia (including India and Australasia)

PART III – Individual Study

This should be carried out by students guided by the teacher. It will lead to the composition of the student’s individual extended essay, which will present the student’s considered views on the subject selected.

Option “Modern History” (Mid-eighteenth century to present day)

PART I

As for Contemporary History.

PART II

A more detailed and comprehensive study of the history of one of the same five areas listed for Part II of the Contemporary course above, from the middle of the eighteenth century to the present day. (The general remarks appended to Part II of the Contemporary History course above are equally applicable here.) The emphasis of this period lies in understanding these two centuries as the outstanding age of revolution.

PART III – Individual Study

As for the Contemporary History course, with the proviso that the subject chosen may fall within the wider period.

It is emphasised that the numbering of the parts of the programme at higher level is not intended to prescribe a teaching order. Some teachers may prefer to treat Part II with their higher level students before proceeding to Part I.
SUBSIDIARY LEVEL

The course consists of Part I of the higher level syllabus (Contemporary World History and Modern History).

ASSESSMENT

HIGHER LEVEL (BOTH CONTEMPORARY AND MODERN HISTORY)

a) Written examination (4 1/2 hours, 2 papers)

Paper I 35 %
A 2-hour paper on Part I of the programme. Candidates will be required to answer either 2 questions out of a choice of 12 or any one question among those specially indicated for a possible 2-hour treatment.

Paper II 35 %
A 2 1/2 hour paper on Part II of the programme (the area chosen for detailed study) in which candidates must answer 3 questions out of a choice of approximately 10.

b) Extended essay (not more than 6,000 words)

This should be written during the candidate's final year. The topic of the essay should be submitted to the examiner for prior approval. Details concerning the essay's composition, presentation and evaluation are given in a circular to schools.

c) Oral examination (30 minutes, after 30 minutes' preparation) 30 %

Recorded on cassette in the presence of a teacher and evaluated by the examiner. Half the marks will be based on the assessment of the extended essay as moderated by the oral examiner. The other half will be based on documents relevant to the area studied for paper II. Details of the exact oral procedure is given in a circular to schools.
INTERNATIONAL BACCALAUREATE

1975

HISTORY

Higher Level

Documents for Paper I

PART ONE

DOCUMENTS
A. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TECHNOLOGICAL CULTURE

A. SOVIET RUSSIA:

a) Distribution of Projectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1915</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1922</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1925</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1927</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1928</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1932</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1936</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1939</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(From Inkeles, A. "Public Opinion in Soviet Russia", 1951)

b) Eisenstein's Confession, 1946

Like a bad sentry we gaped at the unessential and secondary things, forgetting the main things, and so abandoning our post. We forgot that the main thing in art is its ideological content and historical truth. Like a bad foundryman, we lightmindedly allowed the precious stream of creation to be poured out over sand and become dispersed in private, unessential sidelines. This brought us to vices and mistakes in our creations.

In the second part of IVAN THE TERRIBLE we committed a misrepresentation of historical facts which made the film worthless and vicious in an ideological sense.

B. U.S.A: Advertising material (1930's)

a) Although the theme of First National's "Wild Boys Of The Road" undertakes to present a sociological and economic condition which to an extent has passed from the popular mind, it is still sufficiently timely to offer excellent opportunities to the exhibitor. It can be made particularly effective with a selling reference to the New Deal arrangement of the Civilian Conservation Corps, serving to take thousands of young men from the streets and freight cars. In many cases, the picture may strike directly home to the community, a thought not to be overlooked by the showman.

(From "Motion Picture Herald", 1933.)

b) 5000 stalwart youths ... determined faces shining with eagerness ... gather in a torchlight, midnight tribunal to ride greed, lust and murder out of town.

Skies Blaze Red. ... 5000 torches light the heavens. ...

10,000 glowing faces flame with eagerness.

SEE - the gigantic mobilization of young courageous manhood.
FEEL - the fury of the mob.
C. GREAT BRITAIN: Cinema Audiences

Cinema admissions and net box-office takings (UK)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Admissions (millions)</th>
<th>Net takings (millions)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1945</td>
<td>1,585</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1947</td>
<td>1,462</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1949</td>
<td>1,430</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>1,365</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>1,285</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>1,182</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>915</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1959</td>
<td>581</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>449</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Board of Trade)

D. CINEMA AND RADIO

"The outstanding psychological characteristic of the talking picture is its power of providing hundreds of spectators at a single time with a standardized daydream. Vaguely aware that his neighbours are likewise losing themselves in the adventurous and amorous exploits of the actors, each member of the audience feels protected and justified in his own artistic absorption. It has often been pointed out how extraordinarily antisocial are some of the attractive exploits on the screen. Paradoxically enough, conventional sanctions have grown up to protect the spectator from feeling guilt in such antisocial fantasies. With multitudes of his fellow citizens to keep him company, he can indulge in outrageous daydreams whose theme is not ordinarily admitted into his socialized consciousness. The radio seldom invites such an extreme degree of identification of the auditor with the actor, and its programs, furthermore, are limited by the conventions of the home. In short, it might be said that the type of social participation encouraged by radio is the type that is well integrated with conscious standards of morality, whereas the talking picture permits expression of the deeper, less socialized portions of the spectator's unconscious mental life," ... (p.261)

(From Cantril, Hadley & Allport "The Psychology Of Radio", 1935)
a) There can be no talk of riches produced by technology. What really happens is rather a steady, forever growing consumption. It is a ruthless destruction, the like of which the earth has never before seen. ...

... The radical consumption of oil, coal, and ore cannot be called economy, however rational the methods of drilling and mining. Underlying strict rationality of technical working methods, we find a way of thinking which cares nothing for the preservation and saving of the substance. ...

b) Where wastage begins, there begins desolation, and scenes of such desolation can be found even in the early days of our technology, in the era of the steam engine. These scenes are startling by the extraordinary ugliness and the Cyclopean power which are characteristic of them. The machine invades the landscape with destruction and transformation; it grows factories and whole manufacturing cities overnight, cities grotesquely hideous, where human misery is glaringly revealed; cities which, like Manchester, represent an entire stage of technology and which have become synonymous with hopeless dreariness. Technology darkens the air with smoke, poisons the water, destroys the plants and animals. It brings about a state in which nature has to be "preserved" from rationalized thinking, in which large tracts of land have to be set apart, fenced off, and placed under a taboo...

c) Mining centers, in particular, are the focal points of organized pillage. The riches in the earth are being exploited and consumed. Human pauperization begins with the proletarization of the masses, who are indoctrinated to factory work and kept on a low level of existence. The exploitation of the factory worker (about which socialism is indignant only so long as it is in the opposition) is an inevitable symptom of the universal exploitation to which technology subjects the whole earth from end to end. Man no less than ore deposits belongs to the resources subject to consumption by technology. The ways in which the worker tries to evade this exploitation - associations, labor unions, political parties - are the very methods which tie him forever closer to the progress of technology, mechanical work, and technical organization. ...

d) Closely linked to this is the rapid wear and tear the machine suffers. That most of our machines become junk so soon results from their design and purpose. Their durability, strength, and usability are lessened, restricted in the very degree to which technology extends even to its own apparatus. The repairs and replacements these mechanisms constantly demand represent an immense amount of human labor. And the machine falls quickly into that state of disrepair in which we see it around us everywhere. Technical progress covers the earth, not alone with its machines and workshops, but also with junk and scrap. All this rusty tin, these twisted girders, these bent and broken machine parts and castaway tools - they remind the thoughtful observer of the fleeting impermanence of the process he witnesses. Perhaps they keep him from overestimating all this progress and help him to an understanding of what really goes on. Wear and tear is a form of consumption; it manifests itself pre-eminently where plundering goes on, and so we find it in particular wherever technology is at work. ....
a) America is a sick nation in the midst of a sick world. We are sick because of our failure to recognize economic changes in time, and to make provision against their consequences. For a quarter of a century tremendous developments have taken place. The machine age in this time has moved more rapidly in the direction of replacing men with machinery than in the one hundred years before. We have moved faster in productive capacity not only in agriculture, but to a larger extent in industry than in the entire history of our country. This is only one factor, however, in the present stagnation of enterprise. The means of exchange have become frozen all along the channels of trade. It is time to face the facts and get away from the idea that we can return to conditions that approximate those of four years' ago. It is not a restoration of the old that we seek, but an evolution into a new.

(Early Draft)

b) Values have shrunk to fantastic levels; taxes have risen; our ability to pay has fallen; government of all kinds is faced by serious curtailment of income; the means of exchange are frozen in the currents of trade; the withered leaves of industrial enterprise lie on every side; farmers find no markets for their produce; the savings of many years in thousands of families are gone.

More important, a host of unemployed citizens face the grim problem of existence, and an equally great number toil with little return. Only a foolish optimist can deny the dark realities of the moment.

Yet our distress comes from no failure of substance.

(Final Version)

c) Restoration calls, however, not for changes in ethics alone. This Nation asks for action, and action now.

Our greatest primary task is to put people to work. This is no unsolvable problem if we face it wisely and courageously. It can be accomplished in part by direct recruiting by the Government itself, treating the task as we would treat the emergency of a war, but at the same time, through this employment, accomplishing greatly needed projects to stimulate and reorganize the use of our natural resources.

Hand in hand with this we must frankly recognize the over-balance of population in our industrial centers and, by engaging on a national scale in a redistribution, endeavor to provide a better use of the land for those best fitted for the land. The task can be helped by preventing realistically the tragedy of the growing loss through foreclosure of our small homes and our farms. It can be helped by insistence that the Federal, State, and local governments act forthwith on the demand that their cost be drastically reduced. It can be helped by the unifying of relief activities which today are often scattered, uneconomical, and unequal. It can be helped by national planning for and supervision of all forms of transportation and of communications and other utilities which have a definitely public character. There are many ways in which it can be helped, but it can never be helped merely by talking about it. We must act and act quickly.
Finally, in our progress toward a resumption of work we require two safeguards against a return of the excesses of the old order: there must be a strict supervision of all banking and credits and investments, so that there will be an end to speculation with other people’s money; and there must be provision for an adequate but sound currency.

These are the lines of attack. I shall presently urge upon a new Congress, in special session, detailed measures for their fulfillment, and I shall seek the immediate assistance of the several States.

Through this program of action we address ourselves to putting our own national house in order and making income balance outgo. Our international trade relations, though vastly important, are in point of time and necessity secondary to the establishment of a sound national economy. I favor as a practical policy the putting of first things first. I shall spare no effort to restore world trade by international economic readjustment, but the emergency at home cannot wait on that accomplishment.

In the field of world policy I would dedicate this Nation to the policy of the good neighbor - the neighbor who resolutely respects himself and, because he does so, respects the rights of others, the neighbor who respects his obligations and respects the sanctity of his agreements in and with a world of neighbors.

Statistical Tables from Text of Speech.

a) Area under All Crops in the U.S.S.R.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(In million hectares)</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
<th>1933</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total crop area</td>
<td>105.0</td>
<td>118.0</td>
<td>127.2</td>
<td>136.3</td>
<td>134.4</td>
<td>129.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of which:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Grain crops</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td>96.0</td>
<td>101.8</td>
<td>104.4</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>101.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Industrial crops</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Vegetables and melons</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Fodder crops</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) Area under Industrial Crops in the U.S.S.R.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(In million hectares)</th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
<th>1933</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cotton</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flax (long fibre)</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>2.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar-beet</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil seeds</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td>7.98</td>
<td>5.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Further tables see next page)
### c) Gross Output of Grain and Industrial Crops in the U.S.S.R.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1913</th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
<th>1933</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grain crops</td>
<td>801.0</td>
<td>717.4</td>
<td>835.4</td>
<td>694.8</td>
<td>698.7</td>
<td>898.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw cotton</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flax fibre</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sugar-beet</td>
<td>109.0</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>140.2</td>
<td>120.5</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oil seeds</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### d) Livestock in the U.S.S.R.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1916</th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
<th>1933</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Horses</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Large cattle</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Sheep and goats</td>
<td>115.2</td>
<td>147.2</td>
<td>108.8</td>
<td>77.7</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Pigs</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### e) Collectivisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
<th>1933</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of collective farms (thousands)</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>211.1</td>
<td>211.0</td>
<td>224.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of households in collective farms (millions)</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Per cent of peasant farms collectivised</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>52.7</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>65.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### f) Area under Grain Crops According to Sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1929</th>
<th>1930</th>
<th>1931</th>
<th>1932</th>
<th>1933</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. State farms</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Collective farms</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Individual peasant farms</td>
<td>91.1</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total grain crop area in the U.S.S.R.</td>
<td>96.0</td>
<td>101.8</td>
<td>104.4</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>101.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
C. NATIONALISM AND NEO-NATIONALISM

NATIONALISM UNDER QUESTION

a) LENIN (1913)

Every national culture contains elements, even if not developed, of democratic and socialist culture, for in every nation there are toiling and exploited masses, whose conditions of life inevitably give rise to the ideology of democracy and Socialism. But every nation also has a bourgeois ... dominant culture. Therefore, "national culture" in general is the culture of the landlords, the clergy and the bourgeoisie. ...

Bourgeois nationalism and proletarian internationalism - such are the two irreconcilably hostile slogans that correspond to the two great class camps throughout the entire capitalist world and express the two policies (more than that: two world outlooks), in the national question.

Marxism is irreconcilable with nationalism, even the "justest", "purest", most refined and civilized. Instead of nationalism of every kind, Marxism advances internationalism, the amalgamation of all nations in the higher unity that is growing under our eyes with every verst of railway, with every international trust, with every (international in its economic activities and also in its ideas and strivings) workers' association.

b) BRITISH STATESMEN

"The most ardent British advocate of the principle of self-determination found himself, sooner or later, in a false position. However fervid might be our indignation regarding Italian claims to Dalmatia and the Dodecanese it could be cooled by a reference, not to Cyprus only, but to Ireland, Egypt and India. We had accepted a system for others which, when it came to practice, we should refuse to apply to ourselves."

(Harold Nicolson, "Peacemaking 1919")

"It would clearly be inadvisable to go even the smallest distance in the direction of admitting the claim of the American negroes, or the Southern Irish, or the Flemings, or Catalans, to appeal to an Inter-State Conference over the head of their own government. Yet if a right of appeal is granted to the Macedonians or the German Bohemians it will be difficult to refuse it in the case of other nationalist movements."

(Foreign Office Memorandum, 1918)

c) GENERAL SMUTS

"The German colonies in the Pacific and Africa are inhabited by barbarians, who not only cannot possibly govern themselves, but to whom it would be impracticable to apply any idea of political self-determination in the European sense."

(From "The League of Nations : A Practical Suggestion", 1918)
d) **HITLER**

The "nation" is a political expedient of democracy and Liberalism. We have to get rid of this false conception and set in its place the conception of race, which has not yet been politically used up. The new order cannot be conceived in terms of the national boundaries of the peoples with an historic past, but in terms of race that transcend those boundaries. All the adjustments and corrections of frontiers, and of regions of colonizations, are a ploughing of the sands.

*(To Rauschning)*

National Socialism had thrown off the chains of slavery one by one and at last, in the union of Germans in Great Germany, had "experienced the crowning of unique efforts and a millennial longing". These measures had injured nobody: they had only given the Germans what other nations had long possessed. Yet Jewish international capitalism, together with social reactionaries in the Western States, had managed to incite the democratic world against Germany.

*(Proclamation 1940)*

---

e) **DE GAULLE**

Who in good faith can dispute the fact that France must help to build Western Europe into an organized union of states so that gradually there may be established the most powerful, prosperous and influential political, economic and military complex in the world?

*(1962)*

---

Document C.2  
**NELSON MANDELA** — South Africa

It is true, as I have already stated, that I have been influenced by Marxist thought. But this is also true of many of the leaders of the new independent States. Such widely different persons as Gandhi, Nehru, Nkrumah and Nasser all acknowledge this fact. We all accept the need for some form of Socialism to enable our people to catch up with the advanced countries of this world and to overcome their legacy of extreme poverty. But this does not mean we are Marxists.

From my reading of Marxist literature and from conversations with Marxists, I have gained the impression that Communists regard the parliamentary system of the West as undemocratic and reactionary. But, on the contrary, I am an admirer of such a system. The Magna Carta, the Petition of Rights and the Bill of Rights are documents which are held in veneration by democrats throughout the world. I have great respect for British political institutions, and for the country's system of justice. I regard the British Parliament as the most democratic institution in the world, and the independence and impartiality of its judiciary never fail to arouse my admiration.

I have been influenced in my thinking by both West and East. All this has led me to feel that I should tie myself to no particular system of society other than of Socialism. I must leave myself free to borrow the best from the West and from the East.

*(Text continued on next page)*
Basically, we fight against two features which are the hallmark of African life in South Africa and which are entrenched by legislation which we seek to have repealed. These features are poverty and lack of human dignity. South Africa is the richest country in Africa, and could be one of the richest countries in the world. But it is a land of extremes and remarkable contrasts. The whites enjoy what may well be the highest standard of living in the world, whilst Africans live in poverty and misery. The lack of human dignity experienced by Africans is the direct result of the policy of white supremacy. White supremacy implies black inferiority. Legislation designed to preserve white supremacy entrenches this notion.

Africans want to be paid a living wage. Africans want to perform work which they are capable of doing, and not work which the Government declares them to be capable of. Africans want to be allowed to live where they obtain work, and not to be endorsed out of an area because they were not born there. Africans want to be allowed to own land in places where they work, and not to be obliged to live in rented houses which they can never call their own. Africans want to be part of the general population, and not confined to living in their own ghettos.

Above all, we want equal political rights, because without them our disabilities will be permanent. I know this sounds revolutionary to the minds in this country, because the majority of voters will be Africans. This makes the white man fear democracy. But this fear cannot be allowed to stand in the way of the only solution which will guarantee racial harmony and freedom for all. It is not true that the enfranchisement of all will result in racial domination. Political division, based on color, is entirely artificial and, when it disappears, so will the domination of one color group by another.

(From his speech at his trial)
Ben Gurion: "Withdraw? But West Germany is a peaceful, democratic state, who needs our support"

SOURCE (ARTIST)

a. "Observer", UK (ABU)
b. EAST GERMANY (RAUWOLF)- "EULONPIECZC"
c. "TIMES OF CEYLON" (COLETTE)
d. "DIE PRESSE" (IRONIUS)- AUSTRIA.

ECLIPSE OF THE SUN
THE CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS, 1962

a) PRESIDENT KENNEDY (Broadcast)

Finally, I want to say a few words to the captive people of Cuba, to whom this speech is being directly carried by special radio facilities.

I speak to you as a friend, as one who knows of your deep attachment to your fatherland, as one who shares your aspirations for liberty and justice for all. And I have watched with sorrow how your nationalist revolution was betrayed—how your fatherland fell under foreign domination.

Now your leaders are no longer Cuban leaders inspired by Cuban ideals. They are puppets and agents of an international conspiracy which has turned Cuba against your friends and neighbors in the Americas—and turned it into the first Latin-American country to become a target for nuclear war—the first Latin-American country to have these weapons on its soil.

These new weapons are not in your interest. They can only undermine it. But this country has no wish to cause you to suffer or to impose any system upon you. We know your lives and land are being used as pawns by those who deny you freedom.

Many times in the past, the Cuban people have risen to throw out tyrants who destroyed their liberty, and I have no doubt that most Cubans today look forward to the time when they will be truly free—free from foreign domination. Free to own their own land. Free to speak and write and worship without fear or degradation. And then shall Cuba be welcomed back to the society of free nations and to the associations of this hemisphere.

b) FIDEL CASTRO (To U Thant)

(Castro on October 27 responded to a message of October 26 from U Thant. Castro welcomed the UN efforts, condemned the "blockade" as an "act of force and war" and rejected the "presumption" of the United States)

... to determine what actions we are entitled to take within our country, what kind of arms we consider appropriate for our defense, what relations we are to have with the U.S.S.R., and what international policy steps we are entitled to take, within the rules and laws governing relations between the peoples of the world and the principles governing the UN, in order to guarantee our own security and sovereignty.

... The revolutionary government of Cuba would be prepared to accept the compromises that you request as efforts in favor of peace, provided that at the same time, while negotiations are in progress, the United States government desists from threats and aggressive actions against Cuba, including the naval blockade of our country.

At the same time I express to you our willingness to consider attentively any new suggestion you may put forward; furthermore, should you consider it useful to the cause of peace, our government would be glad to receive you in our country, as secretary-general of the UN, with a view to direct discussions on the present crisis, prompted by our common purpose of freeing mankind from the dangers of war.
c) **PRAVDA** - "**Foil the criminal schemes of the enemies of peace.**"

Alarming news has spread throughout the world: The American imperialists have adopted unprecedented aggressive measures, confronting the world with the threat of a global thermonuclear war. Having concentrated its Atlantic fleet in the Caribbean area, the American government has with unparalleled effrontery announced, in the person of President Kennedy, its intention to impose a naval blockade against the Republic of Cuba and has placed its armed forces in a state of combat readiness.

American imperialism, assuming the role of international gendarme, has for some time now been weaving provocative nets around the Cuban Republic. The events of Playa Giron are still fresh in our minds.

The actions undertaken by American ruling circles constitute a scandalous violation of the elementary norms of international law and of all international customs. They are incompatible with the principles of the UN Charter. They represent a challenge to all peace-loving nations. Such actions constitute a direct revival of piracy and international lawlessness, which mankind hoped had been ended forever with the conviction in Nuremberg and Tokyo of the leading war criminals responsible for unleashing World War II, for crimes against peace and against humanity.

President Kennedy could devise nothing better than to direct against Cuba long-refuted accusations to the effect that it supposedly constitutes a threat to U.S. security. But the whole world knows that revolutionary Cuba - a nation that has chosen the path of freedom, the path toward the building of a new society - does not, and by virtue of the nature of its new social order cannot, represent a threat to anyone.
PART ONE: DOCUMENTS

A set of documents (two on each of the topics in the syllabus) will be distributed with this paper. Choose ONE document or group of documents (i.e. A1 or A2, B1 or B2 etc.) on ONE of the topics you have studied, and answer ALL the questions relating to it.

A. THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TECHNOLOGICAL CULTURE (topic 5)

DOCUMENT A 1 : THE CINEMA

(i) What insights can you gain from extracts A(a) and (b) about the Soviet use of the cinema for propaganda?
(ii) What can you learn from extracts B (a) and (b) about the American cinema industry, and about public interests and attitudes in the 1930's?
(iii) Comment on both columns of figures in C.
(iv) What do the authors in D suggest are the most significant differences between the impact of the radio and the cinema? Can you suggest others? Has television introduced any significantly new factors?
(v) In what ways could the cinema be regarded as the "folk art of the twentieth century"?
(vi) "News-reels and documentaries will be very valuable, but feature films of little use to future historians". In what ways could this opinion be challenged?

DOCUMENT A 2 : THE FAILURE OF TECHNOLOGY

(i) What are the main examples which the author puts forward to support his claim that technology is a "ruthless destruction"?
(ii) What do you understand by these phrases in (b) (c):
- "Cyclopean-power"
- "Proleturization of the masses"
- "The ways in which the worker tries to evade this exploitation ... tie him forever closer"?

(iii) Can you suggest any reason why the Nazis suppressed this material?

(iv) Can you point to any novels/plays/films/paintings produced before 1950 which would endorse or question Juenger's analysis?

(v) In what ways do you think that the arguments for and against technology would now, in 1975, need to be significantly different?

(vi) "Artists are afraid of science and fail to understand its importance". Comment (Juenger is a poet and novelist).

B. ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF THE INTER-WAR PERIOD (topic 2)

DOCUMENT B 1 : ROOSEVELT AND THE NEW DEAL

(i) Do you think (b) is an improvement on (a) in any way?

(ii) Use (a), (b), and (c) to explain why Roosevelt believed the USA was faced by a crisis situation? Can you suggest other reasons not mentioned here?

(iii) Comment on the phrases in (b):
- "the means of exchange are frozen in the currents of trade"
- "our distress comes from no failure of substance".

(iv) What is your opinion of the remedies within America which Roosevelt outlines in (c)?

(v) How many of Roosevelt's proposals would involve an extension of state action? What precedents could he appeal to?

(vi) What is the significance of Roosevelt's "dedication" to the "policy of the good neighbors"?

(vii) How far can it be argued that the New Deal made America a welfare state, with a planned economy?

DOCUMENT B 2 : SOVIET COLLECTIVISATION OF FARMS

(i) What do you think are the main questions one needs to ask in trying to assess the success or failure of collectivisation?

(ii) Then use the six tables to attempt such an assessment.

(iii) Comment on the likely validity of the figures.

(iv) What further statistical and non-statistical evidence do you think you would still need in order to assess collectivisation?
Stalin admitted that "progress in the main branches of agriculture proceeded many times more slowly than in industry".

In the same speech Stalin outlined the amount of money, machinery and fertilisers, that had been sent to the villages, as well as advisers "Can it be said" he continued, "that these possibilities have been properly used? Unfortunately, it cannot".

Can you account for these failures?

"With all her blunders, Soviet Russia had triumphed over enormous difficulties and taken great strides .... While the rest of the world was in the grip of the depression and going backwards in some ways, in the Soviet country a great new world was being built before our eyes" (Nehru). Comment on this view.

C. NATIONALISM AND NEO-NATIONALISM (topic 8)

DOCUMENT C 1: NATIONALISM UNDER QUESTION

(i) Distinguish between these different views of "internationalism".
- "Marxism advances internationalism" (a)
- League of Nations (b and c)
- "Organised union of states" (e)

(ii) What light do any of these extracts throw on the failure of the League of Nations?

(iii) Were there other reasons for the Mandate System than responsibility for groups who "cannot possibly govern themselves"? Comment on use of the word "barbarians" (c)

(iv) Do you feel there is any inconsistency between the two extracts in (d)? How would you distinguish between racialism and nationalism?

(v) Lenin praises "every international trust". (a) Hitler attacks "Jewish International capitalism" (d). What exactly do you think each had in mind?

(vi) In what ways may supra-national business concerns have effected the freedom of nations?

(vii) "Nationalism is a dangerous lunacy in face of the global realities of the twentieth century". Comment.

DOCUMENT C 2: NELSON MANDELA

(i) Mandela denies he is a "Marxist", but admits he is a "Socialist". What does he seem to see as the main differences?

(ii) Why do you think that Mandela refers to "Magna Carta, the Petition of Rights and the Bill of Rights", and stresses his respect for British Institutions?
(iii) Elaborate what Mandela had in mind by "legislation designed to preserve white supremacy".

(iv) Similarly, explain the situation behind his words: "Africans want to be part of the general population and not confined to living in their own ghettos".

(v) Mandela cites Gandhi, Nehru, Nkrumah and Nasser. In what ways is the situation each of them faced comparable to and different from that confronting Mandela?

(vi) "Political division, based on colour ... when it disappears, so will the domination of one colour group by another". How far would the situation in multi-racial societies in other parts of the world support or call in question this opinion of Mandela?

(vii) What case could be made for the policy of Apartheid?

D. EAST-WEST RELATIONS AFTER 1945 (topic 9)

DOCUMENT D 1: CARTOONS ON MIDDLE EAST (1950's)

(i) Take each cartoon in turn and then
- explain its meaning, drawing attention to particularly significant details and naming politicians involved,
- criticize the validity, in your opinion, of the viewpoint expressed.

(ii) "For different reasons, neither Russia nor the West exerted as much influence as they would have wished in the Middle East". How far do you agree with this opinion? Can you suggest any explanation?

(iii) The cartoons appeared in the 1950's. How far do you think that then and since, rivalry between Russia and the West prevented any lasting settlement of the Israeli-Arab conflict?

DOCUMENT D 2: CUBAN MISSILE CRISIS 1962

(i) "friends and neighbours in the Americas" ; "Latin-American country", "associations of this hemisphere". Why does Kennedy use these phrases in (a)?

(ii) In what ways do you feel that Kennedy misunderstands the domestic situation in Cuba?

(iii) What is Castro concerned about in (b) and to whom is he appealing?

(iv) What do you understand by the phrase in (c) that "by virtue of the nature of its new social order (Cuba) cannot represent a threat to anyone"?

(v) What were the long-term consequences of the Cuban Missile Crisis?

(vi) How effective was the United Nations in crisis situations between East and West?
PART TWO

ESSAYS

Four essay titles are given on each of the topics in the syllabus. Choose ONE title relating to the second topic you have studied.

A. The Development of a technological culture (topic 5)

1. Which technical invention, developed since the mid-nineteenth century, do you regard as having made the greatest impact on the life of the world?

2. Select ONE of the following frequently used phrases, discuss its meaning, and assess its validity:
   - "the pressures of urban life"
   - "the breakdown of the family"
   - "mass culture"
   - "the ecological crisis".

3. Should, in your view, developing countries take the advanced technologies as their ideal?

4. "The state has taken over the work of the parents". Discuss with reference to both communist and western countries.

B. Economic problems of the inter-war period (topic 2)

1. What were, in your opinion, the "economic consequences of the peace"?

2. In what ways did the collapse of Wall Street in 1929 have repercussions all over the world?

3. "The first panacea for a mismanaged nation is inflation of the currency; the second is war. Both bring a temporary prosperity; both bring a permanent ruin. But both are the refuge of political and economic opportunists". (Ernest Hemingway, Notes on the Next War). How far do you consider this analysis could be applied to any western European country during these years?

4. "The great world crisis and slump seemed to justify the Marxist analysis. While all other systems and theories were groping about in the dark, Marxism alone explained it more or less satisfactorily and offered a real solution". (Nehru). Discuss.

75
Nationalism and neo-nationalism (topic 8)

1. How far do you agree that national movements have been more concerned with the modernisation of their countries than with the satisfaction of any national feeling?

"Now we want to revive China's lost nationalism and use the strength of our four hundred million to fight for mankind against injustice: this is our divine mission. The powers are afraid that we will have such thoughts and are setting forth a specious doctrine. They are now advocating cosmopolitanism to influence us, declaring that as mankind's vision enlarges, nationalism becomes too narrow, unsuited to the present age, and hence that we should espouse cosmopolitanism... it is not a doctrine which wronged races should talk about". (Sun Yat Sen)

Comment on this view.

3. "They removed the foreign ruler, but they took over their institutions and their ideas". Discuss with reference to the former colonies of ONE European power, who have gained independence since 1945.

4. "The struggle to maintain their own identity". Discuss this problem in regard to a national minority group, or groups, within a larger state.

D. East-West relations since 1945 (topic 9)

1. "Far from wishing to dominate the world, Russia had every reason to feel threatened by the United State and her allies after 1945". Discuss.

2. Discuss the significance of either Berlin or Korea in the conflicts between East and West.

3. "The world today is divided into three great groups... As I see it, the great issue in this second half of the twentieth century is whether the uncommitted peoples of Asia and Africa will swing to the East or the West... The struggle is joined and it is a struggle for the minds of men" (Macmillan 1960)

How far do you agree with Macmillan's analysis of the significance of the Third World in East/West conflict?

4. "Although co-existence has been accepted, the arrangements produced by the Cold War have become a permanent factor in the international situation". Discuss with relation to either the Warsaw Pact or N.A.T.O.
AMERICA

Candidates should choose three questions:

1. Account for the growth of the political parties in the U.S. in the first half of the 19th century.

2. Although bound together by a common political, religious and cultural heritage, the Spanish colonies in America did not constitute themselves into a single nation after emancipation as did the English colonies of North America. Examine the major causes and consequences of this development.

3. What major problems were brought into prominence or intensified by the U.S. acquisition of Texas, California and New Mexico?

4. Assess the impact of either immigration or the frontier on the history of either the USA or Canada in the 19th century.

5. Account for the decline of militarism in Latin America by the end of the 19th century and for its resurgence since 1930. Relate your answer to at least two countries.

6. Examine the Republican Party's programme of Reconstruction after the Civil War and assess the importance of the post-war period as a critical stage in the development of modern USA.

7. "The relationship established between the colonial power and its colonies repeats itself within the colonies themselves". Discuss this thesis with reference to 19th or 20th century post-colonial developments in either Latin America or the non-Spanish-speaking Caribbean. Relate your answer to at least two countries.

8. "The Progressive movement has a paucity of real achievement to show for its passionate rhetoric and energetic activity. Economically secure and essentially optimistic in their social views, middle class progressives enacted only mild measures that never really threatened existing power relationships". Do you agree that the Progressive movement in Latin America was essentially conservative?
9. "From the 1890s to the Cold War the desire for economic expansion has provided the force behind American foreign involvement. Policy makers and other groups (most notably big businessmen) considered economic expansion abroad as a necessary method of maintaining domestic prosperity".

Discuss this argument with reference to one of the following periods:

either (a) 1890 - 1932
or (b) 1932 - present.

10. Why did Woodrow Wilson finally decide to intervene in World War I?

11. Discuss with reference to any two countries the factors contributing to political instability in Latin America in this century.

12. "So history stands hesitant waiting for time to tell whether Herbert Hoover by pointing the way to social recovery is the first of the new Presidents or whether he is the last of the old".

What is your assessment?

13. To what extent did the New Deal redistribute wealth and power in the U.S.?

14. Either Compare the rise and progress of communism in Cuba and Chile
Or
What has been the Latin American response to the challenge of communism in the last two decades?
Relate your answer to developments in at least two countries.

15. Was the McCarthy phenomenon of the period 1950-55 an isolated incident of popular hysteria or an instance of a recurring feature of American life?

16. What have been the major achievements and failures of the Organisation of American States (OAS)?

17. Has any significant role of political leadership been played by women in Latin America in this period?

18. What is the role and function of the U.S. Vice President? How has the office of the vice presidency been defined and used since 1952?

19. Reckoning from the historical perspective, how will the nations of Latin America respond to the challenges of the major economic and political dislocations precipitated by the energy crisis?

20. "The greatest American of the 20th century".
Select a candidate from any country of the American continent and explain the grounds or criteria for the award of this distinction.
International Baccalaureate
Film-making Syllabus
Instructor: James Kesom

Philosophy:

The visual image is one of the most important means of mass communication today. The intrinsic capabilities of film and video-tape have made them a powerful force in modern life, and a popular one too. Many observers feel that television and the cinema have replaced books and newspapers as the primary source of information and entertainment, especially among the young. Certainly the medium of the film can illustrate and reproduce events much more easily than the printed word can, but it can also be used to deceive and mislead. It is necessary for each person to know the language of the film, its special abilities and limitations, so that he can understand and judge the message that is being sent.

Objectives:

Each student in the film-making class should be able to write, direct, or film a coherent, technically adequate short film. He should be able to discuss the different film techniques used in commercial film-making; how they are created and their effect. During the course, the students will form effective working teams and learn to communicate well within and among the groups.

By the end of the course, the students will have an awareness of the importance of the film medium in modern society and an understanding of the ways it is used to influence people.

(please turn over)
International Baccalaureate
Film-making Syllabus
Instructor: James Keson
March 3, 1974

Methods:

1. Presentation of photographic techniques through text, films, and demonstration.
2. Actual practice in filming.
5. Audience reaction to student-produced films.

Text: Creative Film-making, Kirk Smallman, Collier-MacMillan, 1969, London (also available as a Bantam paperback)

Equipment:

Essential Equipment:
Super-8 camera, 3 to 1 zoom
Super-8 editor and splicer
Super-8 projector
Various lights, reflectors, screens, tripods, etc.

Desirable Additions:
16 mm projector for screening of outside films
Super-8 camera, 10 to 1 zoom, variable speeds, with provisions for fades and dissolves
Tape recorders and sound projector
16 mm camera
Video-tape recording equipment