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GOVERNMENT NOTICES • GOEWERMENTSKENNISGEWINGS

DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

NO. 7285 **20 March 2026**

NATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY ACT, 1996 (ACT NO. 27 OF 1996)

CALL FOR COMMENTS FROM STAKEHOLDER BODIES AND MEMBERS OF THE PUBLIC ON THE DRAFT NEW HISTORY CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENTS (CAPS)

1. I, Siviwe Gwarube, Minister of Basic Education, hereby, in terms of *Section 3(4)(l)* of the *National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act No. 27 of 1996,* call for comments on the Draft New History *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for the following grades:*

   (a) Grade 4-6
   (b) Grades 7-9
   (c) Grades 10-12

2. The Draft Curriculum Policy Statements referred to in Paragraphs 1(a), (b) and (c) are available as set out in the Schedules.

3. The Schedules shall be made available on the Department website: www.education.gov.za under **Curriculum, Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), CAPS Documents.**

4. The call for comments will open 30 days from the date of publication in the Government Gazette.

5. Interested persons are invited to submit their comments clearly marked for the specific CAPS document and the page number.

6. The marked comments should be received at the address given in **paragraph 8** below.

7. The closing date for the receipt of comments is set at **30 days** from the date of publication of this Notice.

8. Please address all correspondence in connection with this Notice to:

The Director-General (Submission on Draft History Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement), for the attention of **Florence Modipa**
Chief Education Specialist: Curriculum Policy
Department of Basic Education
222 Struben Street
PRETORIA, 0001

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Or

The Director-General for the attention of **Florence Modipa**
Department of Basic Education
Private Bag X895
PRETORIA, 0001

Or

By email to: modipa.f@dbe.gov.za

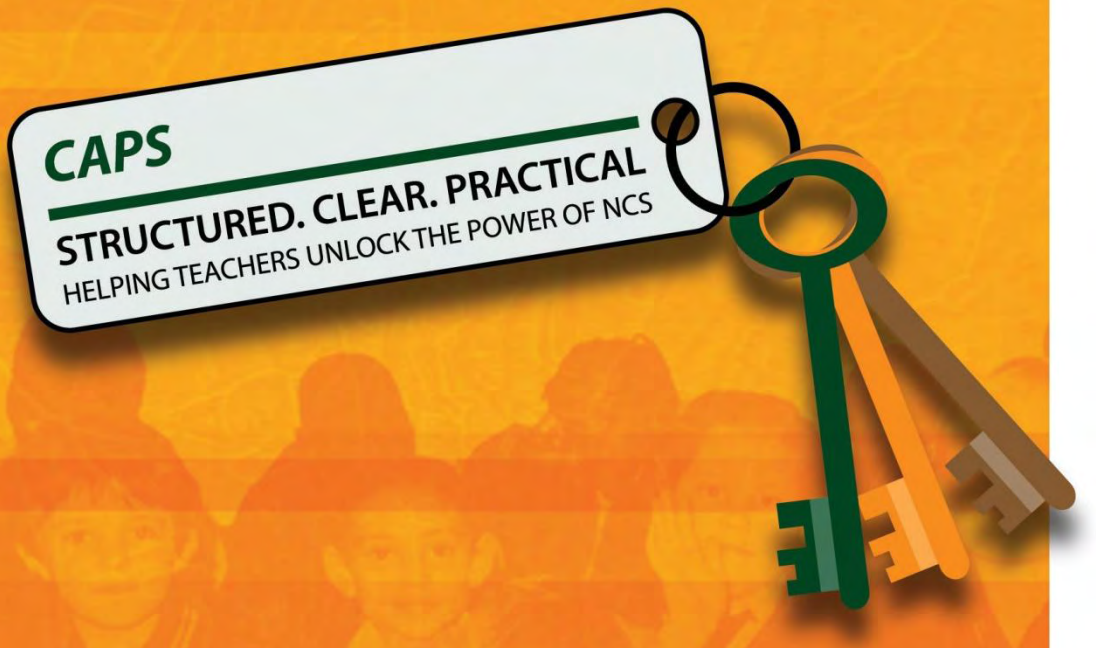
-

MS S GWARUBE, MP
MINISTER OF BASIC EDUCATION

HISTORY

National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement



General Education and Training Phase
Grades 4-6

basic education

Department:
Basic Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT
GRADES 4-6

HISTORY

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FOREWORD

Our national curriculum is the culmination of our efforts over a period of seventeen years to transform the curriculum bequeathed to us by apartheid. From the start of democracy, we have built our curriculum on the values that inspired our Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). The Preamble to the Constitution states that the aims of the Constitution are to:

- heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights;
- improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person;
- lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law; and
- build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations.

Education and the curriculum have an important role to play in realising these aims.

In 1997 we introduced outcomes-based education to overcome the curricular divisions of the past, but the experience of implementation prompted a review in 2000. This led to the first curriculum revision: the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 and the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (2002).

Ongoing implementation challenges resulted in another review in 2009 and we revised the Revised National Curriculum Statement (2002) to produce this document.

From 2012 the two 2002 curricula, for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12 respectively, are combined in a single document and will simply be known as the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. The National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-12 builds on the previous curriculum but also updates it and aims to provide clearer specification of what is to be taught and learnt on a term-by-term basis.

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 accordingly replaces the Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines with the

(a) Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for all approved subjects listed in this document;

(b) National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and

(c) National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12.

MS SIVIWE GWARUBE, MP

MINISTER OF BASIC EDUCATION

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SECTION 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENTS FOR HISTORY GRADES 4-6

1.1 Background

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (NCS) stipulates policy on curriculum and assessment in the schooling sector.

To improve implementation, the National Curriculum Statement was amended, with the amendments coming into effect in January 2012. A single comprehensive Curriculum and Assessment Policy document was developed for each subject to replace Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines in Grades R-12.

1.2 Overview

(a) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools and comprises the following:

(i) *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for each approved school subject;*

(ii) *The policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and*

(iii) *The policy document, National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (January 2012).*

(b) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) replaces the two current national curricula statements, namely the

(i) *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9, Government Gazette No. 23406 of 31 May 2002, and*

(ii) *National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 Government Gazettes, No. 25545 of 6 October 2003 and No. 27594 of 17 May 2005.*

(c) The national curriculum statements contemplated in subparagraphs b(i) and (ii) comprise the following policy documents which will be incrementally repealed by the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) during the period 2012-2014:

(i) *The Learning Area/Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12;*

(ii) *The policy document, National Policy on assessment and qualifications for schools in the General Education and Training Band d, promulgated in Government Notice No. 124 in Government Gazette No. 29626 of 12 February 2007;*

(iii) *The policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), promulgated in Government Gazette No.27819 of 20 July 2005;*

(iv) *The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding learners with special needs, published in Government Gazette, No.29466 of 11 December 2006, is incorporated in the policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and*

(v) *The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding the National Protocol for Assessment (Grades R-12), promulgated in Government Notice No.1267 in Government Gazette No. 29467 of 11 December 2006.*

(d) The policy document, *National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12,* and the sections on the Curriculum and Assessment Policy as contemplated in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of this document constitute the norms and standards of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. It will therefore, in terms of section 6A of the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996,) form the basis for the Minister of Basic Education to determine minimum outcomes and standards, as well as the processes and procedures for the assessment of learner achievement to be applicable to public and independent schools.

1.3 General aims of the South African Curriculum

(a) *The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12* gives expression to knowledge, skills and values worth learning in South African schools. This curriculum aims to ensure that children acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. In this regard, the curriculum promotes knowledge local contexts, while being sensitive to global imperatives.

(b) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 serves the purposes of:

- equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfillment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country;
- providing access to higher education;
- facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace; and providing employers with a sufficient profile of a learner's competences.

(c) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is based on the following principles:

Social transformation: ensuring that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed, and that equal educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population;

Active and critical learning: encouraging an active and critical approach to learning, rather than rote and uncritical learning of given truths;

- High knowledge and high skills: the minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade are specified and set high, achievable standards in all subjects;
- Progression: content and context of each grade shows progression from simple to complex;

- Human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice: infusing the principles and practices of social and environmental justice and human rights as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is sensitive to issues of diversity such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability and other factors;

- Valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution; and

- Credibility, quality and efficiency: providing an education that is comparable in quality, breadth and depth to those of other countries.

(d) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 aims to produce learners that are able to:

- identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;

- work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team;

- organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;

- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;

- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes;

- use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others; and

- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

(e) Inclusivity should become a central part of the organisation, planning and teaching at each school. This can only happen if all teachers have a sound understanding of how to recognise and address barriers to learning, and how to plan for diversity.

The key to managing inclusivity is ensuring that barriers are identified and addressed by all the relevant support structures within the school community, including teachers, District-Based Support Teams, Institutional-Level Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres. To address barriers in the classroom, teachers should use various curriculum differentiation strategies such as those included in the Department of Basic Education's Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (2010).

1.4 Time Allocation

1.4.1 Foundation Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Foundation Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	GRADE R (HOURS)	RADES 1-2 (HOURS)	GRADE 3 (HOURS)
Home Language	10	8/7	8/7
First Additional Language		2/3	¾
Mathematics	7	7	7
Life Skills - Beginning Knowledge - Creative Arts - Physical Education - Personal and Social Well-being	6 (1) (2) (2) (1)	6 (1) (2) (2) (1)	7 (2) (2) (2) (1)
TOTAL	23	23	25

(b) Instructional time for Grades R, 1 and 2 is 23 hours and for Grade 3 is 25 hours.

Ten hours are allocated for languages in Grades R-2 and 11 hours in Grade 3. A maximum of 8 hours and a minimum of 7 hours are allocated for Home Language and a minimum of 2 hours and a maximum of 3 hours for Additional Language in Grades 1-2. In Grade 3 a maximum of 8 hours and a minimum of 7 hours are allocated for Home Language and a minimum of 3 hours and a maximum of 4 hours for First Additional Language.

In Life Skills Beginning Knowledge is allocated 1 hour in Grades R-2 and 2 hours as indicated by the hours in brackets for Grade 3.

1.4.2 Intermediate Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Intermediate Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	HOURS
Home Language	6
First Additional Language	5
Mathematics	6
Natural Science and Technology	3,5
Social Sciences	3
Life Skills - Creative Arts - Physical Education - Personal and Social Well-being	4 (1,5) (1) (1,5)
TOTAL	27,5

1.4.3 Senior Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Senior Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	HOURS
Home Language	5
First Additional Language	4
Mathematics	4,5
Natural Science	3
Social Sciences	3
Technology	2
Economic Management Sciences	2
Life Orientation	2
Creative Arts	2
TOTAL	27,5

1.4.4 FET Phase

(a) The instructional time in Grades 10-12 is as follows:

SUBJECT	TIME ALLOCATION PER WEEK
Home Language	4.5
First Additional Language	4.5
Mathematics	4.5
Life Orientation	2
A minimum of any three subjects selected from Group B Annexure B, Tables B1-B8 of the policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and	12 (3x4h)

The allocated time per week may be utilised only for the minimum required NCS subjects as specified above, and may not be used for any additional subjects added to the list of minimum subjects. Should a learner wish to offer additional subjects, additional time must be allocated for the offering of these subjects.

SECTION 2

2.1 The essence of the new History Curriculum

This is a new African-centred curriculum for 21st-century South Africa, which pays particular attention to the long past. An African-centred approach recognises that the African past is knowable and pursues the history of Africa through multiple methodologies to reconstruct the histories of Africans on the continent and in the world. The intention is to develop in the African child a strong foundational knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the continent, and its relationship to the world.

This is not a narrowly focused 'patriotic' history. It purposefully moves away from parochialism and exceptionalism to develop in learners a global historical consciousness from the vantage point of Africa. This curriculum has been influenced by the UNESCO *General History of Africa* approach to writing history for an independent Africa which is part of the broader process of decolonisation of knowledge across the continent.

UNESCO sets out to construct a history of Africa from the origins of humanity to the era of independence. In Volume I, of this impressive work, *Methodology and African Prehistory*, J. Ki-Zerbo argues:

> It is not our purpose to write a history which will be a mere settling of scores, with colonialist history backfiring on its authors, but rather to change the perspective and revive images which have been forgotten or lost. We must turn once more to science in order to create genuine cultural awareness. We must reconstruct the real course of events. And we must find another mode of discourse.[1]

An African-centred approach makes the effort to explore, use, and exploit various forms of African archives and sources – oral, archaeological, written, visual, linguistic, and landscape – in investigating historical questions about Africa and its interactions with the rest of the world. In addition to recognising a broad range of sources of evidence, it also embraces a wide range of technologies and techniques that are currently used to explore or interrogate material from the past, for example, remote sensing, DNA analysis or chemical analysis of bone and dating techniques.

There is a special place for oral traditions in an African-centred history because these are encoded in African languages and express the idiomatic wisdom and intellectualism of the varieties of people in Africa. Zi-Kerbo expresses the importance of oral forms in a colourful way, stating:

1. J. Ki-Zerbo (ed.), 'Introduction', in *Methodology and African Prehistory: UNESCO General History of Africa*, *Volume 1* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1980), 2.

> Besides the first two sources of African history – written documents and archaeology – oral tradition takes its place as a real living museum, conserver and transmitter of the social and cultural creations stored up by peoples said to have no written records. This spoken history is a very frail thread by which to trace our way back through the dark twists of the labyrinth of time… oral tradition is by far the most intimate of historical sources, the richest, the one which is the fullest of the sap of authenticity.[2]

This curriculum thus draws extensively on traditional indigenous oral forms such as praise poetry, clan praises, idioms, proverbs, folktales and other folklore which act as repositories of history, indigenous knowledge and philosophies. These play a critical role in conveying African interpretations and perspectives of history. They are also important in developing a sense of historical consciousness by conveying the history of pre-colonial pasts to the learner.

African-centredness requires that African languages and their idiomatic expressions be incorporated into the curriculum because they act as important archives of indigenous historical knowledge and memory. As all history requires language skills, the ability to express terms and concepts in a multi-lingual framework enriches and expands the vocabulary of the curriculum. It is especially important where indigenous terms provide more precise conceptual expressions and definitions of historical events and actions. The ability to read and translate African languages, and other languages in general, are critical skills for being able to work with and learn from a range of sources including archival and oral evidence.

Engaging with language as a source of history encourages critical engagement and debate because of how it shifts and changes over time. Language is not seen as a fixed or final arbiter of history but as an opportunity to spark discussion and engagement about the past and the present. In looking at local history, for example, local vernaculars and dialects will emerge through the languages of place names, or words used to describe objects. Place names provide an opportunity to discuss layers of historical meaning and how these change over time. Words can also tell us about relationships in the past, particularly with regard to the trade of goods. Thus, the relationship between various languages provides evidence of the historical process. Multilingualism is thus encouraged in this curriculum.

The curriculum also incorporates the perspectives of previously marginalised historiographies that have not yet been fully appreciated in mainstream academic historiography. Some of this historiography has historically been produced by African writers of the late 19th and early to mid-20th centuries which includes history books, historical novels and plays, poetry and newspaper articles.

Alongside developing knowledge about the past, the new History curriculum intentionally encourages a critical perspective and sets out to instill an analytical approach to working with material from the past and foster an understanding of how and why certain forms of history or representations of the past are constructed and what role they play in public memory.

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2. Ki-Zerbo (ed.), *Methodology and African Prehistory,* 7.

2.2 What is History and what is School History?

In this curriculum, we use the term ‘history’ in its broadest sense. History is not simply ‘the past’, it is the study of the past which involves learning how to think about the past in disciplined ways, and through the application of different disciplinary techniques and perspectives. For example, we have included the work of archaeologists, linguists and oral historians to extend the timeline further back into the past, and to provide the experience of working with a wide range of sources and new technologies. By exploring what happened even further back in time we also hope to develop an appreciation for the African past, for the advancement and innovation that spread to the rest of the world as humans began to move beyond Africa, and for Africa’s part in global expansion prior to the 1500s.

History is a process of enquiry into the past which is open to continuous reassessment, reappraisal and revision. Studying history gives us an understanding of how past human actions affect the present and influence our future. It allows us to evaluate these effects, and their significance, in a range of contexts.

Studying history as a school subject equips learners with knowledge about the past and gives learners the conceptual tools to examine how and why different interpretations of the past have been constructed by archaeologists and historians (historiography). It also enables learners to engage critically with tangible and intangible representations of the past, such as memorials, landscapes and buildings, art, literature, film, music, traditions, performances and games. Learners can explore the perspectives of a broad social spectrum and thereby become more aware of and sensitive to race, class, gender and the voices of ‘ordinary’ people. Through the development of historical thinking skills, learners can analyse critically how and why these representations of the past change over time.

The study of history provides opportunities for learners to develop a historical consciousness through which to orientate themselves in the continuum of human experience and to develop an understanding of how and why human actions have social and environmental consequences.

2.3 Specific Aims of School History

1. To develop an interest in and knowledge of the study of ancient and modern pasts.
2. To develop an understanding of substantive and procedural historical and archaeological concepts.
3. To develop an ability to understand and undertake a process of historical enquiry, which uses a range of archaeological and historical sources as evidence to make knowledgeable claims about the past.
4. To prepare young people for local, regional, continental, global and planetary responsibility.

2.4 Objectives of School History

1. To demonstrate a chronological knowledge and understanding of the past and the forces that shape it.
2. To demonstrate an ability to use different calendars and demonstrate an understanding of ways of measuring time.
3. To demonstrate a critical understanding of how sources and concepts are used to construct historically valid enquiries about the past.
4. To undertake a historical or archaeological enquiry and be able to present the outcomes of the enquiry in logical, well-structured written and oral forms.
5. To explain why events in the past are often interpreted and represented differently and why explanations or interpretations shift over time.
6. To discuss and deliberate different points about past events or processes, on the basis of available evidence.
7. To demonstrate an appreciation that there are multiple ways of relating to the past – including cognitive, emotional, moral, political, material and aesthetic ways of doing so.

2.5 Why Archaeology?

Archaeology is the interpretation of past human societies from the study of the things that people leave behind; archaeologists study human activity across space and through time. Archaeologists do not only examine objects that have been carefully excavated from the ground. They also study sources of evidence found underwater, or above ground. These sources may be tiny or microscopic or they may incorporate an entire landscape. Archaeologists also use written sources to help them with their research.

Studies have shown that learners who are taught using an archaeological method of enquiry that involves fieldwork, excavation, and analysis of artefacts or sources of evidence, are more motivated to learn about the past, and have an improved connection with the past and the present. A more hands-on approach that involves active exploration – such as drawing, measuring, photographing and asking questions – can be coupled with an open, enquiry-based approach that helps to develop critical thinking skills, including observation, analysis, classification, reflection and interpretation. This archaeological method of enquiry encourages and facilitates knowledge production.

Learners working with a wide range of physical remains are also more aware of the biases in the historic record. Knowledge about which materials decay or under what circumstances material is preserved helps the learner recognise that we cannot know everything about the past, and that building and supporting a sound argument often requires multiple lines of evidence.

Archaeology is a multidisciplinary field that combines elements of science, technology and history. For example, archaeochemists use chemistry to analyse bones, archaeozoologists study the animals that people farmed or hunted from the bone remains and consider what those animals might have meant to them, while archaeobotanists focus on changing plant use and environments. Remote sensing technologies enable archaeologists to explore caves, mummies, skulls, or objects without having to open or probe them. LIDAR and remote sensing can also be deployed to expose hidden activities or buildings over large tracts of land. By learning about archaeology, learners can develop an interest in these other areas and possibly be motivated to pursue a variety of career paths.

In short, learners who are taught how to work with physical sources of evidence will understand the human past more easily and with greater enjoyment. They will also begin to appreciate

how knowledge from other disciplines, such as geography, science or biology can be applied to understand the past, and how a wide range of technologies can assist in this endeavour.

2.5.1 Why teach the archaeological past?

Archaeology serves an important historical function because it is one of the only means of examining the past in the early times before written records became available. We are completely dependent, therefore, upon archaeological and oral accounts for our knowledge of past societies that did not leave a written record of events. Archaeological excavation is perhaps the only way of appreciating the long and diverse histories of people who lived thousands of years ago in South Africa and abroad. It also allows learners to explore the deep history of different societies to gain a more diverse perspective on history and of different lifeways, cultural exchanges, and responses.

Possibly the most important reason for teaching the archaeological past in the school history syllabuses is to encourage knowledge and appreciation of Africa's long and rich history: the package of tools, art and innovation that had its roots in Africa and accompanied the movement of early humans out of Africa. Archaeology also gives us an awareness of Africa's early connections to Asia and Europe and the unique and remarkable African societies (Mali, Egypt, Ethiopia, for example) that emerged; and, southern Africa's participation in globalisation and trade within Africa and with the Middle East and Asia through the study of societies, maritime records and trade goods.

Archaeology serves yet another historical purpose. Archaeological research does not only reveal the past for which we have no written records, but it also serves to supplement the written records that are available. However, neither archaeological nor written records can be seen as wholly accurate and providing complete portrayals of life in the past. Historical documents tend to record major events and the lives of prominent people. History is also inherently biased. The personal values and interests of the writer, the social context in which the document is written, and the facts available to the writer at the time all exert an influence on the accuracy and completeness of any historical document. Since archaeological remains are also not a complete record of life in the past, historical and archaeological research can supplement one another for time periods where written documents exist. During the colonial period, a combination of archaeological, oral and written evidence can provide a more holistic picture of the past.

Lastly, because of the long-term perspective that archaeology provides, learners can become mindful of how human actions in the past have created and altered the current environment. This encourages social awareness of their impact on the environment and of the value of protecting and preserving historical sites and landscapes.

2.6 Why make use of Oral History?

Before 1994, the school history curriculum put the experiences and achievements of white people, mainly males, at the centre of the narrative of South Africa. The story began with the arrival of the Dutch traders under Jan van Riebeeck and the establishment of a refreshment station at the Cape of Good Hope in 1652, the British takeover of the Cape Colony and conflicts culminating in the 'Great Trek' into what the settlers imagined was an 'empty' interior, followed by sporadic clashes with African societies and their defeat. The story ended with the National Party's takeover of a minority government and the establishment of the Black national states (also known as Bantustans). All these developments were seen through the eyes of the white people, specifically the Afrikaners. In other words, the Afrikaner nationalist perspective

was the history of South Africa while African perspectives were completely marginalised.

In a context where only written sources were viewed as important building blocks of historical narratives, African perspectives were disregarded because they were deemed inadequately captured in official written sources. Minerals in South Africa, for example, were presented as a 'discovery' made by the white people, and the ensuing developments revolved around industrialisation, especially diamond and then gold mining in the late 19th century, thus disregarding African oral accounts of mining and metallurgy in pre-colonial southern African societies such as those in Phalaborwa, Mapungubwe and Great Zimbabwe.

Even when written records or historiographical interpretations by or about Africans existed (for example, correspondence by literate Africans such as John Langalibalele Dube, Tiyo Soga, and Sol Plaatje, among others), these were simply ignored by those in power. The school history curriculum of the time advanced a version of the past that was based mainly on sources generated by outsiders who were often hostile and prejudiced against African societies, for example, European colonial officials, hunters, travelers, traders, and so forth.

It was inevitable, therefore, that shortly after independence and democracy, the new government felt the school history curriculum needed to be transformed to reflect the multiplicity of perspectives that exist in the country, particularly those of African communities whose perspectives and general well-being had been utterly disregarded during the colonial and apartheid periods. African societies relied heavily on orality; memory was, and in many respects continues to be used as a valuable storage house for valuable historical information.

Through the inclusion of Oral History in the school curriculum, therefore, an opportunity was provided for marginalized communities with few or no written documents (societal groups such as the working class, farm tenants, women, etc.) to have their experience of forced removals, land expropriation and their bitter struggle against apartheid, to be captured in their own voices. The growing emphasis on Oral History in schools and broader society post-1994 was thus based on a genuine effort to recover our silenced voices.

However, the need to take Oral History seriously does not mean that written sources (official correspondence, letters, memoranda, reports compiled by white commissioners, records of court cases, etc.) should be disregarded. The colonial or apartheid archive, read critically, must continue to be taken seriously as a repository of important aspects of our history.

2.6.1 What is Oral History?

The concept of Oral History is used to describe a method that relies largely on oral testimony and oral tradition as forms of historical evidence. It refers to history that is passed down through the generations by word of mouth.

There are two types of oral evidence, namely oral testimony and oral tradition. Each of these calls for an additional explanation.

- Oral testimony is an eyewitness or first-hand account of an event or situation which occurred during the lifetime of the person interviewed. The informant tells a story about themselves, about what he or she has seen, heard, or done in the past.

- Oral tradition refers to stories or narratives which have been handed down by word of mouth from one generation to the next and, unlike oral testimonies, are no longer contemporary. There are many different examples – folktales, genealogies ('who begot whom' in the Old Testament), chiefly genealogies, praise songs of past heroes, etc.

Oral History can be seen as a means of asking, and perhaps answering, the kind of questions

likely to lead to a fuller understanding of the experiences and consciousness of ordinary people.

2.6.2 What makes Oral History different?

The answer to this question is that it tells us not just what people did, but what they wanted to do, what they believed they were doing, and what they now think that they did.[3]

2.6.3 Types of Oral Interviews

Oral history is usually collected through interviews. There are various types of interviews that historians may make use of, and these are discussed briefly below:

- **Life history interview**
  This is an interview conducted with one person focusing on his or her individual life history, or his or her family history. Often the interviewee will talk about parents, siblings and relatives. The idea is to gain a deeper understanding of the individual's life, with information being gathered in chronological order. By focusing on the stories of individuals and their families we can gain a better understanding of the experiences that are often ignored (such as details of the lifestyles of peasants, tenants, farm labourers and women). Broader historical themes that deserve attention include the history of land possession and dispossession, identity and acculturation, and religious affiliation. One of the main strengths of a life history interview is that it has a great capacity to yield unexpected data.

- **Structured interview**
  In a structured interview, the researcher prepares all the questions before the interview and only includes these particular pre-selected questions.

- **Semi-structured interview**
  A semi-structured interview is more open than a standardised questionnaire. A few questions are prepared in advance to steer the interview. The interviewee is allowed to give unrestricted answers and perhaps go off on a tangent into new topics of discussion. The interviewer should then follow up with related questions.

  The limitation of structured and semi-structured interviews is that the interviewer may steer the interviewee away from important areas that might have revealed new data and could also make the interviewee feel that his or her other life experiences are unimportant.

2.7 Conceptual Constructs in History Education

School history involves educating learners about the past and its representation through three

3. A. Portelli, 'Oral History as Genre', in M. Chamberlain and P. Thompson (eds), *Narrative and Genre: Contexts and Types of Communication* (London: Routledge, 1998).

interconnected conceptual constructs of 'history' (historical thinking, historical culture and historical consciousness) which develop intellectual and social competencies and enable learners to orientate themselves in time and place.

2.7.1. Historical thinking

Historical thinking refers to a disciplinary way of thinking about the past. It requires learners to move beyond an uncritical mastery of dates and details, the mere 'facts' about the past, to progress to an understanding of how and why histories are constructed and contested.

Novice historical thinkers or younger learners tend to view history as a single, unchangeable account of the past while more sophisticated historical thinkers demonstrate an understanding of history as a construction, and as a critical interpretation of events in the past (as in a historiography on a certain topic or train of events). This form of disciplinary thinking needs to be taught and nurtured explicitly in learners. Alongside developing their knowledge of events and processes, learners should be given opportunities to *analyse* a variety of historical and archaeological sources from, and accounts of, the past. They should evaluate interpretations and representations of the past created by others, and conduct valid historical enquiries using different source materials, means of investigation or techniques. In addition, discussion, debate and the disciplined use of evidence to defend a line of argument should be incorporated into history lessons, alongside reading and writing, regularly.

2.8 Concepts in History

Concepts are abstract ideas that form the building blocks of a discipline. In History education there are different types of concepts:

> *Substantive concepts* relate to the events (the 'what') of the past. They are used by historians to bind together events within a period, such as the 'Industrial Revolution' the 'Apartheid era' and the 'Cold War'. They also include concepts used to explain historical processes, such as 'nationalism', 'revolution' and 'colonisation'. The meaning and significance of concepts may be interpreted differently depending on their context.
> *Procedural concepts* are meta-concepts which guide and shape the practice of history (the 'how'). They help us construct enquiry questions, and also assist in selecting, organising and evaluating information from and about the past to construct histories. Procedural concepts only become meaningful when we use them to ask questions about the past.

2.8.1 This School History curriculum identifies five core, procedural concepts

a) Time and Chronology

What is 'time'? Many of us take time for granted, we regard it as a natural phenomenon, like gravity. We often forget that time is perceived and communicated through devices that have been invented and introduced by people at different points in history to help organise and coordinate our activities. For example, did you know that standardized time (GMT) was only introduced in South Africa after 8 February 1892, to meet the needs of the railways? Or that GMT stands for Greenwich Mean Time (Greenwich is in London, which tells us something about South Africa's colonial past). Furthermore, do you know that the calendar we use is the Gregorian or Christian calendar, which was introduced in Europe in 1582 CE? This calendar was based on the Julian calendar, adopted by Julius Caesar in 46 BCE.

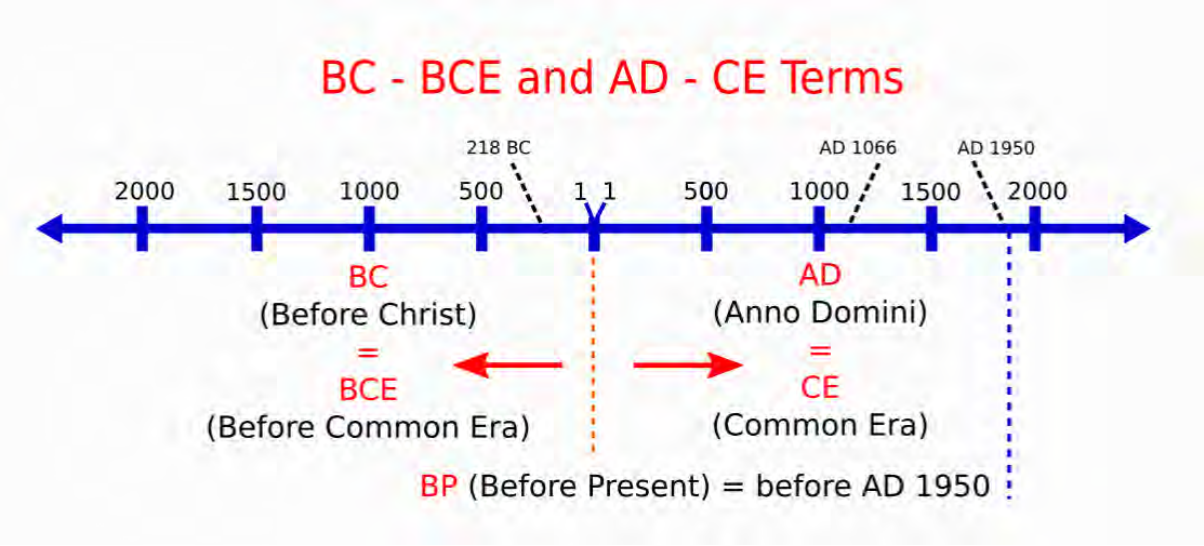
There were other calendars developed and used both earlier and at the same time as these calendars. For example, the Ethiopian calendar is based on the same astronomical calculations that lie behind today's Gregorian calendar. A year in the Ethiopian calendar is 13 months long (12 months of 30 days each and one month of 5 days or 6 days in a leap year). This means that while most Christians celebrate Christmas on the 25 December, Ethiopians and many Orthodox churches celebrate Christmas on 7 January.

In ancient Egypt, the first day of the year coincided with the appearance of Sirius on the eastern horizon just before sunrise and the flooding of the Nile at Memphis. The Zulu people also used the moon and stars to keep track of time. The season of cultivation was announced by the *isilimela*, the star cluster known as the Pleiades. The annual cycle was divided into thirteen phases of the moon, each associated with ecological changes and social activity. The new moon marked the end of the month which often caused those working in the city to become disgruntled when this did not coincide with month-end on the colonial calendar. This tension is evident in the title of the Keletso Atkins book, *The Moon is Dead! Give us Our Money*![4] In other words, the way we measure time is socially constructed. Even our perceptions of time are based on our personal experiences. When we enjoy ourselves, time flies, but a three-hour exam can seem like an eternity! With a global focus on economics and wealth, time is said to be money, and people are unwilling to waste time.

Historians and archaeologists arrange and define past events into periods or blocks of time. This is called ‘periodisation’ and when placed in sequence the periods form a chronology. These blocks of time may be based on features that are considered diagnostic of the particular period (Bronze Age; the Renaissance; the Industrial Revolution etc). Periods can be problematic because sometimes the features are common to more than one period, and often create the impression that history unfolded linearly. Periodisation can be revised to emphasise different aspects of the past. For example, instead of writing about the ‘pre-colonial’ period, historians may refer to the ‘long past’ of southern African history to emphasise that Africa has a far longer history than the short period of European colonisation.

Archaeologists work with different kinds of clocks to measure how much time has passed from the present (years Before Present [BP]). Among the many techniques available, they count tree rings (dendrochronology), and/or use radioactive clocks to calculate how much time has passed basing their calculations on the decay of radioactive isotopes. Radiocarbon or carbon-14 dating is an example of a radiometric clock.

4. K.E. Atkins, *The Moon is Dead! Give Us Our Money! The Cultural Origins of an African* (Portsmouth: Heinemann, 1993).



Examples of enquiry questions on the historical concept of 'time and chronology'

IP: How have the means of transport changed over time? (Gr.5)

SP: How might we periodise the political dynamics of the Cape region c.1500–1850? (Gr.7)

FET: What were the origins of the Cold War? (Gr.12)

b) Historical Significance

Historical significance relates to events, people or processes in the past that have resulted in important changes. The selection of what is considered 'significant' varies over time and place and depends on who is making the choice. Developing as a historical thinker involves learners considering why some events, people or processes are (or were) considered important and selected to be remembered, recognised or recorded, and others were not. It also involves considering why some parts of the past seem to remain significant, while others fade from public knowledge or interest. An example of this could be the changes in the events celebrated as public holidays in South Africa, these have changed across the 19th, 20th and 21st centuries. Significance can also vary in scale, for example sometimes an event is catastrophic and has a global impact (such as the atomic bomb), while at other times the effects are only felt by a single nation, family or person.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'historical significance:

IP: Why is knowledge from sites dating back thousands of years important to South Africa and the world? (Gr.6)

SP: To what extent was education employed as a tool to keep the people in South Africa divided along racial and ethnic lines from the early 1900s to the early 1990s? (Gr.9)

FET: What was so significant about the Haitian Revolution? (Gr.10)

c) Cause and Effect

Historical change is driven by multiple causes and its multiple effects involve individuals or

groups taking action in different contexts. An event or process can be influenced by short-term and long-term causes, and often there is a 'trigger' which may spark an event or action. Historians often debate which one of many causes was more significant than others and what is the compound effect of several causal factors. The outcome of similar causes (such as unemployment, or a harvest failure) is neither predictable nor inevitable because they occur in different contexts. Similarly, the effects of an event or process cannot always be predicted and will impact people and places differently. Just as there are short-term and long-term 'causes', so too will there be short-term and long-term effects. Scale is important to consider because some actions have global impacts while others may have local impacts or may be limited to a specific group of people.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'cause and effect:

IP: What happened when people started to settle in one place, grow their own crops and keep their own livestock in Mesopotamia c.5000 years ago? (Gr. 6)

SP: Explain the possible causes of the Mfecane/Difaqane. (Gr. 8)

FET: Evaluate the social, political, environmental and health impact the Dutch and English voyages of 'discovery' had on Africa and the Americas. (Gr. 11)

d) Continuity and Change

'Continuity', refers to things staying the same while 'change', means alterations from what has gone before. Such change/s may vary in scale, pace and intensity. Both processes are experienced differently by people and importantly, change does not necessarily mean progress. School history often focuses on turning-points and sudden changes in political leadership, such as revolutions, which may bring about significant changes to the social, economic, ideological or political life; however, underlying these changes may be profound structural continuities. Change in the archaeological past may appear to be very slow. Early modern humans appear to use the same tools, for tens of thousands of years, but we need to remember that evidence based on bone, wood and fibre tools, for example, may deteriorate with age and often do not preserve. The absence of these records creates the impression of an unchanging, static past. However, in certain cave sites where preservation is good, archaeologists can still gain a clear picture of change over time; they can detect the first use of body adornment, ochre, and complex tools. This enables them to assess how human behaviour, diet, hunting techniques, health and social systems changed over time.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'change and continuity:

IP: How has the medium of communication changed over time? (Gr. 4)

SP: How did trade centres, routes, goods and local societies change over time? (Gr. 7)

FET: How did the nature and governance of kingdoms change as they become more

centralized? (Gr. 11)

e) The concept of using 'multi-perspectivity and interpretations'

One of the goals of the new History curriculum is to shift the vantage point from which events and processes in the past are viewed, to position the learner in Africa and to view events from the vantage point of Africa. This involves 'de-centring' or 'provincialising' the histories of Europe and the global North. In the past, stories of and about the global North have been the focus of versions of the South African school curricula in terms of content, questions asked, archives consulted and interpretations privileged. Examining multiple perspectives does not mean that all viewpoints are equally valid. Indeed, any knowledge claims made about the past must be supported with evidence.

Working with multi-perspectivity involves:

- Recognising that different perspectives about past events exist and that different people may have understood events or processes differently in the past. (This does not necessarily mean that learners must 'accept' these perspectives).
- Identifying the different interpretations people had of past events at the time they occurred.
- Examining possible reasons why people in the past thought and acted as they did and recognising that they made choices in the context in which they were living.
- Examining the different ways in which historians and archaeologists interpreted and represented the past over time, using the evidence available (as in the relevant historiography). For example, today, working with different technologies and with different sources of evidence, archaeologists and historians can look for evidence to support or refute what earlier historians have written.
- Understanding that historians and archaeologists may ask very different questions about the past (due to their personal interest and curiosity, or the concerns of the time in which they are writing) or focus their enquiries on groups of people who were previously marginalised or unseen.
- Examining how different people today interpret the actions and behaviour of people of the past.
- Examining the different ways in which events or processes in the past have been and are represented. For example, as academic history, art, tradition, orality, music, literature, film, memorials etc.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept 'multiperspectivity and Interpretations:

IP: Why do names of places and landmarks often have a story linked to them – a local legend, or local hero – that might be remembered differently by different groups of people? (Gr. 4)
SP: How have the roles played by different historical personalities/characters in this period been remembered? (Gr. 7)
FET: How have different scholars critiqued claims that 'tribalism' is a defining feature of African societies? (Gr. 10)

2.8.2 Historical Culture

Historical culture refers to 'people's relationships to the past'. It involves the investigation of how people deal with the past, the meanings it is given, and the uses to which 'history' is put in contemporary society. Historical knowledge is constructed in many different spaces outside academic writing and learners need to engage critically with a variety of tangible and intangible representations of the past – for example, social practices and traditions, heritage sites and memorials, art, literature, music, film, social media, gaming, etc.

One very important area of historical culture is heritage. Heritage refers to the cultural, historical, and natural legacy that is passed down from previous generations and chosen to be preserved for future generations. It includes tangible and intangible aspects of that society's past, for example, buildings, monuments, and artefacts, as well as traditions, languages, customs, rituals, knowledge systems, and natural landscapes. Heritage can provide a sense of belonging and continuity by connecting such people to their roots and their shared cultural values. As such, it plays an important role in shaping the identity of individuals, communities, and nations. Heritage and heritage sites have immense educational value and this curriculum encourages teachers to use local examples when constructing classroom enquiries, projects or planning field trips.

The study of historical culture in the school classroom enables learners to ask critical questions about popular representations and the ideological uses of the past, as well as the social consequences of these representations. For example, historical representations can be used for narrow patriotic or more inclusive purposes; they can be used to divide as well as unite certain groups within a society. History can be used to recognise multiple voices from the past, including those which are missing from official histories, or to selectively promote one group. For example, the role played by women and children in past events and processes are often left out of official historical narratives.

Research projects in every grade provide opportunities for History learners to explore how the past is remembered in public and political spaces, by whom and how these representations have changed over time. For example, a heritage project might research changes in South African street names, memorials or public holidays.

Examples of enquiry questions which explore Historical Culture:

IP: Explore whether and why some of the places you know are called something else by local people as different from the official maps (Gr. 4)

SP: Why has June 16 become a public holiday, youth Day' since 1994? (Gr.9)

FET: Evaluate the usefulness and reliability of oral testimonies and traditions captured in written collections of slave narratives for answering questions about the living and working conditions of enslaved people, e.g. Henry Louis Gates Jnr's *Classic Slave Narratives*: *Biographies and Autobiographies of Former Slaves* (1987). (Gr.11)

2.8 3. Historical Consciousness

Historical consciousness is the understanding an individual has of his or her place in time. It is the capacity to meaningfully remember and interpret historical events, their significance and meanings to people over time. Through historical consciousness, a person understands that there is a past, that it shapes the present, and that we too are shaping a future that others will live through. It means that we are conscious of being a part of a much longer story (and many stories therein), a story that neither begins nor ends with us. This speaks of having an awareness of change over time.

In the 2002 *Report of the History & Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education* presented to Minister Kader Asmal, it is recognised that history education is important in the development and refinement of a person's sense of history and historical consciousness:

> … we have to recognise the fact that everyone has a form of historical consciousness. This historical consciousness is not crafted on a blank slate by teachers in schools, or by professional historians in universities. It is created in and by the family, the community, churches, the media and other areas of communication, interacting with individual experience. In this, the value of the formal study of history is that it aims to develop this latent consciousness into a conscious consciousness. To be sure, if the present situation is one in which the formal study of history continues to be either ignored or neglected, there is a real danger of robbing future generations of a sense of how they have come to be what they are.

Through history education of various forms, we develop a more complex consciousness of processes of change. This in turn helps us see the past in its context as well as to exercise informed and complex judgments about this past. A well-developed sense of historical consciousness emerges from a combination of history skills and abilities that reveal how humanity constructs and deploys historical narratives. These skills are gained by engaging actively with history in everyday life as well as through the formal study of the past.

By understanding that we too are historical agents who will be subject to judgments, historical consciousness helps us to develop a humanistic approach to our understanding of historical events even if we did not live through them. It creates the ability to reason empathetically when we think and debate about how and why human beings have acted in certain ways in the past. Empathetic reasoning does not mean that we condone or accept any historical actions, in contrast, it means that we can understand the complex choices faced by people in the past to analyse and judge their actions. By being able to understand the past in context, as well as how human beings connect to each other, and to ourselves, over time, we can make normative judgments and draw moral lessons from history without being superficial and overly simplistic about what has gone before.

Examples of Historical Consciousness in the Curriculum

IP: Between Grade 4 and Grade 6, learners develop the ability to place themselves in a

timeline. This means they are aware that they come at a certain point in a timeline even though they cannot accurately organise timescales or identify specific time periods. They may not be able to represent time correctly with numbers or quantities but they can imagine the idea of 'time before them' or 'long, long ago'.

At this stage, a child can understand that parents, grandparents and other elders come from a time before their existence. They also can imagine that there was a world long ago in which there were legends and mythical or extinct creatures. Clan names (genealogy), folktales (imagined time) and archaeological exploration (material changes) play a critical role in developing this historical consciousness in the learner.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:
Who am I? What are my names and what do they mean? (Gr. 4)

SP: Between Grade 7 and Grade 9 a learner is making connections to his or her place within social and political communities and their identities within a continental and global context. The learner will develop an idea about their national history, and how their particular community situates itself in this history and begins to ask questions about the past and how it connects to the immediate present of their particular community. At this phase, the curriculum shows the inter-connectedness between the national, the continental and the global.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:
What were the responses to and interactions of African societies on the western coastal region and the semi-interior when European merchant traders arrived between the late 1400s and 1650? (Gr. 7)

FET – Between Grade 10 and Grade 12 the learner is maturing cognitively and has begun to develop a strong political sense about their world. The curriculum prompts them to question history, how it is produced and why there are multiple perspectives. Learners will want to draw their own conclusions and make considered judgments about the past. The curriculum aims to provide the learner with the capability to deal with the high level of contentiousness and politics of history within a global context.

For example, the emergence of the Cold War, as well as anti-colonial struggles (including the South African liberation struggle) produced forms of organising, resistance, leadership and geo-political conflict that may seem a world away from learners' sense of the world today. The task of the history curriculum is to orientate learners through this complicated modern period and help them to develop a sense of historical consciousness; to assist them in fitting into these events and how, for example, the current democratic dispensation came about.

A deeper awareness of time is developed through more advanced studying of precolonial topics, and also the important historical events such as the Anglo-Pedi and Anglo-Zulu Wars. The Anglo-Zulu War is particularly of global significance because the 1879 Battle of Isandlwana was a major defeat for the British Empire of that epoch. The war sparked the inspiration and admiration of indigenous resistance worldwide, even in the United Kingdom itself where the Anglo-Zulu War remains an important aspect of heritage. Historical

consciousness means that learners develop more complex frameworks for understanding the global legacies of events that have occurred within South Africa.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:
Do you agree that South Africa has attained political freedom but that economic inequalities have remained unchanged and the struggle continues for economic freedom? (Gr. 12)

How can the different concepts of 'history' (Historical thinking, Historical culture and Historical consciousness) work together in a school classroom?

For example: Make a study of the battle that was fought at the Ncome River ('Blood River') in 1838. Faced with this question, learners might choose to study what happened on the day of the battle through the critical 'reading' of a variety of historical source materials from and about the events of the day. Alternatively, they may decide to study the different interpretations that have been generated by academic and public historians, using historical sources to deliberate on the cause and effect of the battle and to construct a written argument in answer to a historically valid question. This process would develop learners' **historical thinking** skills.

They might also explore the changing significance of the events at the Ncome River in 1838 by studying other forms of tangible and intangible representation and memorialisation. For example, learners might research why this event came to be commemorated as a public holiday on 16 December in the late 19th century, delving into why and when the name of this holiday shifted from Dingaan's Day, the Day of the Vow and the Day of the Covenant, to the Day of Reconciliation. Other learners might elect to examine why different groups in South Africa have commemorated this day, or look at the significance of the ANC's decision to launch its military wing, uMkhonto we Sizwe, on 16 December 1961. They might study artistic, musical, film or social media representations of the battle, or write a critical analysis of the two memorials as heritage sites that have been built on both sides of the Ncome River.

This examination of **historical culture**, and the public uses of the past, develops learners' understanding of the importance of history in society which in turn develops their **historical consciousness**. As they study the presence of the past in the present and engage critically with the multiple forms in which the past is embodied, represented and disseminated, learners can better appreciate the importance of the study of History and begin to construct an understanding of their own place in history, which in turn will inform their sense of possibility for the future. The goal of school History, then, is to provide learners with the disciplinary knowledge, conceptual tools and rich learning opportunities to make sense of their present position in society, through the analysis of various representations of the past, and to imagine possible and different futures.

2.8.4 Historical Sources and Evidence

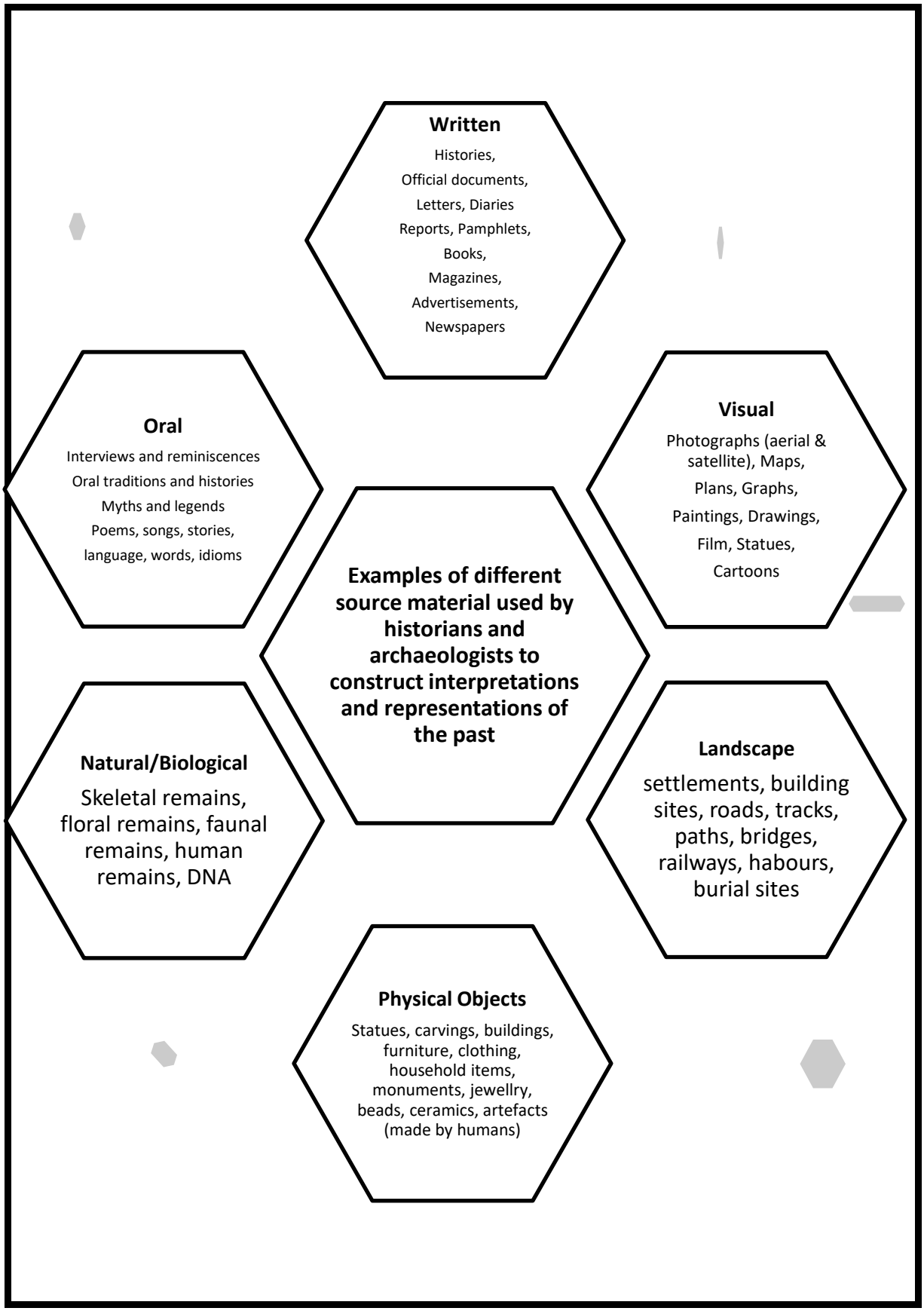
History is not merely 'the past'. History is a version of the past constructed through a process of asking questions about the past and interpreting and evaluating traces or fragments that survive from the past. In school History, we usually refer to these traces or fragments of the past as 'sources'. Historical 'sources' become 'evidence' when they are used to answer questions about the past through a process of enquiry.

Interpretations of the past are arrived at after sifting through all the available evidence. However, these interpretations may differ because the record is incomplete, or the historian has a particular viewpoint or focus that they want to develop (for example, economic or environmental history, the history of medicine, or struggles for equality). Or historians might choose to ask questions and view the sources through a particular theoretical lens (for example, Marxism, Feminism or Pan-Africanism). Historians may ask different questions about the same sources or interpret the same sources differently (this body of historical information is known as historiography). However, historians must always provide the evidence on which their claims are made about the past.

In school History, learners are taught about the past and learn how historical accounts about the past are constructed. By working critically with historical source materials learners then answer questions and develop the skills of thinking, reading and writing 'like a historian'. The process of working critically with historical sources involves identification, classification, selection, extraction, interpretation, analysis, and perspectival recognition, as well as the evaluation of the usefulness or reliability of different sources to answer historical questions.

Over the grades, learners are taught to use the information gained from a range of different historical source materials (examples of which are given in the figure below) as evidence to answer questions about the past. They learn to support a line of argument and to construct substantiated pieces of historical writing, to make oral presentations and to participate in discussions and debates, thereby producing creative representations of past events.

Source materials from the past can take many forms, as illustrated below.



2.8.5 The Process of Enquiry

'History is a process of enquiry'. Central to the process of constructing histories is to ask questions about the past. To answer these questions, historians study what other historians have already written (as featured in the histography), and they also study relics or traces (historical sources) which remain from the past. They analyse, interpret and evaluate these historical sources and use them as evidence to answer their questions about the past – i.e. information from historical sources is used as evidence to support knowledge claims made about the Who2.? What? Where? When? Why? How? What? and the So What? of the past.

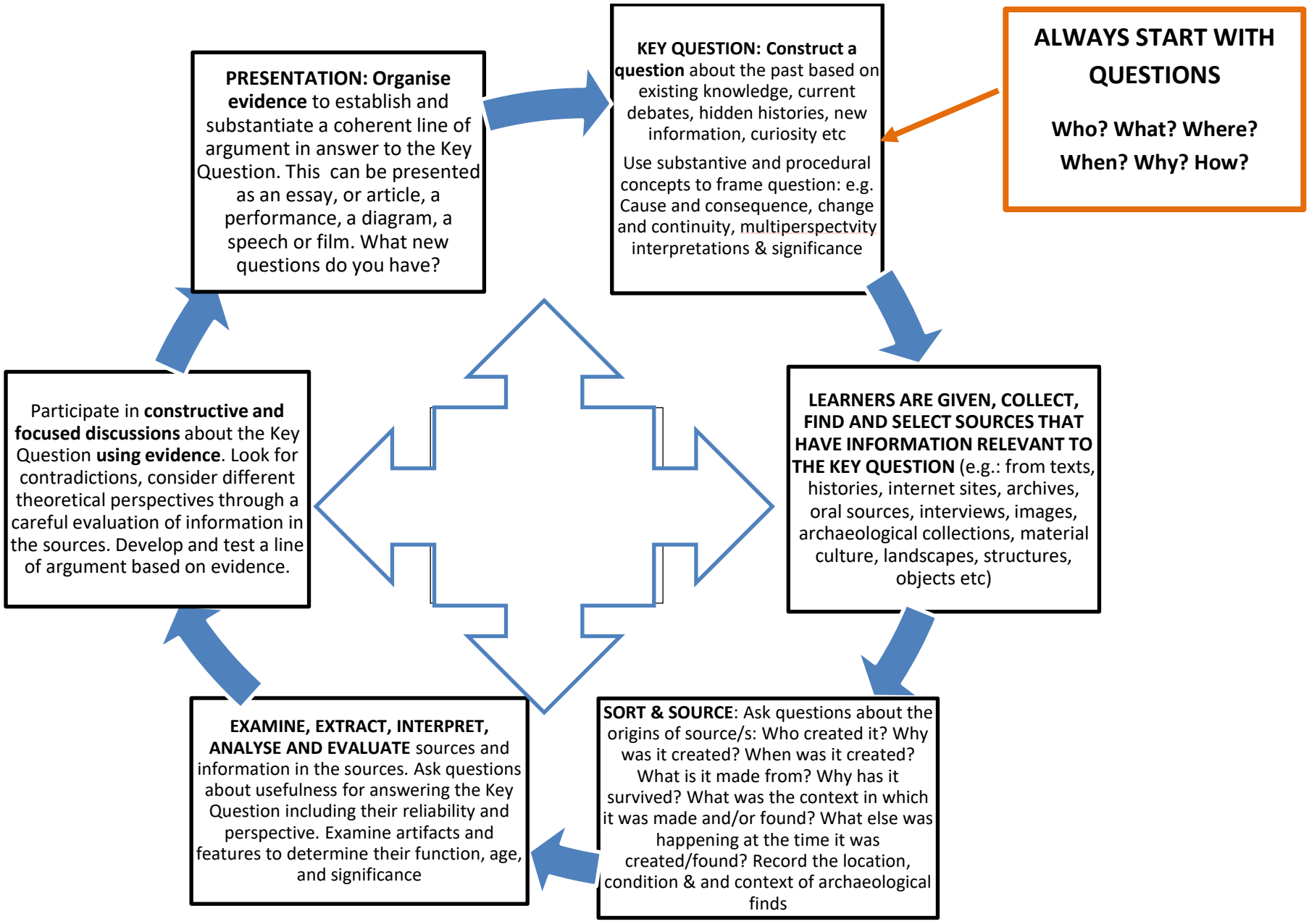
Studying history at school involves hearing and reading stories about the past, but it also involves learning about how those stories were constructed and how they have changed over time. Through explicit teaching, history learners will develop thinking tools to evaluate all historical source material critically, including the different stories that have been constructed about the past (histories).

As academic disciplines, history and archaeology have their methods and procedures. Underpinning both these disciplines is a process of enquiry about the past which always begins, and is driven forward **by asking questions**.

One of the specific aims of the school history curriculum is **'To develop an ability to understand and undertake a process of historical enquiry, which uses a range of archaeological and historical sources as evidence to make knowledgeable claims about the past**'.

To enable learners to develop the competency to undertake a process of enquiry, every topic in the content framework, as outlined in Chapter/Section 3, is organised around a 'Key Question'. The key questions in this curriculum are informed by current debates and interests among academic or public historians. Some are of **local** interest, while others are of **global** interest.

The image below illustrates the enquiry process that learners are guided through over a series of lessons to equip them to answer the overarching Key Question for each topic. Learners will follow a similar process when they conduct their research projects, although the level of support given will be determined by their grade level.


ALWAYS START WITH QUESTIONS
Who? What? Where? When? Why? How?
KEY QUESTION: Construct a question about the past based on existing knowledge, current debates, hidden histories, new information, curiosity etc
Use substantive and procedural concepts to frame question: e.g. Cause and consequence, change and continuity, multiperspectvity interpretations & significance
LEARNERS ARE GIVEN, COLLECT, FIND AND SELECT SOURCES THAT HAVE INFORMATION RELEVANT TO THE KEY QUESTION (e.g.: from texts, histories, internet sites, archives, oral sources, interviews, images, archaeological collections, material culture, landscapes, structures, objects etc)
SORT & SOURCE: Ask questions about the origins of source/s: Who created it? Why was it created? When was it created? What is it made from? Why has it survived? What was the context in which it was made and/or found? What else was happening at the time it was created/found? Record the location, condition & and context of archaeological finds
EXAMINE, EXTRACT, INTERPRET, ANALYSE AND EVALUATE sources and information in the sources. Ask questions about usefulness for answering the Key Question including their reliability and perspective. Examine artifacts and features to determine their function, age, and significance
Participate in constructive and focused discussions about the Key Question using evidence. Look for contradictions, consider different theoretical perspectives through a careful evaluation of information in the sources. Develop and test a line of argument based on evidence.
PRESENTATION: Organise evidence to establish and substantiate a coherent line of argument in answer to the Key Question. This can be presented as an essay, or article, a performance, a diagram, a speech or film. What new questions do you have?

2.8.6 How content, concepts and enquiry work together in the curriculum

One of the main concerns expressed by school history teachers regarding the curriculum is 'content overload'. However, if content is organised into lesson sequences or 'enquiries' which pose and answer the 'Key Questions' that are posed, it is easier for teachers to evaluate the depth at which the curriculum content should be studied. Enquiries may begin with a lesson or two, allowing learners to develop a broad overview of a period or process, after which they may spend a few lessons taking a 'deep dive' into a case study or examining a specific aspect of the topic.

Key Questions are used to provide focus and to frame the content throughout the Curriculum from Grade 4 to Grade 12 for several reasons:

- Questions convey that history is a discipline of enquiry and not just received knowledge
- Historical knowledge is open-ended, debated and changeable
- History lessons should be built around the intrigue of the relevant questions
- Historical research, investigation and interpretation are driven by these questions

The key questions used to frame enquiries and drive them forward should be:

- Interesting (something the learners will enjoy answering)
- Open-ended (not a question that can be answered with a single word)
- Encourage the learners to explore hidden histories and bring to the surface the perspectives or voices of those who have been previously marginalised or silenced.
- Historically relevant (an issue of interest or debate in the historical literature)
- Constructed around substantive and procedural historical concepts

History teachers should plan enquiries that enable their learners to build knowledge systematically and cumulatively to answer historical questions. As noted, each topic in Chapter 3 has at least one overarching 'Key Question' and the content framework is sub-divided into smaller sections which can be organised around sub-questions. The time allocations in the curriculum provide a guide for teachers because they are arranged into weekly, termly and annual teaching plans.

2.8.7 Integration of historical content with concepts in an enquiry process

Each topic has a suggested Key Question. The topic can be further divided into three or four enquiries of four to six lessons, depending on the grade level, and the topics are also organised around a Key Question. These enquiries should be structured using the suggestions given in the text with the opening sentence: 'How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry process?'

For example:

By the end of Term 4 in Grade 6, learners should be able to answer the Key Question: 'What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?' They might answer this question through a piece of writing, an oral presentation, a class discussion, or even the construction of a poster or video. To answer this overarching Key Question for the topic, the 10 hours allocated to History in Term 4 can be divided into three enquiries of 3 hours each. The content and activities in each enquiry will be scaffolded to answer one of the following questions:

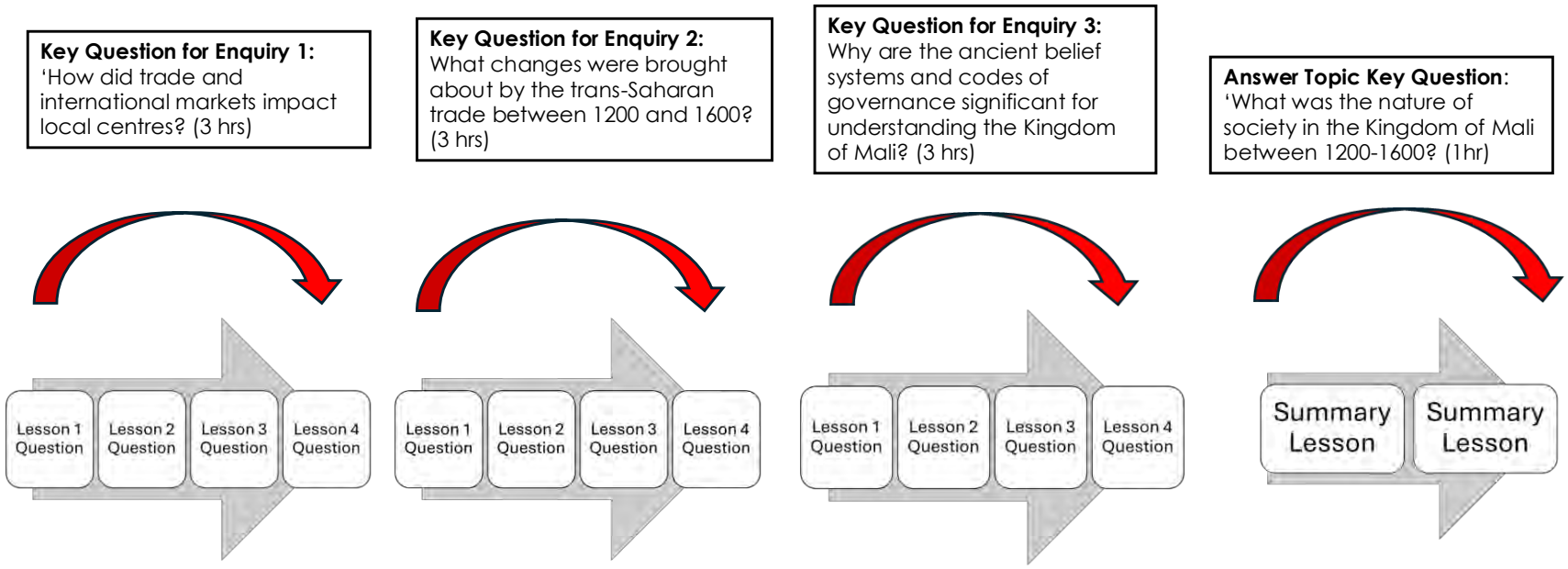
1) 'How did trade and international markets impact local centres?' (3 hours)
2) What changes were brought about by the trans-Saharan trade in the period from 1200 to about 1600? (3 hours)
3) Why are the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (in that particular society) significant for understanding the Kingdom of Mali? (3 hours)

History enquiries should include both direct instruction and guided opportunities for learners to work with a variety of primary and secondary historical and archaeological source materials to find answers to the questions posed.

See for example below:

Grade 6: Term 4	
Topic: : The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu c. 1200- 1600	
Key Question: What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?	**Suggested contact time:** 10 hours
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? Learners will be able to: ● recognise the impact of trade and international markets on local centres (cause and effect) ● consider the changes brought about by the trans-Saharan trade (change and continuity) ● appreciate the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (significance)	

Topic Key Question: What was the Nature of Society in the Kingdom of Mali between 1200 and 1600?



Integration of content with concepts and the enquiry process in FET

Grade 12: Term 1	
Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the Late 19th and 20th Century	
Key Question: How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th century?	**Suggested contact time:** **5 weeks (20 hours)**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand that the mineral revolution and industrialisation which began during the late 19th century were crucial in bringing about British Imperialism and colonisation of South Africa, which laid the seed of both African and Afrikaner nationalism (Time and Chronology) • Recognise that industrialisation, mining capital and British imperialism led to the rise of Afrikaner and African nationalisms as well as workers' consciousness (Cause and Effect) • Assess different interpretations of the impact of British imperialism and industrialisation, e.g. Marxist, Liberal, and Afrikaner nationalist schools of thought, African perspectives (Multiperspectivity) • Recognise that Imperialism and Capitalism changed the nature of economic development in South Africa in which race and nationalism became primary factors. (Change and Continuity) • Recognise the lasting impact of capitalism in the racially-based economic development of South Africa (Significance)	

The overarching Key Question which learners should be able to answer by the end of Term 1 in Grade 12 is, "How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th century?"

Teachers have 5 weeks to introduce content and provide learning opportunities that will enable learners to answer this question. Teachers could organise the content framework into three enquiries of 4-6 lessons in order to answer sub-questions constructed from statements that integrate the content with historical concepts into enquiries. For example:

1. Why did the events and processes which began during the 19th century mineral revolution lay the seeds for both African and Afrikaner nationalism?
2. How have different interpretations explained the significance of the mineral revolution in South African history?
3. What have been the lasting consequences of racial capitalism in South Africa?

2.9 Learning Activities

Lesson sequences should incorporate a range of different pedagogies including direct instruction, structured and guided source-based activities as well as opportunities for oral presentations, class discussions and role-play. Pedagogies selected should be appropriate to context, the content being taught and the age of learner.

Suggestions for activities which could be used as assessment FOR learning activities are given at the end of each topic in Chapter 3. Learners could present their findings to the Key Questions in different forms of writing, as well as classroom discussions, performance, digital, and oral presentations.

Developing a sound knowledge of dates, names, and events is important so that learners can use this information for higher-order analysis and constructing an argument. This may involve quick quizzes or 'memory' work as part of assessment FOR learning. However, tasks such as **multiple-choice questions (MCQs), True/False, Matching columns, etc** should **not** be used for formal assessment OF learning tasks.

2.10 Working with History after school

The new History Curriculum allows ALL learners to learn about history, to learn through history, and to learn from history. In addition to developing specific and specialized historical knowledge, studying history also develops critical reasoning and analytical skills, including the capacity for solving problems and thinking creatively and the ability to ask questions and summarise information from a variety of source materials to construct an argument. History prepares learners to communicate answers to questions clearly and persuasively, in both oral and written forms, using supporting evidence. Studying history also teaches learners to question overly simplistic answers to problems; to grapple with complexity and nuance; and to understand that many different factors influence the actions of individuals and groups in societies. It teaches learners that all these issues change over time and in different contexts.

For learners who develop a special interest in the past and its representations, or who are curious about how the past relates to the present, there are several possible places in which they could work with history, in its broadest meaning, after school. Examples are schools and universities, heritage sites, libraries and archives, museums, and art galleries. Learners with a love of history are also well suited to work in several different sectors, for example, diplomacy, education, journalism and media, the arts and performance, and technology

2.10 TIME ALLOCATION AND WEIGHTING OF TOPICS

The total time allocated for Social Sciences is three hours per week. A term of 10 weeks is therefore allocated 30 hours of contact time. Within this framework. It follows that:

The time allocation for History Is approximately 15 hours per 10-week term.

The time allocation for Geography is approximately 15 hours per 10-week term.

2.11 OVERVIEW OF TOPICS

SUMMARY: CONTENT OVERVIEW HISTORY INTERMEDIATE PHASE			
TERM	**GRADE 4**	**GRADE 5**	**GRADE 6**
1	Personal History	Fire	Evidence for an ancient African past
2	My Community	Metals	Mesopotamia and Fertile Crescent (c 5000 years ago)
3	Our Histories	Food	Egypt (c 3000 years ago)
4	Modes of communication	Transport	The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu (c 1200 - 1600

SUMMARY: CONTENT OVERVIEW HISTORY INTERMEDIATE PHASE			
TERM	**GRADE 7**	**GRADE 8**	**GRADE 9**
1	International Trade between the Southern African Interior and the Eurasian World (800 – 1600 CE)	Mfecane / Difaqane: Indigenous political and military Changes in the Pre-industrial Era 1780s and 1830s	Race and Racism: pseudo-science and the Entrenchment of Social inequalities during the 19th Century
2	Pre-colonial economies of the semi-arid societies from 2500 years ago up to the early 1600s	The Industrial Revolution: Britain	Segregation: The Implementation of segregationist policies in South Africa: Education from the 19th Century to the late 20th Century
3	Colonization, resistance, and social change in the cape region 1650s-1800s	The impact of industrialization in Southern Africa (1860s – 1900s)	Gender and Human Rights: Women, women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910 – 1960
4	African Towns and Cities in the Southern African Interior c1700 – 1820s	South African War to 1910	World War II (1919 – 1945). Second World War and its lasting impact on the international community.

SUMMARY: CONTENT OVERVIEW HISTORY INTERMEDIATE PHASE			
TERM	**GRADE 10**	**GRADE 11**	**GRADE 12**
1	**Topic 1:** Societies of the Wider World – Case Studies of different civilizations Compulsory: Egypt Middle Kingdom and India Mughal Empire Choice: China, South America, Greece	**Topic 1**: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 15th to 18th centuries. Case Study – Spanish and Portuguese	**Topic 1**: The Politics and Economics
	Topic 2: Ancient Ethiopia before 1600 CE and the use of myths and legends in History as Discipline	**Topic 2**: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 16th to the 19th century case study- Dutch and English	**Topic 2**: The National Question in South Africa. The Formation of the National Party, African National Congress, and Communist Party of South Africa in the early 20th century.
2	**Topic 3:** The rise and fall/ decline of Ancient African Empires in History (up to 1500 CE) Case Study: Mali	**Topic 3**: Slavery, Slave Resistance, and Haitian Revolution	**Topic 3:** The Cold War and the Rise of anti-colonial Struggles
			Topic 4: The Era of Liberation struggles and the politics of Apartheid South Africa on the African continent
3	**Topic 4:** Precolonial African Kingdoms and Empires in Southern Africa 1100 CE to 1500 CE Case Study: Great Zimbabwe	**Topic 4**: Political Centralization and the African Kingdom in Southern Africa up to the 19th century. Case studies Bapedi and Zulu Kingdoms	**Topic 5**: The roles of the individual leaders in history during the Apartheid period. Case Studies- Oliver Tambo, PW Botha
	Topic 5: Social, Cultural, and Political Organisation of African Societies since the 1750s Case Study: Sotho, Pedi, Tswana Polities ('Tried, tribalism and ethnicity)	**Topics 5**: The scramble for Africa. Case Study: Belgian Congo	**Topic 6**: The coming of democracy in South Africa and coming to terms with the past.
4	**Topic 6:** Achievements of African People since Ancient Times		

GRADE 4 - 9

Focus :

Grade 4 - Who am I and how do I connect with other people locally, continentally and globally past and present

Grade 5 - What techniques and methods have people developed to live in their environment and how do we know about them?

Grade 6 - What does archaeology tell us about change over time in the ancient world?

Grade 7 - Discuss/find out about South Africa's global networks and internal changes from AD 800

Grade 8 - **19th Century Themes**

Grade 9 Exit Themes

SECTION 3

Grade 4: Term 1	
Topic: Personal history	
Key Question: Who am I?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- understand how objects, text, images can trigger memories (source of evidence)
- provide evidence of how the learners' life has changed over time (change and continuity)
- recognize that events can be ordered and plotted on a timeline (chronology)
- be able to represent their extended family on a family tree (significance)

Overview of Topic

Grade 4 should teach the basics of history by helping students to appreciate change through time from examples in their own lives.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- how timelines work, how the past can be represented in a linear fashion that links the learner to their parents and grandparents (3 hours)
- ways that relationships can be represented in a graphic form (3 hours)
- how objects, pictures, and music can be associated with or come to symbolise people and events (3 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Draw up a timeline. Ask the learner to mark their own and their family members' birthdays, important events, and significant happenings in their lives.
- Draw a family tree to show their family and relations.
- On the family tree use names that capture histories, relationships of respect and family roles – by personal name, surname, clan name, title or family role, nick name etc (e.g. ouma, gogo, makhulu, nkgono, kokoana, rakgadi, malome, uncle, oom, ausi, oupa, tannie, mntwana, lord, king).
- Learners can bring or draw an item that they associate with themselves, with their childhood or people in their community or family to show their history.
- Show how members in their family would have used different items at different times.

Assessment of learning (Formal/ Summative)

Design and present your family tree in the form of a poster (20 marks).

Write a short biographical poem or clan/totem praise poem (5 marks).

Teachers must be sensitive to the different kinds of family structures, children may not be a member of a nuclear family

Grade 4: Term 2

Topic: My community

Key Question:	**Suggested contact time:**
Where do I live now?	**10 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- recognise that a map is a source of historical information about the place that they live (source of evidence)
- understand that names of places and landmarks often have a story linked to them - local legend, local hero - and that things might be remembered differently by different people (multi-perspectivity)
- Identify how the village, town or city in which they live has changed (change and continuity)
- discuss or identify the reasons for the change (cause and effect)
- be able to locate different places on a map (sources)
- recognise regional, national and continental connections through people and their movements over time (time and chronology & change and continuity)

Overview of Topic:

This section should be taught with Geography Term 2 to show that maps capture spatial information and serve as historical documents. Maps visually represent geographical areas and are useful historical sources. You can use a map to locate your neighbourhood, community, town, city or province and place in the world.

Places can be named after people, geographical features, natural features, or historical events. The history of a community can be discovered through asking about the names and the places. Information about the local area can be discovered through oral histories, stories, archives, museums and monuments, pictures, libraries, schools, and government offices. Places also have songs, poems, and books written about them over time. These compositions also capture history that is passed on.

Learners must link up where they live now with other parts of the country and world by exploring beyond their immediate world and mapping connections to family, friends, and community elsewhere. These connections reveal old and new networks and relationships that may extend across provinces, countries, or continents. People relocate for various reasons and may reside in different places over time, facilitating the spread of languages, cultures, beliefs, ideas, and technologies globally.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- a map of the world locating the local area of the school, the province, the country, and the continent

- spatial and geographic awareness by encouraging learners to find out where their family comes from, where relatives or friends live, and to plot these places on a map. Teachers may choose to use immediate family, clan, or extended family networks
  (4 hours)
- how maps capture different information and can be used as a historical resource - places or features in the landscape are named after people and events, and these change over time. Rivers and hills often have events associated with them.
  (3 hours)
- how different places may be experienced and remembered differently by different people at different times– an example could be Robben Island, which would have been experienced very differently by prisoners and tourists.
  (4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding is demonstrated by learners being able to:

- recognise different types of information recorded on maps (dangerous areas, diseases – e.g. malaria areas, vegetation, rivers, roads etc)?
- find why places, like hospitals and airports, and streets have the names they do, and whether these names have changed and why.
- map out connections, current and historical, within South Africa, Africa or across the world. Plot networks of family (clan) and friends, showing how the family has roots or shoots somewhere else.
- Recognise that place names have meanings
- produce an annotated map of places they have lived, and/or where family and friends still live.
- Learner provides a description of places they have lived or where they live based on memories, objects and photographs. This could be an oral presentation or a written paragraph that relates the stories they have captured in their maps.

Assessment of learning (formal/summative) - 3 hours

Mid-year Exam to cover Term 1 and 2

Grade 4: Term 3	
Topic: Our Histories	
Key Question: How can I find out about our past?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- Understand that we can find information about the past from different types of sources (sources of evidence)
- Recognise different types of sources give us different types of information (multi-perspectivity)
- Information about the past is in different languages (multilingual awareness)

Overview of Topic:

In this section, learners are introduced to the idea of sources of evidence. The teacher can explain that there are different ways of finding out information about the past. The teacher can choose whether to use the word 'source' or not. The idea of clan praises and totems is introduced in a basic way using the life of Nelson Mandela. It must be explained that different traditions of surnames tell us something about the past.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

Ways to learn about the past:

- From what is written down
- From stories that people tell us
- From pictures (ancient to modern forms)
- From objects

(4 hours)

From surnames and clan names

- Clan names and praises are called izibongo/diboko
- Clan names can refer to animals, these are known as family totems (Tau, Kwena, Mfene)
- Surnames of people descended from Cape slaves can be a month of the year – e.g. February, Maart, September
- Surnames can refer to a trade of an ancestor- e.g. Smith, Taylor, Carpenter
- Surnames can refer to a region that an ancestor came from (e.g. Esterhuysen mean 'house in the east')
- Sometimes surnames are linked with crests, mottos, and other kinds of symbols
- There are many other family naming traditions from many parts of the world

(4 hours)

- Life story of the late President Nelson Mandela and his different names

- Who was Nelson Mandela? What role did he play in South African history?
- Nelson Mandela had several names: Rolihlahla (birth name), Mandela (surname), Madiba, Yem-yem (clan names), and Dalibhunga (initiation name), Nelson (school name)

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding is demonstrated by learners being able to:

Assessment of learning (formal/summative) - 3 hours

Research Project: Research to find out where your family or relatives come from. (25 marks).

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Grade 4: Term 4</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Topic: Modes of Communication</th></tr>
<tr><td>Key Question:
How do people communicate?
How has the medium of communication changed over time?</td><td>Suggested contact time:
10 hours</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?
The learner should:
recognise that information about the past can be captured in stories, poems, songs, art and performance; writing did not always exist (sources of evidence)
understand that we communicate through many different media today and old forms of performance have become popular again through social media (change and continuity)
recognise that information about the past are recorded in different ways (from rock art to digital database (sources of evidence)
discuss how systems of communication have changed and have had an impact on how we work and relate to one another (cause and effect)
establish the value of early sources, and the importance of protecting and recording rock art, and oral traditions (significance)</td></tr>
</table>

Overview of Topic:

This section will explore different ways of communicating, and how mediums of communication have changed over time. Communication is crucial for human survival and development, serving to transmit information, share knowledge, and convey needs. The quest for accurate and timely information exchange has driven human innovation throughout history, leading to the creation of various communication tools.

The teacher should introduce storytelling, art, song, dance, and playing instruments as some of the earliest and enduring forms of human communication. For thousands of years, humans have used marks, symbols, and art on rocks and cave walls to transmit information. Visual signals like hand gestures, facial expressions, attire, or smoke signals, along with auditory messages through calls, cries, or instruments such as pipes, whistles, drums, and horns, have been common communication methods in societies.

Writing emerged over 5000 years ago primarily for recording trade and exchange. Initially, it was limited to elite classes like scribes, priests, and royal messengers who wrote on tablets, parchments, and steles. Empires required efficient communication across vast distances, leading to the development of road networks. Messengers were dispatched to convey verbal and written messages throughout the empire.

By the 1600s, the Gutenberg printing press enabled mass production of reading material, reflecting the spread of literacy among the public. During the 1800s, communication methods were revolutionised with inventions like Morse Code and the telegraph in the 1830s, followed by the telephone in 1876. In the 1900s, technological innovations, along with advancements in transportation systems, led to the widespread adoption of national postal systems and telecommunications. Today, the digital age has brought about computational and networking advancements, resulting in satellite systems, the internet, cellular telephones, and AI.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

The earliest to modern forms:

- art and architecture – from earliest rock art to modern art
- body markings - people used colour on their bodies (e.g. ochre to paint their bodies) and whether this is different from the makeup and tattoos people choose to place on their bodies today.
- Symbols - like flags

(3 hours)

- Storytellers and messengers
- music, instruments, drums, dance, and performance

(3 hours)

- technologies used for communication.

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- List the ways that language and signs would have helped people in the past to plan and work together, and how storytelling (poems and songs) helps to pass knowledge from one generation to the next
- Identify different animals, objects, and people in rock art. Reflect on whether the people depicted in art look real or are part of a ritual or mythical world.
- Tell a story about changes in technologies through presentation or performance.
- Draw a timeline showing changes in writing and printing technology.

Assessment of learning(formal/summative)

End-of-year Exam to cover Terms 3 and 4

Grade 5: Term 1	
Topic: Fire	
Key Question: What was the role of fire in the development of societies?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

Learner should:

- consider evidence for the ability to make and control the use of fire (sources of evidence)
- appreciate all the things that the controlled use of fire has allowed humans to achieve (change and continuity)
- examine how being able to control fire changed the lives of humans (cause and effect)
- consider how different people may think about fire differently and why (multi-perspectivity)
- understand why people across the world have stories about fire (significance)

Overview of Topic:

This term focuses on the history of human use of fire and how being able to control fire changed human society and allowed them to become more inventive. In South Africa we have evidence for the longstanding use of fire by early human societies. Archaeological sites dating back to 1 million years show evidence of burnt bone. Over time humans developed various techniques for making and controlling fire, and this has been pivotal in shaping human lifestyles. Fire has enabled humans to cook their food, alter their natural environment, survive harsh climates and make strong tools from wood, stone and metal. Additionally, it has facilitated the creation of electricity, steam and combustion engines. Fire has empowered humans to inhabit and thrive in almost all the regions in the world, regardless of climate or vegetation. Human have been fascinated by fire and have developed scientific understanding, as well as cultural practices and mythical beliefs about it.

Fire plays an important role in human cultural history. We tell stories around the fire, and we have many stories, proverbs, and myths on fire. Fire plays a symbolic role in our cultures particularly in ceremonies and rituals. Myths, legends and folktales about fire are found across the world. Exploring different fire myths reveals the shared fascination with this element.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- **the sources of evidence for different ways of making fire.**
  From the first use of fire, which dates to 1 million years ago. Evidence has been found at the site of Swartkrans, in the Cradle of Humankind, Gauteng.

  Matches did not always exist, and the learner should consider indigenous ways of making fire - using a flint, fire sticks (e.g. go tshekga mollo (Sepedi), kuphehla luvatsi (Siswati (iziko). Draw on information from cave sites with fireplaces (hearths), like Elands Bay (west coast), Klasies River Mouth, Blombos (east coast), Cave of Hearths (Makapans Valley, Limpopo), Rose Cottage Cave (Free State), Sibudu (KZN).

  (3 hours)

- **myths, beliefs, and cultural practices**
  Fire holds significance in many cultures. These myths, beliefs, and cultural practices underscore fire's dual nature as both dangerous and indispensable. These myths often involve characters who steal fire to enhance their power. For example, in southern African

Nama mythology, fire is stolen, and according to Greek mythology Prometheus stole fire from the gods and gave it to humans. Look for examples from across Africa, use languages other than English where relevant and possible. For example, in traditional Pedi royal life, there is the gendered practice of *setima mollo* associated with the principal royal wife. The teacher should use the opportunity to discuss why these myths, beliefs or practices exist and what function they fulfilled.

(2 hours)

- **how fire changed the lives of humans** (protection, warmth, social gatherings, cooking, dancing) harnessing energy from fire – show how humans use fire to create steam, smelt metals to make implements, electricity, power engines, use fire for weapons from flint guns to nuclear bombs and going to the moon
  (3 hours)

- **the good and bad aspects of fire**, and how different people may view fire differently – destroys, sterilises, burns. Fire safety and prevention.
  (2 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- identify evidence for fire use in the past, and being able to tell whether the fire was controlled or not
- recognise how fire can be used to cook, protect people, and provide light, also how it can be used to create steam, smelt metals and make guns and rockets
- express how fire can be both good and bad, and why myths and tales about fire are valuable.
- describe some of the changes that the ability to make and control fire brought to societies, for example, how food changed from being raw to cooked, water to steam, cold to warmth, wood to charcoal, using fire for protection, or medicinal purposes. Learners should refer to the archaeological evidence of these changes.

Assessment of Learning (formal/ Summative) (3 hours)

Standardized Test: Source-based questions (25 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)

Grade 5: Term 2	
Topic: Metals	
Key Question: When and how was metal used by society?	**Suggested contact time:** **10 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- appreciate important human innovation and how archaeologists recognise change in the past (time and chronology & sources of evidence)
- understand the important changes that the discovery of metal brought about (cause and effect)
- appreciate that mining and metal working were part of African life and trade long before the arrival of Europeans (significance)
- recognise the damage that mining, smelting and smithing can cause to the environment and to the health of miners (cause and consequence)
- understand that some metals have cultural value (significance)

Overview of Topic

This term focuses on the earliest evidence of metal use by societies, where it's been found, and the societal changes it brought. Initially, copper pebbles were shaped into beads, but around 6000 years ago (4000 BCE), fire was used to smelt and shape softer metals like copper and tin. Improved heat control led to the extraction of metals like iron from rocks. Over time, humans produced both pure metals and alloys, to enhance strength and malleability. Bronze, an alloy of copper and tin, revolutionized tool-making and warfare around 3000 BCE. Iron, the most valuable metal, offered military and agricultural advantages, while precious metals like gold and silver served as currencies and symbols of wealth in ancient economies. Gold mining, spanning over 6000 years in Africa, played a pivotal role in economies, notably in regions like ancient Egypt, West Africa, and Nubia. Southern Africa, particularly Mpumalanga and Limpopo provinces, boasts extensive evidence of precolonial mining of iron, tin, copper, and gold. Indigenous clans, such as the amaQocwa clans in the Eastern Cape, are associated with metal-making, evidenced in oral traditions like songs, proverbs, and praise poetry.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the evolution of tools from the archaeological record – stone, bone and wood to metal.
- **evidence** for early mining, metal smelting, and smithing in South Africa that dates back to 400 CE (tin, copper, iron & gold). Compare the early smelting technology to today's methods
- oral sources of evidence about metals and smelting. Historically many groups in South Africa were associated with metalworking or mining, and different songs were sung by miners and smelters

(4 hours)

- why some metals are considered more valuable than others (silver and gold). There are many **myths and legends** about gold (e.g. King Midas) and its symbolic and cultural worth. Consider why gold is used to coat royal and religious insignia and in wedding rings and jewelry – consider the golden rhino, staff, and bowl found in graves at Mapungubwe.
- What changes did metals bring about to society? For example, how the use of iron implements (hoes) allows people to start farming crops, weapons (arrowheads, spears)

(4 hours)

- The **impact** that mining and smelting have on the environment – using charcoal made from wood to smelt and smith would have impacted on the woody environment, while the use of fossil fuels (coal), and mining for minerals and metals denudes the landscape and creates air pollution, AMD, dumps, dust etc.

(2 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding is demonstrated by learners being able to:

- draw a timeline showing changes in tool use and technology
- list the evidence for metal smelting found by archaeologists
- describe how metal was smelted, and what the oral history and songs can tell us about who took part in the production of and shaping of metal.
- explain the functional importance of metal and the linked advances vs symbolic value of metals.
- show awareness of the environmental damage caused by mining.

Assessment of learning (formal/summative) (3 hours)

Mid-year exam to cover Term 1 and 2

Grade 5: Term 3	
Topic: Food	
Key Question: How do we know what people ate in the past? How did they prepare and eat their food?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- know how to reconstruct diet from archaeological evidence (sources of evidence)
- understand what foods have spread globally (cause and effect)
- appreciate why there are rules about food and food sharing (multi-perspectivity)
- appreciate how people creatively combine foods and spices that have created the variety of dishes we eat today (change and continuity).

Overview of Topic

This term explores how archaeologists and historians reconstruct the diets of ancient people and examines the myths and legends surrounding food. A key focus is on what kinds of food tell us about people in the past, and how different foods have moved around the world. Given that food is essential for human survival, people have developed skills to acquire, produce, and store food. Knowledge about food production and storage has also shaped societies' rules, beliefs, rituals and practices. The way in which food is shared reflects societal values and power dynamics. Food can be used to make people feel welcome and part of a group, and it can also be used to exclude and punish. Folktales, proverbs, songs and myths from Africa and beyond offer insights into changing attitudes towards food. Southern African folktales, in particular, reveal how people adapted their environment and utilised local resources for survival. These tales often feature themes of trickery, foolishness, laziness and intelligence. Common figures in these are humanlike-spirit hero Heiseb/ Haitsi-aibib within Khoekhoe mythology, as well as the hare and jackal as trickster animals.

The teacher should introduce:

- The kinds of **evidence** and research techniques used by archaeologists to reconstruct diets from the past.
    - by studying and identifying the remains of food:
        - Animal Bones: Identifying different species of animals, both wild and domesticated, to determine the types of meat consumed.
        - Shells: Analysing shells, such from sea and land, to understand dietary diversity.
        - Seeds or Charcoal: Examining seeds or charcoal from cooking fires to identify plant-based foods.
        - Preserved Human Remains: Studying food remains found in the gut of ancient humans like icemen, mummies, or bog bodies.
        - Coprolites: Analysing fossilized faeces to gain direct evidence of ancient diets.
    - Hunting - examples from archaeological sites in southern Africa provide evidence of evidence of early fishing techniques (fish traps, barbs and hooks), land hunting with spears, trapping and other techniques
    - Farming – how people have farmed the land sustainably in the African past, indigenous land preparation and farming methods
- Implements for preparation and serving of food. Teachers should draw on indigenous knowledge of different implements – grindstones, winnowing baskets, itshe lokugaya, tšhilo, calabash bowls and spoons, clay pots, dinkgo, wooden stamper, beer pots, kgapa, motšega, milk pots, wooden meat platters. Researchers extract fats, oils or starch residues from the inside of pots to understand how they were used, and what types of food they contained.

(4 hours).

- **Myths, beliefs, and rules about food** :
- social and spiritual significance of certain foods.
- rules about traditional sharing foods.
- taboo foods
- folktales about gluttony, famine, and trickery used to access food. Explore in languages other than English.

(4 hours)

- Show how many foods or dishes we eat today had their roots in other parts of the world (**global spread of food**), and how and when they arrived in South Africa. Think about dishes considered typically South African. Where and how did the ingredients get to South Africa, consider for example maize.

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding is demonstrated by learners being able to:

- explain how archaeologists identify and archaeological evidence for food remains
- identify the message in stories told about gluttony or food-sharing
- map out where different ingredients come from and create a timeline for arrival in South Africa
- take a meal that is eaten regularly and unpack where the ingredients come from and how it is eaten
- Write a short piece about the history of one type of food, when and how it is eaten, e.g. maize

Assessment of learning (Formal/Summative) 3 hours

Research project: Research and write a short piece about the history of one type of food, how it is eaten, and events when it is normally cooked

Grade 5: Term 4	
Topic: Transport	
Key Question: How have the means of transport changed over time?	**Suggested contact time:** **10 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- recognise how travel and transport have changed over time (change and continuity)
- appreciate the changes this would have made to people's lives (cause and effect)
- recognise that not everyone would have seen or appreciated these new inventions in the same way (multi-perspectivity).

Overview of Topic:

This term focuses on developing an understanding of various means of travel, their evolution, advantages and disadvantages. Walking, the most common form of transport for early and modern humans, remains significant worldwide. Over millennia, humans have devised efficient methods to cover long distances, cross different geographical terrains, and transport goods. Various modes of transport include canoes, sleds, ships, and domesticated animals like horses, oxen, dogs, and camels. Innovations like wheels, axles, and pulling mechanisms greatly improved transportation. Improved transportation facilitated trade and production, contributing to the rise of powerful kingdoms and empires. Control over trade routes became a symbol of political and economic power. Transportation has facilitated the movement of people, animals, ideas, and goods worldwide, fostering cultural exchange but also spreading disease, conflict, and war. In the past two centuries, industrialisation revolutionised transport with inventions like the steam engine, car engine, and airplanes. Today, extensive global travel is possible, raising concerns about global warming due to fossil fuel use in our transport systems.

Focus:

The teacher should introduce:

- the history of different modes of transport over land and sea– walking, animals, carts, bicycles, cars, ships, trains, planes
- what the earliest examples looked like and how they worked

(4 hours)

- **myths, legends** and early depictions of means of transport. For example, what South African myths and legends are told about people coming from the sea or about shipwrecks? Look at the rock paintings of ships painted by the Khoe and San in South Africa, and horses, cars and planes). Consider how trains impacted the lives of rural South Africans when they took young men away to work on mines. Stories about trains are also captured in the rock art of Makgabeng, here the train and railway line that took Khosi Maleboho to prison in Pretoria is depicted

(3 hours).

- the impact of travel on society, and the changes that are brought for **good and bad**. Mass transportation makes people unhealthy and contributes to global warming and environmental change (habitat destruction). Meet new people, and obtain new ideas and resources, but can spread diseases & cause wars and slavery (bubonic plague, smallpox, Covid-19)

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- list different modes of transport
- describe the evidence for early examples of different modes of transport
- show how some modes have evolved over time
- give examples of how transport has changed society for good or bad

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

End of year exam to cover Term 3 and 4

Grade 6: Term 1	
Topic: Evidence for an ancient African past	
Key Questions: What is archaeology? How do archaeologists work? What can archaeological sites and material evidence tell us about how people lived thousands of years ago?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- understand how archaeologists work (skills and techniques)
- what evidence has been found from sites dating back thousands of years (sources of evidence)
- why this knowledge is important to South Africa and the world (significance)

Overview of Topic

Archaeologists are historians who work with a broader range of evidence and knowledge. Their extensive use of tools and technology allows them to explore the deeper past, beyond the reach of historians who rely on written records. This term focuses on understanding some of the methods archaeologists use and the inferences they can draw from various types of evidence about how people lived thousands of years ago. The primary emphasis will be on evidence from Middle and Later Stone Age sites, dating from approximately 100,000 to 2,000 years ago.

This extensive period covers several significant developments, including:

- The migration of early *Homo sapiens* out of Africa.
- The earliest evidence for art and decoration.
- The use of complex tools and advanced hunting techniques.

Additionally, it is during this period that all other hominins (e.g., *Homo neanderthalensis, H. denisova, H. floresiensis, H. naledi*) go extinct alongside many different species of animal and plants.

Humans during the MSA and LSA in South Africa were innovative and creative, much like people today.

- **Tools:** Stone tools change and become more complex over time
- **Personal Decoration and Body Paint**: They adorned themselves with shell necklaces and used ochre, either as body paint or to repel mosquitoes. Fashioned clothing and bags out of skin (earliest evidence of shells and art Blombos Cave, WC).
- **Musical instruments and art**: There are early musical instruments at Klasies and Matjes River, and rock art provides insight into mythical worlds and ritual.
- **Hunting Techniques**: Using spears required cooperation and a deep understanding of animal behaviour. Later, the use of poison arrows indicated knowledge of poisons and the skill to track animals over long distances.
- **Botanical Knowledge**: They had extensive knowledge of plants and their medicinal properties. They knew which plants could be used to create comfortable bedding (Sibudu Cave, KZN).
- **Storage**: they used and decorated ostrich eggshells to contain and store water (Klipdrift Shelter)

- **Counting**: They used counting sticks to mark time, potentially tracking months or seasons.
- **Nomadic Lifestyle**: They did not settle in one place permanently but moved with the animals and according to the seasonal availability of plant and marine food. This mobility also allowed them to meet other groups, exchange gifts, and form new partnerships.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the different techniques that archaeologists use to carry out their work. This will include excavation, recording, laboratory analysis, study of rock art, and ethnographic material in archives.
- the archaeological timeline and how it differs from the timeline based on the calendar i.e. the difference between measuring time before present (BP) and on a BCE/CE. Discuss basic dating techniques – relative (e.g. stratigraphy) & radiometric dating (e.g. carbon dating).
- technological changes that occur over this period, and what this tells us about human behaviour

(5 hours)

- preservation and why some things (artefacts) preserve, and others don't (organic vs inorganic), and how that may change an interpretation
- sources of evidence (archaeological and archival) for tool use, decoration, food, music, and ritual.

(5 hours)

- the importance of studying the southern African past insofar as the evidence shows that modern humans originated in Africa and their ideas and innovations spread from Africa to the rest of the world
- Archaeology as a career

(2 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- describe or demonstrate how archaeologists excavate and the different ways that archaeologists interpret things.
- explain that archaeologists work with a record that is biased toward material that preserves
- list some of the things (artefacts) that have been found by archaeologists at early sites in South Africa and how tools and other remains change over time.
- represent change overtime on a timeline. Show how dating from the present (BP) differs from calendar dates
- explain what the artefacts can tell us about how people lived in the past
- discuss the importance of at least four finds from cave sites in South Africa

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

Standardized Test: Source-based questions (35 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)

Grade 6: Term 2	
Topic: **Mesopotamia and the fertile crescent (c. 5000 years ago)**	
Key Question: What happens when people start to settle in one place, grow their crops, and keep their livestock?	**Suggested contact time:** **10 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

Learner should:

- appreciate the impact of domesticating plants and animals and settling in one place (change and continuity)
- recognise how bureaucracy accompanies the growth of cities and markets, and the need to record transactions and taxes (cause and effect)
- understand how new belief systems emerge to justify the new way of life, and to transfer power to kings and priests (significance, change, and continuity)

Overview of Topic

The focus of this term is on the changes brought about when societies began to settle in one place, invest in farming the land, develop surplus for exchange, and keep records. The archaeology of the Middle East and Mesopotamia is important here, as it is in this area that we have the earliest evidence for the domestication of crops and livestock. There is also evidence for the rise of markets and the earliest recording of transactions on clay tablets.

During the fourth millennium BCE, as political power became centralized in early Mesopotamian cities, new beliefs emerged. People worshiped powers linked to forces of nature. Deities were mostly connected to fertility and reproduction cycles.

In the third millennium BCE, wars and raids by warlords became an added threat to survival, particularly during times of famine. As a result, walled cities and security became crucial. Kingship, initially a temporary office, became permanent as the need for protection increased. Trust in the king as protector of the walled city, along with the help of armies, meant that power became concentrated in the person of the king. This new concept of ruler and class differentiation was replicated in their belief system, with the king becoming godlike and considered sacred.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Mesopotamia, geographically and discuss what has been discovered and why the earliest agricultural settlement occurred along or between rivers.
- the evidence for domestication of grain, animals, the growth of cities, craft specialisation, markets. Uruk can be used as an example to show how cities formed, why they were surrounded by high walls, temples and palaces, how armies and kings came into being and how they took control over cities
- how hazards like disease, drought and insects caused starvation, poverty and violence.

(5 hours)

- the beliefs and values of the Ancient Mesopotamian people interpreted from the tombs of Ur filled with wealth and retainers who died to accompany the king into the next life.
- the earliest writing and recorded story – the Epic of Gilgamesh recorded in cuneiform, other records of trade and the earliest Code of Laws set out by Hammurabi.

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- perceive the role of rivers in early farming
- explain why the domestication of plants and animals lead to the growth of cities
- recognise the significance of economic surplus - how some people become rich and claim to be more important than others and why armies are needed to protect the city
- name the first form of writing and what it was used to document

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

Mid-year exam to cover Term 1 and 2

Grade 6: Term 3	
Topic: Egypt (c. 3000 years ago)	
Key Question: What was the nature of Ancient Egyptian Society?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- appreciate the role of the Nile and seasonal flooding on agriculture (cause and effect)
- recognise developments in writing, the first use of paper, medicine, mathematics (change and continuity)
- understand what new belief systems emerge to justify this way of life, to ensure the power of pharaohs and priests (change and continuity)

Overview of Topic

The ancient Egyptians produced a vast body of written records, which included instructional texts and epic stories. They demonstrated a sophisticated understanding of anatomy, mathematics, and the principles of architecture. Their sculptures, paintings, mummies, and funerary architecture – death masks & sarcophagi – still fascinate people today. The Nile was key for agriculture and served as a way for people to travel and move resources. In addition, the Nile's rapids, or cataracts, prevented hostile attacks from the south.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Ancient Egypt, its location in the desert along the Nile, and the importance of seasonal flooding and irrigation for agriculture.
- architecture, for example, pyramids, temples, and the Sphinx

(4 hours)

- the tomb and mummy of King Tutankhamen as a way of exploring the technologies, paper, writing, boats, furniture, and belief systems of the Egyptians. Note: the process of mummification indicates knowledge of preservation and the human body and tells us about their belief systems.

(5 hours)

- one of the most successful female pharaohs, like Hatshepsut.

(2 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- explain why Egypt was able to flourish thousands of years ago
- interpret evidence from tombs and temples about the ancient Egyptian way of life
- make a presentation on any aspect of science, technology or writing practised by the ancient Egyptians
- explain the role of the Nile River
- reflect how knowledge of anatomy was linked to religious practices
- consider how images, statues, tombs and temples reflected the power of the leaders

Formal assessment (formal/summative)

Research Project: Research the role of the Nile River.

Grade 6: Term 4	
Topic: : The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu c. 1200- 1600	
Key Question: What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?	**Suggested contact time:** **10 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

Learners will be able to:

- recognise the impact of trade and international markets on local centres (cause and effect)
- consider the changes brought about by the trans-Saharan trade (change and continuity)
- appreciate the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (significance)

Overview of Topic

The Mali Empire controlled all the trade routes and was the second largest and most successful empire between 1230 and 1600. The Empire offered protection against conflict along the trade routes, offering a secure means of trading salt, cotton cloth, and gold or cowrie shells, which were used later as currency. The Great Mosque of Djenne became an important symbol of power. Mansa Musa was one of the most successful and wealthy leaders of the Kingdom of Mali. He ruled in the early 1300s until his death in 1337. Many of the palaces and Mosques built during his reign can still be seen today. From the 1300s to the 1600s, Timbuktu was considered the world's centre of Islam and a centre of learning. The great mosque of Sankore was transformed into the University of Sankore, and the subjects covered included Islamic theology, mathematics, law, geography, astronomy, medicine, sciences and history.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- spread of Islam across North Africa and into West Africa via traders from the 9th century
- trade across the Sahara Desert by means of camels and the goods exchanged - including salt brought from Europe and North Africa into Mali where it was exchanged for gold, slaves, ivory and ostrich feathers
- the construction in the 13th century of the Great Mosque in the city of Djenne

(4 hours)

- Mali at the height of its power under Mansa Musa early 14th century
- Mansa Musa's pilgrimage to Mecca
- the city of Timbuktu as a trade centre, and a centre for learning

(4 hours)

- Timbuktu Manuscripts Project and South African collaboration and why Timbuktu is a World Heritage Site

(2 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- explain why Mali flourished between the 1200 CE and 1600 CE
- present aspects of life and travel described by the early Islamic traders
- explain why the Great Mosque was built, and what it is built out of
- provide a profile of Mansa Musa
- define World Heritage and Timbuktu's importance to the world

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

End of year exam to cover Term 3 and 4

CHAPTER 4: ASSESSMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Assessment is a continuous, planned process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information regarding the performance of learners. It involves four steps: generating and collecting evidence of achievement, evaluating this evidence, recording the findings and using this information to understand and thereby assist the learner's development, to improve the process of learning and teaching.

All assessment tasks should reflect adequate curriculum coverage in terms of content, concepts and skills at grade-appropriate cognitive levels and should be appropriate for learners' age and developmental level. In assessing subject knowledge, teachers will evaluate the learner's ability to achieve the aims and demonstrate the disciplinary skills and conceptual understanding of each subject as outlined in Section 2 of the document. To enable learners to achieve and demonstrate disciplinary skills, they must have a full grasp and understanding of the content and concepts outlined in Section 3 of the document.

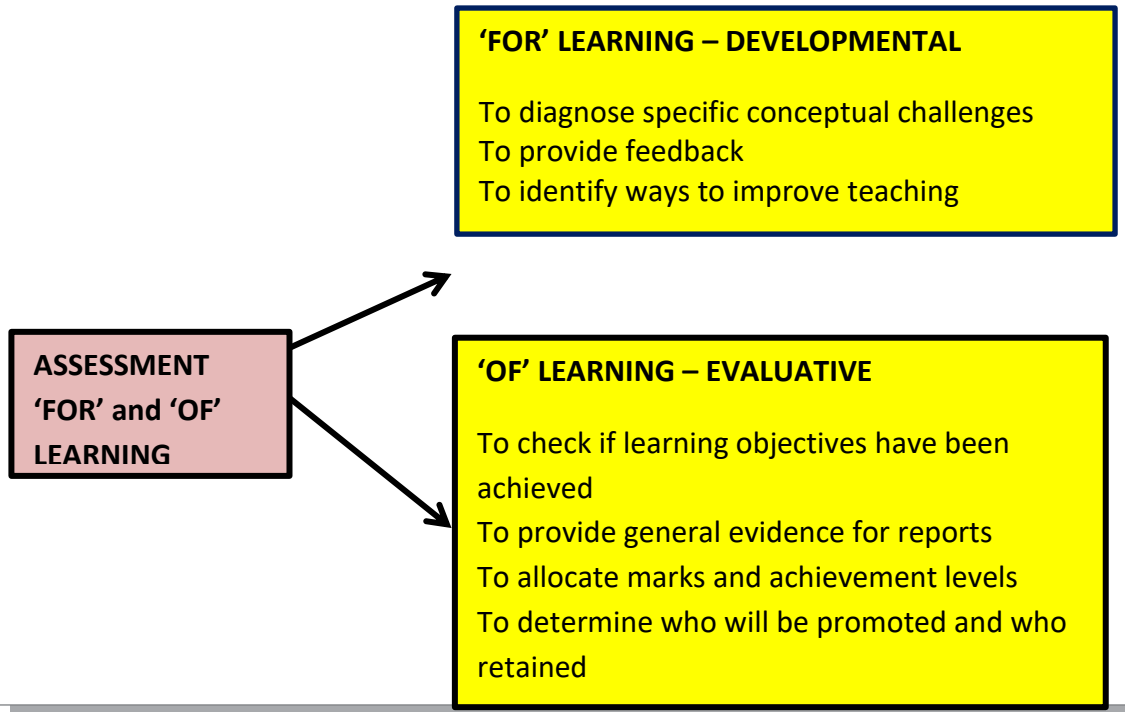
Assessments should be both informal (Assessment for Learning or AfL) and formal (Assessment of Learning or AoL). In both cases, regular feedback should be provided to learners to enhance their learning experience.

GOALS OF ASSESSMENTS FOR AND OF LEARNING IN THE NEW HISTORY CURRICULUM

1) To strengthen and streamline rather than revise fundamentally the existing assessment practices in History

2) To build greater developmental coherence from Gr.4 - Gr.12 (e.g. Key questions are used throughout the curriculum; Cognitive levels are differentiated for each phase, and writing tasks increase in complexity across the phases)

3) To give teachers space for creativity, local innovations, developing engaging source-based enquiries and relevant research projects, and to encourage teachers to curate new 'archives' of historical and archaeological source materials.



Assessment for learning (AfL) has the purpose of continuously collecting information on learners' achievement that can be used to improve their learning.

Informal assessment includes a baseline assessment, which establishes what knowledge learners bring to the classroom about a topic; and, diagnostic assessment, which helps teachers identify concepts or content with which learners are struggling or barriers to learning.

Informal assessment is a daily monitoring of learners' progress. This is done through observations, discussions, practical demonstrations, learner-teacher conferences, informal classroom interactions and activities, homework tasks, etc. Informal assessment may be as simple as stopping during the lesson to observe learners or to discuss with learners how learning is progressing. It should not be seen as separate from learning activities taking place in the classroom. Learners or teachers can mark written informal assessment tasks.

Self-assessment and peer assessment actively involve learners in assessment. This is important as it allows learners to learn from and reflect on their performance. The results of the informal daily assessment tasks are not recorded formally unless the teacher wishes to do so. However, they should be used to provide feedback to the learners, plan for remediation and inform future lesson design.

Informal assessment may be structured by working through activities provided in available textbooks. However, teachers can design their own AfL tasks, using a range of credible historical source material to enrich teaching and learning.

Evidence 'of learner's work, including assessment, should be kept in the learners' notebook.

Sufficient informal assessment should be administered to scaffold learning and to prepare learners for formal assessment tasks.

4.2 FORMAL ASSESSMENT (Assessment of Learning or AoL)

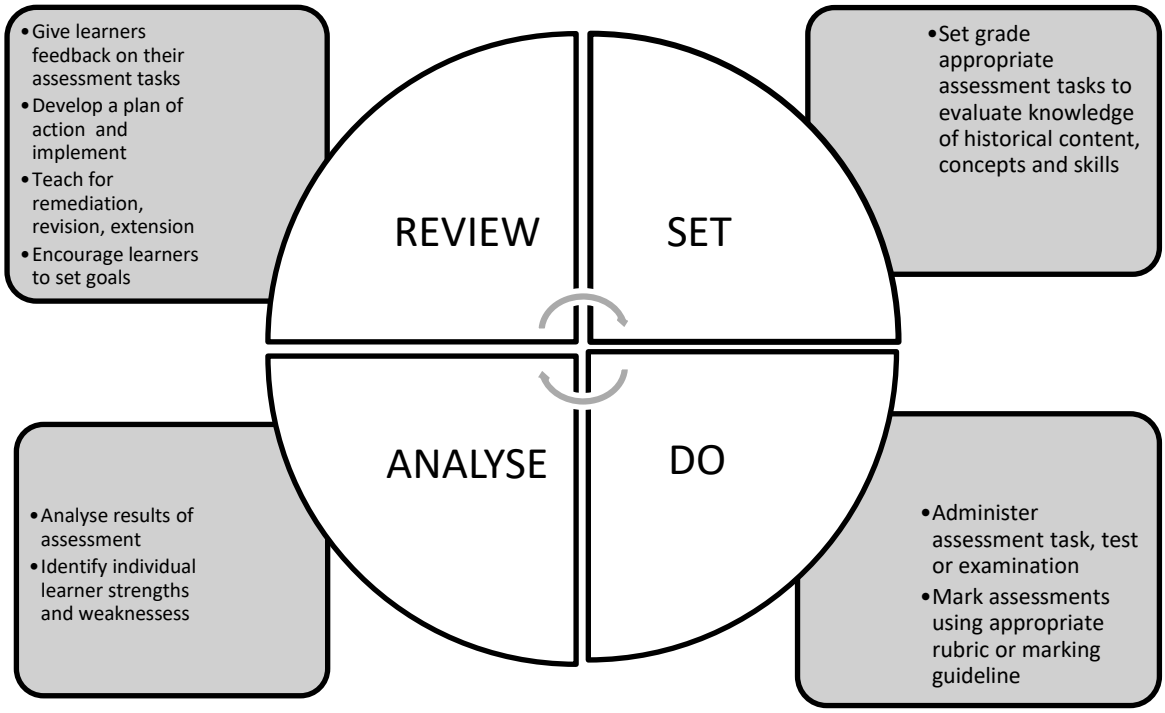
When assessment is used to record a judgment of the competence or performance of the learner, it serves a summative purpose. Formal assessment provides teachers with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a grade and a particular subject.

Formal assessment tasks form part of a year-long formal assessment programme in each grade and subject. All assessment tasks that make up a formal programme of assessment for the year are regarded as formal assessment. All formal assessment tasks are subject to moderation for quality assurance and to ensure that appropriate standards are maintained. The teacher marks and formally records formal assessment tasks for promotion and progression purposes.

Formal assessment tasks include projects, source-based enquiries, creative responses, writing tasks, tests, and examinations.

4.3 THE ASSESSMENT CYCLE

The Assessment cycle involves the following stages: Set, Do, Analyse, and Review.



SET

Follow these steps when designing your assessment task:

1. Clarify the purpose of assessment (Why?)
2. Decide on the task activity or activities (Form of assessment)
3. Decide on the content, concepts, and skills to be assessed (What?)
4. Select a format for learner presentation (Clarify the method: How?)

Both formal and informal assessments must cater to a range of cognitive levels and abilities of learners. Assessment tasks should include a grade-appropriate weighting of low, middle, and high-order questions, to evaluate disciplinary knowledge of History.

Before handing out an assessment task to learners, teachers should ensure that they can answer all the questions themselves. When teachers set an assessment task, they should draw up a marking guideline of answers and/ or a rubric for the assessment.

DO

Learners should be given clear instructions, which include mark allocation and time frames for the completion of assessment tasks. Assessment tasks should be marked without delay.

ANALYSE

Teachers should analyse the results of individual learners as well as those of the whole class to identify areas of strength and weakness.

REVIEW

Learners should receive continuous, constructive feedback both informally and formally. Feedback should acknowledge strengths and identify areas of weakness for learners' developmental needs. An action plan of appropriate remediation and how learners will be supported should accompany the feedback when marked assessment tasks are returned to learners. It is important that the feedback provided to learners encourages them to do better and builds their self-confidence.

Assessment results give teachers insight into the topics or sections of work that individual learners and whole classes find challenging. Assessment should inform teachers' planning for future lessons. They should reflect on their practice and research additional strategies to teach content, concepts or skills with which learners struggle as well as create extension activities for learners who have demonstrated an excellent understanding.

Until learners have demonstrated their understanding, a lesson has not been effectively taught. Setting good assessment tasks can be both challenging and time-consuming. Teachers are encouraged to work collaboratively with History colleagues in their own and other schools, to use carefully selected textbooks as a guide, and to share Historical source materials and well-constructed assessment tasks.

4.4 Assessment in History

4.4.1 Introduction

Assessment in History should be used to evaluate the level at which the core aims and objectives of the subject, as outlined in Chapter 2 of the document, have been attained. All tasks, projects, tests and examinations used to assess historical understanding must evaluate knowledge of disciplinary content, concepts, and thinking skills (based on the specific aims and objectives).

Objectives of School History

1. To demonstrate a chronological knowledge and understanding of the past and the forces that shape it.
2. To demonstrate an ability to use different calendars and demonstrate an understanding of ways of measuring time.
3. To demonstrate a critical understanding of how sources and concepts are used to construct historically valid enquiries about the past.
4. To undertake a historical enquiry and be able to present the outcomes of the enquiry in logical and well-structured written and oral forms.
5. To explain why events in the past are often interpreted and represented differently and why explanations or interpretations shift over time.
6. To argue different points in debates about events or processes in the past based on available evidence.
7. To demonstrate an appreciation that there are multiple ways of relating to the past - cognitive, emotional, moral, political, material, and aesthetic.

4.2.2 Questions and Questioning in History Assessment

History is a process of enquiry based on the interpretation and analysis of evidence from the past. Different types of questions are used in History assessment.

A) Closed and Open Questions

Closed questions are those with a limited number of correct answers. These might begin with 'who', when', where' or require yes/no answers. This type of question will test recall and understanding, they are useful for revision and help learners develop the foundational knowledge used in later grades for constructing a line of arguments. As such, they have a useful place in informal History assessment.

Open questions usually have multiple possible answers. In History, they often begin with 'how', 'why' or 'what'. In answering these types of questions learners are required to give views, opinions, beliefs or judgements and provide information as evidence to support their responses. Open questions can be used to sustain classroom discussion and debate; they promote higher-order thinking and help learners develop their Historical thinking skills.

- **Key Questions**

Key questions are overarching enquiry questions which give any lesson or topic unity and coherence, driving and focusing the investigation. When constructing assessment tasks, teachers may use the key questions given in the curriculum or construct alternative key questions. Good key questions challenge learners to investigate a topic (rather than simply learn a narrative) and help deepen our understanding of the complex past.

When constructing key questions for assessment purposes, Historical concepts should be taken into consideration and used to frame the question. In this curriculum, these concepts are:

- Time and chronology
- Significance
- Cause and Consequence
- Continuity and Change
- Multi-perspectivity (interpretations)

Example of Grade 9: Term 1

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Grade 9: Term 1</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Topic: Pseudo-Science, Racism and the Entrenchment of Social Inequalities during the Nineteenth Century</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key Questions:
Why and how was pseudo-science used to entrench racial segregation and social and political inequalities during the nineteenth century?

How have technology and recent scientific discoveries refuted pseudo-scientific racism?</td><td>Suggested Contact Time:
15 Hours</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process?
The learner should:
• understand the history of classifications that led to pseudo-scientific racism (Time and Chronology)</td></tr>
</table>

- understand that scientists are part of society and how science can be used to shape ideas and prejudices in society (Cause and Effect)
- appreciate that there are different ways of classification (Multiperspectivity)
- consider how ideas of race were used differently (Change and Continuity)
- understand the significance of technological advances in refuting pseudo-scientific racism (Significance)

B) Learners' Questions

Learning to ask good questions is a valuable skill to acquire in History. Learners should be given opportunities to construct and ask questions about a topic. This can be used as a valuable activity in assessment for learning.

4.4.3 Cognitive Levels in History

Informal and formal assessment in History may take a variety of forms, as outlined in section 4.2.4; however, all assessment tasks should cater for a range of cognitive levels and abilities of learners, as shown in the Figure below.

4.4.3.1 The Weighting of Cognitive Levels for Assessment in History

All Formal assessment tasks in History should be constructed using questions set at the grade-appropriate weighting of cognitive levels as indicated in percentages.

WEIGHTING OF COGNITIVE LEVELS: Gr.4 – Gr.12

	LEVEL 1	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3
Grade 4	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 5	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 6	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 7	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 8	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 9	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 10	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**
Grade 11	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**
Grade 12	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**

Figure A: The cognitive level in terms of Blooms taxonomy and verbs, their application to History and suggested questions that can be asked in History assessment at different levels.

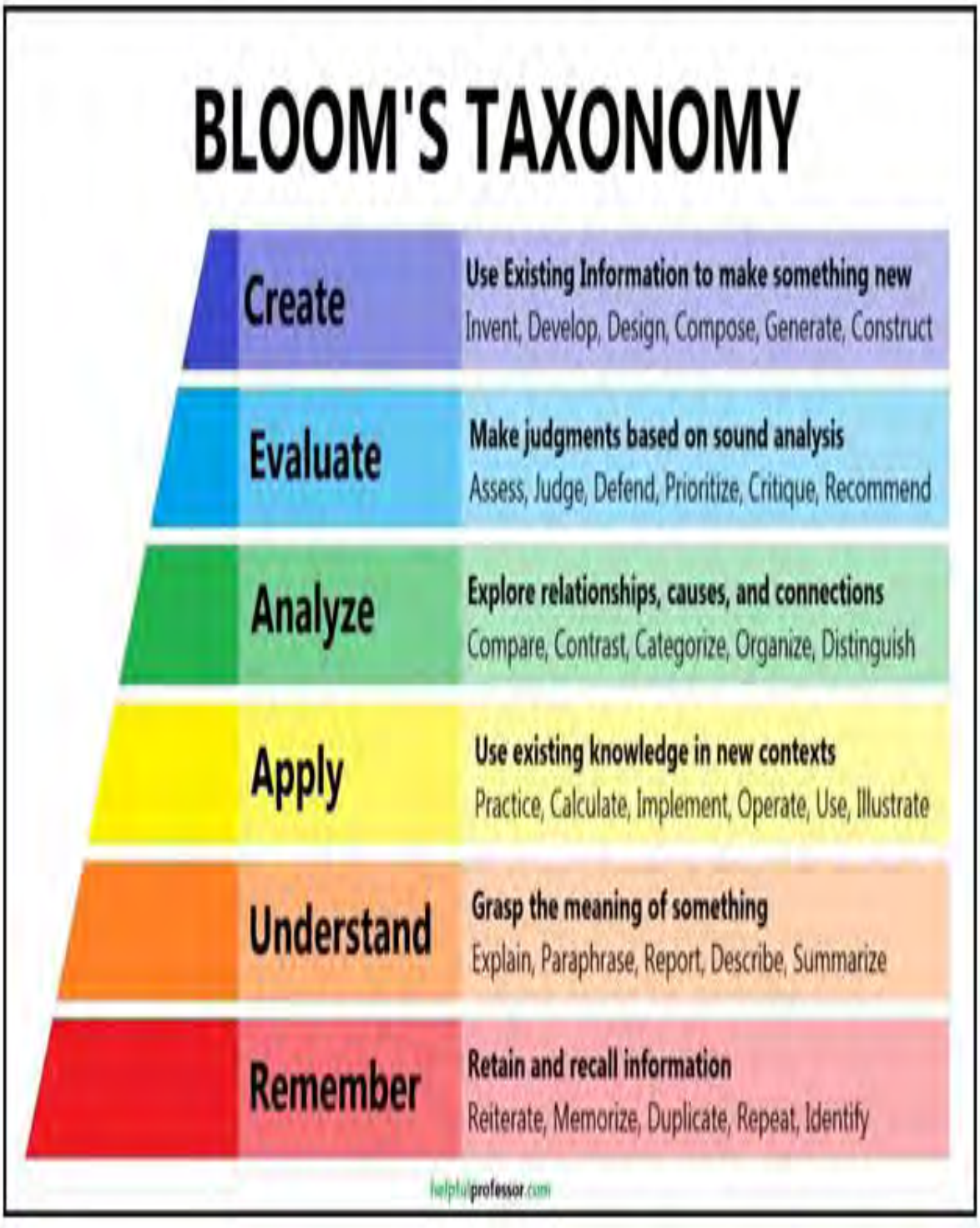
Cognitive Level	Blooms Category	Verbs	Application to History: Learners are able to	Questions that can be asked at different cognitive levels
L1	Comprehension Understanding Knowledge	Define Identify List Name State Select Quote Describe Discuss Illustrate	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the key features and characteristics of the period studied Understand and recognise the range of sources of information available for studying the past Extract information from source material to answer a question Extract information about the origins and context of a source	Questions that demonstrate knowledge What can you tell us about …? Recount information about … Using your own knowledge … Questions that demonstrate comprehension of provenance (origins) Who wrote/created this source? When was this source written/created? Where was it found/published/distributed? Questions that demonstrate comprehension/understanding Describe in your own words in what ways...explain your answer, What does the author tell us about …? What information does the author provide about …? Questions that demonstrate an understanding of

				chronology In what order did the events of … happen?
Cognitive Level	**Blooms Category**	**Verbs**	**Application to History: Learners are able to**	**Questions that can be asked at different cognitive levels.**
L2	Analysis Application	Explain Choose Show Complete Predict Construct Use Analyse Compare Contrast Investigate Criticize Conclude Interpret	Interpret historical source material to explain its meaning in context Analyse historical events and periods studied using procedural historical concepts such as cause and consequence, multi-perspectivity, significance, change and continuity, time and chronology Interpret information from a number of sources including written, oral, landscape, material culture. Make inferences on the basis of information contained in source material. Apply prior knowledge to make meaning of historical source material	Explain the connection between… What language or words does the author use to persuade the audience? Describe the different points of view given in Discuss the different causes and/or effects of …? Classify information relating to the topic into different categories (eg: social, political, economic causes) What does the author / creator infer about …. Explain how the sources disagree of the matter of…? Identify and explain the authors perspective on … With reference to its origin, purpose and content, analyse the value and limitations of Examine the role of.. Point of view of author, interpret and explain Identify and explain similarities and differences between events Identify and explain similarities and differences

				between sources How does the source prove/ support/ show that … Analyse the reasons for … What is the significance, implication, meaning … What conclusion can be drawn from the source about …

Cognitive Level	Blooms Category	Verbs	Application to History: Learners are able to	Suggested question prompts
L3	Creation Evaluation Synthesis	Evaluate Appraise Support Compare Defend Estimate Predict Argue Interpret Contrast	Evaluate and use historical sources to answer questions and make substantiated judgements about past events and processes, in the context of historical events studied. Evaluate the usefulness of sources for answering questions about the past including their reliability, stereotyping and subjectivity Recognise that there is often more than one perspective of a historical event Explain why there were and are different interpretations of historical events and processes Participate in constructive and focussed debate through the careful evaluation of historical evidence Organise evidence to substantiate an argument, in order to create an original, coherent and balanced piece writing	Explain reasons why the interpretations might differ? With reference to their origin and purpose of the source, assess the value and/or limitations of … With reference to the author's perspective, what might be limitations to the source's accuracy regarding … Evaluate the sources' usefulness for answering a given question considering their provenance (origins), purpose and limitations Evaluate the significance of … on … Use source materials from multiple sources to create a representation of the events … Assess the reasons why …? Evaluate the contribution made by x to y? Assess the impact of … Evaluate the importance of Account for the differences regarding …. In the two sources Using information gathered from relevant sources and your knowledge, write a paragraph explaining

				/evaluating /critiquing… Evaluate the relative significance of ….



4.5 Forms of Assessment for History

Teachers should use a variety of informal and formal assessment tasks to evaluate learning. These tasks should be designed to demonstrate competency of historical content, concepts,

and skills and assess understanding of the core aims and objectives of the History curriculum.

Types of Assessment of Learning (AoL) in History Curriculum

Phase	Source-Based	Written Tasks
Intermediate Phase	**Source-based questions**	**Sentences** **Paragraphs**
Senior Phase	**Source-based questions**	**Sentences** **Paragraphs** **Narrative Essays**
FET	**Source-based questions**	**Sentences** **Paragraphs** **Narrative Essays** **Discursive Essays**

4.5.1 Tasks: Informal Assessment (AfL)

Every History lesson should engage learners in reading, writing, and discussion about the historical topic and questions being studied. In addition to textbook tasks, informal assessment tasks (AfL), which might be included in History lessons, include:

- Reading and extracting information from textbooks and other sources
- Writing summary notes under headings
- Organising information into categories (for example, causes and consequences, similarities and differences, perspectives of different people about an event)
- Constructing questions about the topic using information from textbooks and other source material (these could be used for revision or quick quizzes)
- Putting dates into chronological order to create a timeline
- Creating a flow diagram or storyboard of events
- Asking and answering open and closed questions (who, what, when, where, why, how) using information in textbooks and historical source materials
- Using information from historical sources to answer questions at different cognitive levels (for example, extracts, lists, names, identify, analyse, interpret, compare, contrast, evaluate, critique, synthesise, and create). Answers could be presented in written, oral, dramatic or visual form.
- Creating a word wall or glossary with definitions of historical terminology
- Studying images (photographs, posters, paintings) to identify symbols and explain their meaning in context.
- Studying objects, landscapes, and material culture to answer questions about the past.
- Participating in structured, prepared discussion, debate or dramatic presentation about a topic, which involves extracting information from textbooks and other sources material.

4.5.2 Source-Based Enquiries: Formal Assessment and Informal Assessment

In the **Intermediate Phase** the aim of working with historical sources is to enable learners

- Identify a range of different sources materials that can be used to find about the past
- Ask historical questions about the source material
- Extract information from source material
- Interpret information from source material
- Extract information from source material
- Interpret information presented in different types of sources
- Use source material to construct stories
- Use information to answer questions about the past

In **Senior Phase** learners will also

- Interpret and analyze the information given in a variety of historical source
- Understand and explain why there is usually more than one perspective or interpretation of an historical event or process recorded in historical accounts of past events
- Identify and explain different perspectives and interpretations about past events
- Organise information from sources material to answer key questions

In **FET** learners will also

- Infer meaning from a variety of sources when answering questions
- Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of different source material for answering key questions
- Synthesis information , debates or interpretations from range of sources
- Select and organize information from a variety of historical sources materials which can be used to answer questions about the past, support a line of argument and to construct an original piece of historical writing.

When constructing source-based enquiries, teachers must ensure that the following aspects are adhered to:

- Group historical source material around a key question.
- The key question should be interesting, historically relevant, and framed by the historical concepts indicated in Chapter 2.
- Provide a contextualisation for all source material.
  Contextualisation includes the author or creator of the source, the title, and place of publication or website, and the date of publication or when the website was accessed. If the

source is an object, contextual information should include where it was found and from what it was made. Contextualisation should be guided by the questions 'who, what, why, when, and for whom?

- NB: Learners need to use contextual information to answer questions about the usefulness of a source to answer the key question, and to evaluate its reliability as a source of evidence.
- All source materials should be correctly referenced (ie, the book, online site (URL), newspaper etc., where the sources were accessed)
- People in photographs and cartoons should be identified and labelled
- All text and images must be visible
- No sources should be combined into a composite source.

When used for Informal Assessment (AfL), the key question in a source-based enquiry could be answered in written, oral, dramatic or visual forms; however, when used for formal assessment, the final question in a source-based enquiry should require learners to answer the key question in paragraph form.

4.5.3 Writing Tasks: Paragraph Writing (Informal or Formal Assessment)

The objective is to present the outcomes of historical enquiry in logical and well-structured written (and oral) forms.

Learners should further develop their writing skills and be helped to practice them. Learners should have developed the skill of using historical evidence to write sentences in answers to questions and write longer pieces, such as paragraphs, which involves teaching learners to *select* the information they want to include (only to choose what is relevant), and to *arrange* the information in a logical order.

Writing frames and strategies such as 'PEEL' can be useful for scaffolding the learning of paragraph writing and connecting paragraphs to develop a line of argument.

The 'PEEL' method of paragraph writing is as follows:

- Point/**Topic sentence**
- Explanation } **Body**
- Evidence }
- **Concluding sentence** - Linking sentence (either/or back to the question or in longer pieces of writing, to the next paragraph)

In formal and informal assessments, paragraph questions should be allocated **5 marks** and a length of **5 lines** (**50 WORDS**). Paragraph writing evaluates the range of skills at different cognitive levels, including selection, extraction, organisation, evaluation, and creation. Paragraphs must be written in full sentences.

Rubric for Paragraph Writing

LEVELS	LEVEL DESCRIPTORS GRADE 4 -6	MARKS
LEVEL 1	Uses evidence in an elementary manner, e.g., shows little or no understanding of the topic. Uses evidence partially to report on a topic or cannot report on the topic. There is no evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	**0 -1**
LEVEL 2	Evidence is mostly relevant and relates largely to the topic. Uses evidence in a very basic manner. There is evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence	**2 – 3**
LEVEL 3	Uses relevant evidence, e.g., demonstrates a thorough understanding of the topic. Uses evidence very effectively in an organised paragraph that shows an understanding of the topic. Adheres to the structure of a paragraph with evidence of all components' topic sentence, main points, and closing sentence.	**4 – 5**

NB: In addition to the rubric, the memorandum (marking guidelines) for formal assessment tasks should include a model answer to a paragraph question.

Creative Response – Poster

Rubric for a Poster

Criteria	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
Design and layout	Design and layout disorganized and the poster mostly unattractive	Some organization is evident, and it is partly attractive.	The poster is well organized and very attractive	The poster is very well organized and extremely attractive
	1	2	3	4
Creativity	There is little evidence of creativity	Reflects some degree of creativity	The poster is shown to be flawless.	The Poster reflects an original degree of creativity
	1	2	3	4
Presentation	The poster is messy and not presented professionally	The poster has limited presentability	The presentability of the poster is at the expected achievement.	The poster is neat and presentable in an original way.
	1	2	3	4
Purpose	The poster does not achieve its purpose	The poster partially achieves its purpose	The purpose is accomplished per the expected achievement.	The purpose has been achieved originally and creatively.
	1	2	3	4
Effectiveness	There is little relevant information present	Some information to create understanding is present	All the information to create understanding is present	More information that is needed to create an understanding is present
	1	2	3	4
TOTAL				**20 MARKS**

4.5.4 Research Projects

Research projects are completed in the GET and FET. They allow the learners to **develop and practice the skills of historical enquiry** from the framing of research questions to finding and analysing relevant source material (textual, material culture, images, digital, landscape, oral, etc.), and structuring a coherent response to the research question in the final presentation.

Teachers may also take as their focus an **appropriate content topic** in Section 3 for a more in-depth study. Research projects should not, however, be used as an alternative to teaching in class.

Alternatively, the research projects could take as their focus an appropriate content topic in Chapter 3 of the document for a more in-depth study.

Suggestions for GET research projects

Grade 4

Topic 3: Our histories

Grade 5

Topic 3: Food

Grade 6

Topic 3: Egypt – Role of the Nile River

Grade 7

Topic 3: Colonisation, resistance and social change in the Cape region 1650s – 1800s

Grade 8

Topic 3: Gender and Human Rights

Grade 9

Topic 3: Gender and Human Rights: Women, Women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910s – 1960s

Suggestions for FET research projects

The research project in FET could focus on different aspects of **Historical Culture** through the exploration of **heritage** sites, events, or local interest. Research questions could be constructed to explore issues of changing or **contemporary forms in which past events are represented,** such as memorials, as well as film, music, and art. Research projects are also an opportunity to research more complex issues in contemporary South Africa, which are **legacies** of the past.

Grade 10

Topic 2: Achievements of African People since Ancient Times
Topic 3: Ancient Ethiopia before 1600 C.E. and the use of myths and legends in History as a discipline.

Grade 11

Topic 2: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 16th to 19th centuries
Topic 3: Slavery, Slave Resistance, and the Haitian Revolution

Grade 12

Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the Late 19th and 20th Century
Topic 2: The National Question in South Africa: The Formation of the National Party, the African National Congress, and the Communist Party of South Africa in the early 20th century.

4.6 Tests and Examinations

Tests and examinations should cover a substantial amount of content. Refer to the Programme of Assessment and Examination Guidelines. Tests and examinations must be completed under strictly controlled and supervised conditions. Each test and examination must cater for a grade-appropriate range of cognitive levels.

4.7 Scaffolding Assessment Tasks

The quality of learners' work depends on the care with which their tasks and questions are set. They should be given precise and detailed instructions, to tell them what they must do and where they can find the information they need. It is often a good idea to break down big questions into several smaller sub-questions and procedural steps (scaffolding). Clear timeframes and due dates should be given for projects.

4.8 Plagiarism

Plagiarism (using someone else's work and pretending it is one's own) is a particular problem, whether it involves someone else doing the work, copying another learner's work, or cutting and pasting from the Internet. Learners must be taught to show whenever they quote something and how to give their references. Likewise, teachers need to set an example by always giving references for information and sources they use in their teaching materials and showing learners how materials in textbooks have been referenced. To avoid plagiarism, teachers should change their assessment tasks, including research projects, annually.

4.9 ASSESSMENT GUIDELINES AND EXAMINATION FRAMEWORK

The programme of assessment is designed to spread formal assessment tasks in a school throughout the term.

GRADE	TERM	FORM OF ASSESSMENT	TYPE OF QUESTION	TERM CONTENT	MARKS
4	1	Task - Creative Response	Design a poster and include pictures from the maternal and paternal families. (20 marks) Write a short poem or totem (5 marks)	Term 1	25 Marks
	2	Mid-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 1	10 Marks
			Source-based questions (10 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 2	15 Marks
					25 Marks
	3	Project	Research to find out where your family or relatives come from. (25 marks).	Term 3	25 Marks
	4	End-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 3	10 Marks
			Source-based questions (10 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 4	15 Marks
					25 Marks
5	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (25 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 1	30 Marks
	2	Mid-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 1	10 Marks
			Source-based questions (15 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 2	20 Marks
					30 Marks
	3	Project	Research and write a short piece about the history of one type of food, how it is eaten, and the events when it is normally cooked	Term 3	30 Marks
	4	End-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 3	10 Marks
			Source-based	Term 4	20 Marks

			questions (15 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)		30 Marks
6	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (35 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 1	40 Marks
	2	Mid-year examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 1	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (20 and Paragraph writing (5 marks).	Term 2	25 Marks 40 Marks
	3	Project	Research the role of the Nile River.	Term 3	40 Marks
	4	End-year examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 3	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 4	25 Marks 40 Marks

4.10 RECORDING AND REPORTING

Recording is a process in which the teacher documents the level of a learner's performance in a specific assessment task. It indicates learner progress towards the achievement of the knowledge as prescribed in the curriculum and assessment policy statements. Records of learner performance should provide evidence of the learner's conceptual progression within a grade and his or her readiness to progress or be promoted to the next grade. Records of learner performance should also be used to verify the progress made by teachers and learners in the teaching and learning process.

Reporting is a process of communicating learner performance to learners, parents, schools, and other stakeholders. Learners' performance can be reported in many ways. These include report cards, parent meetings, school visitation days, parent-teacher conferences, phone calls, letters, class or school newsletters, etc. Teachers in all grades report in percentages against the subject. The various achievement levels and their corresponding percentage bands are shown in the table below.

4.11 CODES AND PERCENTAGES FOR RECORDING AND REPORTING

Rating code	Description of competence	Percentage
7	Outstanding achievement	80 – 100
6	Meritorious achievement	70 - 79
5	Substantial achievement	60 – 69
4	Adequate achievement	50 – 59
3	Moderate achievement	40 – 49
2	Elementary achievement	30 - 39
1	Not achieved	0 – 29

Teachers will record actual marks against the task by using a record sheet and report percentages against the subject on the learners' report cards.

4.12 Moderation of Assessment

Moderation ensures that the assessment tasks are fair, valid and reliable. Moderation should be implemented at school, district, provincial and national levels. Comprehensive and appropriate moderation practices must be in place for the quality assurance of all subject assessments.

4.12.1 Moderation in history

Moderators should pay particular attention to the instructions for tasks and projects, as well as to the wording of questions in examinations, and they should ask: Is it clear what learners are expected to do? Can it be explained better? Is there further information that will assist learners in completing the tasks or question? They should also insist that references are provided for all sources used.
The table for the *Global Assessment of Essays*, which is provided for Grade 12 examinations, should be adapted and used for the marking of all written work and projects in all three grades, whenever possible. If rubrics are used, teachers should ask: Is it necessary to use a rubric, as many tasks and projects can be marked better using a marking scheme? If a rubric is necessary, does it adequately measure the achievement of the task or project?

Moderators should ensure that assessment tasks and projects comply with the following:

• They include information about where and how learners are realistically expected to information
- They warn learners to avoid plagiarism; and
- They provide instructions for how references are to be written

4.13 General

This document should be read in conjunction with:

National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and

The policy document, National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12

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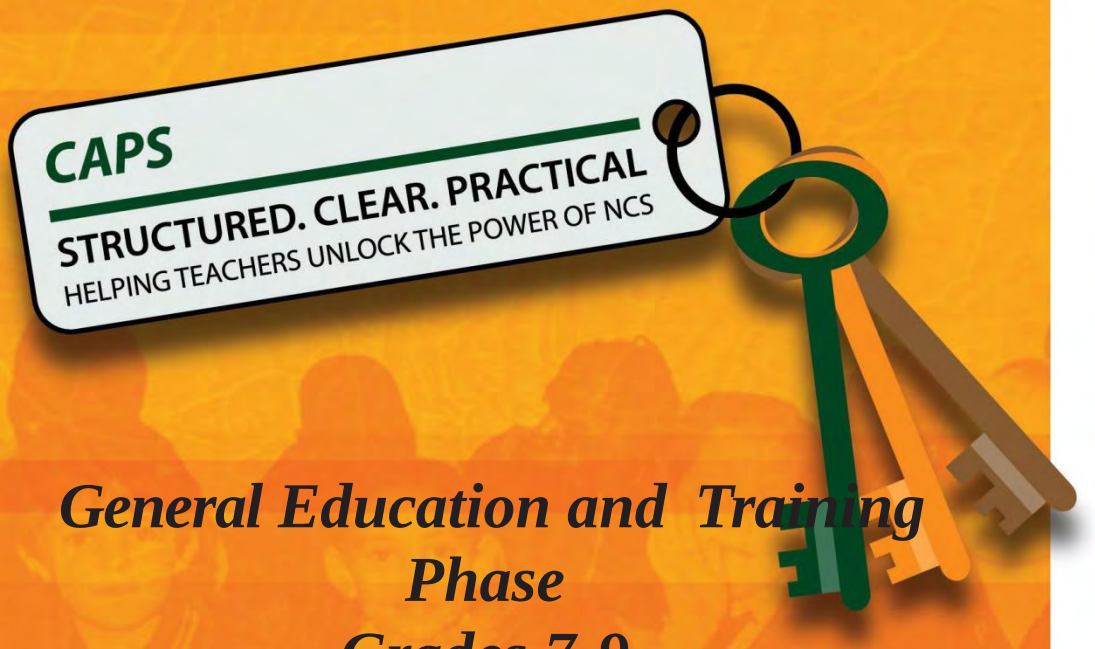
HISTORY

National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement



General Education and Training Phase
Grades 7-9

basic education

Department:
Basic Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT
GRADES 7-9

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Printed by: Government Printing Works

FOREWORD

Our national curriculum is the culmination of our efforts over a period of seventeen years to transform the curriculum bequeathed to us by apartheid. From the start of democracy we have built our curriculum on the values that inspired our Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). The Preamble to the Constitution states that the aims of the Constitution are to:

- heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights;
- improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person;
- lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law; and
- build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations.

Education and the curriculum have an important role to play in realising these aims.

In 1997 we introduced outcomes-based education to overcome the curricular divisions of the past, but the experience of implementation prompted a review in 2000. This led to the first curriculum revision: the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 and the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (2002).

Ongoing implementation challenges resulted in another review in 2009 and we revised the Revised National Curriculum Statement (2002) to produce this document.

From 2012 the two 2002 curricula, for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12 respectively, are combined in a single document and will simply be known as the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. The National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-12 builds on the previous curriculum but also updates it and aims to provide clearer specification of what is to be taught and learnt on a term-by-term basis.

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 accordingly replaces the Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines with the

(a) Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for all approved subjects listed in this document;

(b) National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and

(c) National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12.

MS SIVIWE GWARUBE, MP

MINISTER OF BASIC EDUCATION

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SECTION 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENTS FOR HISTORY GRADES 4-6

1.1 Background

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (NCS) stipulates policy on curriculum and assessment in the schooling sector.

To improve implementation, the National Curriculum Statement was amended, with the amendments coming into effect in January 2012. A single comprehensive Curriculum and Assessment Policy document was developed for each subject to replace Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines in Grades R-12.

1.2 Overview

(a) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools and comprises the following:

(i) *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for each approved school subject;*

(ii) *The policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and*

(iii) *The policy document, National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (January 2012).*

(b) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) replaces the two current national curricula statements, namely the

(i) *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9, Government Gazette No. 23406 of 31 May 2002, and*

(ii) *National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 Government Gazettes, No. 25545 of 6 October 2003 and No. 27594 of 17 May 2005.*

(c) The national curriculum statements contemplated in subparagraphs b(i) and (ii) comprise the following policy documents which will be incrementally repealed by the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) during the period 2012-2014:

(i) *The Learning Area/Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12;*

(ii) *The policy document, National Policy on assessment and qualifications for schools in the General Education and Training Band d, promulgated in Government Notice No. 124 in Government Gazette No. 29626 of 12 February 2007;*

(iii) *The policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), promulgated in Government Gazette No.27819 of 20 July 2005;*

(iv) *The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding learners with special needs, published in Government Gazette, No.29466 of 11 December 2006, is incorporated in the policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and*

(v) *The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding the National Protocol for Assessment (Grades R-12), promulgated in Government Notice No.1267 in Government Gazette No. 29467 of 11 December 2006.*

(d) The policy document, *National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12,* and the sections on the Curriculum and Assessment Policy as contemplated in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of this document constitute the norms and standards of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. It will therefore, in terms of section 6A of the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996,) form the basis for the Minister of Basic Education to determine minimum outcomes and standards, as well as the processes and procedures for the assessment of learner achievement to be applicable to public and independent schools.

1.3 **General aims of the South African Curriculum**

(a) *The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12* gives expression to knowledge, skills and values worth learning in South African schools. This curriculum aims to ensure that children acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. In this regard, the curriculum promotes knowledge in local contexts, while being sensitive to global imperatives.

(b) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 serves the purposes of:

- equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfillment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country;
- providing access to higher education;
- facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace;
- and providing employers with a sufficient profile of a learner's competences.

(c) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is based on the following principles:

- Social transformation: ensuring that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed, and that educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population;
- Active and critical learning: encouraging an active and critical approach to learning, rather than rote and uncritical learning of given truths;
- High knowledge and high skills: the minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade are specified and set high, achievable standards in all subjects;
- Progression: content and context of each grade shows progression from simple to complex;

- Human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice: infusing the principles and practices of social and environmental justice and human rights as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is sensitive to issues of diversity such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability and other factors;

- Valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution; and Credibility, quality and efficiency: providing an education that is comparable in quality, breadth and depth to those of other countries.

(d) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 aims to produce learners that are able to:

- identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team;
- organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;
- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;
- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes;
- use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others; and
- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

(e) Inclusivity should become a central part of the organisation, planning and teaching at each school. This can only happen if all teachers have a sound understanding of how to recognise and address barriers to learning, and how to plan for diversity.

The key to managing inclusivity is ensuring that barriers are identified and addressed by all the relevant support structures within the school community, including teachers, District-Based Support Teams, Institutional-Level Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres. To address barriers in the classroom, teachers should use various curriculum differentiation strategies such as those included in the Department of Basic Education's Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (2010).

1.4 Time Allocation

1.4.1 Foundation Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Foundation Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	GRADE R (HOURS)	RADES 1-2 (HOURS)	GRADE 3 (HOURS)
Home Language	10	8/7	8/7
First Additional Language		2/3	¾
Mathematics	7	7	7
Life Skills □ Beginning Knowledge □ Creative Arts □ Physical Education □ Personal and Social Well-being	6 (1) (2) (2) (1)	6 (1) (2) (2) (1)	7 (2) (2) (2) (1)
TOTAL	23	23	25

(b) Instructional time for Grades R, 1 and 2 is 23 hours and for Grade 3 is 25 hours.

Ten hours are allocated for languages in Grades R-2 and 11 hours in Grade 3. A maximum of 8 hours and a minimum of 7 hours are allocated for Home Language and a minimum of 2 hours and a maximum of 3 hours for Additional Language in Grades 1-2. In Grade 3 a maximum of 8 hours and a minimum of 7 hours are allocated for Home Language and a minimum of 3 hours and a maximum of 4 hours for First Additional Language.

In Life Skills Beginning Knowledge is allocated 1 hour in Grades R-2 and 2 hours as indicated by the hours in brackets for Grade 3.

1.4.2 Intermediate Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Intermediate Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	HOURS
Home Language	6
First Additional Language	5
Mathematics	6
Natural Science and Technology	3,5
Social Sciences	3
Life Skills □ Creative Arts □ Physical Education □ Personal and Social Well-being	4 (1,5) (1) (1,5)
TOTAL	27,5

1.4.3 Senior Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Senior Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	HOURS
Home Language	5
First Additional Language	4
Mathematics	4,5
Natural Science	3
Social Sciences	3
Technology	2
Economic Management Sciences	2
Life Orientation	2
Creative Arts	2
TOTAL	27,5

1.4.4 Grades 10-12

(a) The instructional time in Grades 10-12 is as follows:

SUBJECT	TIME ALLOCATION PER WEEK
Home Language	4.5
First Additional Language	4.5
Mathematics	4.5
Life Orientation	2
A minimum of any three subjects selected from Group B Annexure B, Tables B1-B8 of the policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and	12 (3x4h)

The allocated time per week may be utilised only for the minimum required NCS subjects as specified above and may not be used for any additional subjects added to the list of minimum subjects. Should a learner wish to offer additional subjects, additional time must be allocated for the offering of these subjects.

SECTION 2

The essence of the new History Curriculum

This is a new African-centred curriculum for 21st-century South Africa, which pays particular attention to the long past. An African-centred approach recognises that the African past is knowable and pursues the history of Africa through multiple methodologies to reconstruct the histories of Africans on the continent and in the world. The intention is to develop in the African child a strong foundational knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the continent, and its relationship to the world.

This is not a narrowly focused 'patriotic' history. It purposefully moves away from parochialism and exceptionalism to develop in learners a global historical consciousness from the vantage point of Africa. This curriculum has been influenced by the UNESCO *General History of Africa* approach to writing history for an independent Africa which is part of the broader process of decolonisation of knowledge across the continent.

UNESCO sets out to construct a history of Africa from the origins of humanity to the era of independence. In Volume I, of this impressive work, *Methodology and African Prehistory*, J. Ki-Zerbo argues:

> It is not our purpose to write a history which will be a mere settling of scores, with colonialist history backfiring on its authors, but rather to change the perspective and revive images which have been forgotten or lost. We must turn once more to science in order to create genuine cultural awareness. We must reconstruct the real course of events. And we must find another mode of discourse.[1]

An African-centred approach makes the effort to explore, use, and exploit various forms of African archives and sources – oral, archaeological, written, visual, linguistic, and landscape – in investigating historical questions about Africa and its interactions with the rest of the world. In addition to recognising a broad range of sources of evidence, it also embraces a wide range of technologies and techniques that are currently used to explore or interrogate material from the past, for example, remote sensing, DNA analysis or chemical analysis of bone and dating techniques.

There is a special place for oral traditions in an African-centered history because they are encoded in African languages and express the idiomatic wisdom and intellectualism of the diverse people of Africa. Zi-Kerbo expresses the importance of oral forms in a colourful way, stating:

1. J. Ki-Zerbo (ed.), 'Introduction', in *Methodology and African Prehistory: UNESCO General History of Africa*, *Volume 1* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1980), 2.

> Besides the first two sources of African history – written documents and archaeology – oral tradition takes its place as a real living museum, conserver and transmitter of the social and cultural creations stored up by peoples said to have no written records. This spoken history is a very frail thread by which to trace our way back through the dark twists of the labyrinth of time… oral tradition is by far the most intimate of historical sources, the richest, the one which is the fullest of the sap of authenticity.[2]

This curriculum thus draws extensively on traditional indigenous oral forms such as praise poetry, clan praises, idioms, proverbs, folktales and other folklore which act as repositories of history, indigenous knowledge and philosophies. These play a critical role in conveying African interpretations and perspectives of history. They are also important in developing a sense of historical consciousness by conveying the history of pre-colonial pasts to the learner.

African-centredness requires that African languages and their idiomatic expressions be incorporated into the curriculum because they act as important archives of indigenous historical knowledge and memory. As all history requires language skills, the ability to express terms and concepts in a multi-lingual framework enriches and expands the vocabulary of the curriculum. It is especially important where indigenous terms provide more precise conceptual expressions and definitions of historical events and actions. The ability to read and translate African languages, and other languages in general, are critical skills for being able to work with and learn from a range of sources including archival and oral evidence.

Engaging with language as a source of history encourages critical engagement and debate because of how it shifts and changes over time. Language is not seen as a fixed or final arbiter of history but as an opportunity to spark discussion and engagement about the past and the present. In looking at local history, for example, local vernaculars and dialects will emerge through the languages of place names, or words used to describe objects. Place names provide an opportunity to discuss layers of historical meaning and how these change over time. Words can also tell us about relationships in the past, particularly with regard to the trade of goods. Thus, the relationship between various languages provides evidence of the historical process. Multilingualism is thus encouraged in this curriculum.

The curriculum also incorporates the perspectives of previously marginalised historiographies that have not yet been fully appreciated in mainstream academic historiography. Some of this historiography has historically been produced by African writers of the late 19th and early to mid-20th centuries which includes history books, historical novels and plays, poetry and

2. Ki-Zerbo (ed.), *Methodology and African Prehistory,* 7.

newspaper articles.

Alongside developing knowledge about the past, the new History curriculum intentionally encourages a critical perspective and sets out to instil an analytical approach to working with material from the past and foster an understanding of how and why certain forms of history or representations of the past are constructed and what role they play in public memory.

What is History and what is School History?

In this curriculum, we use the term 'history' in its broadest sense. History is not simply 'the past', it is the study of the past which involves learning how to think about the past in disciplined ways, and through the application of different disciplinary techniques and perspectives. For example, we have included the work of archaeologists, linguists and oral historians to extend the timeline further back into the past, and to provide the experience of working with a wide range of sources and new technologies. By exploring what happened even further back in time we also hope to develop an appreciation for the African past, for the advancement and innovation that spread to the rest of the world as humans began to move beyond Africa, and for Africa's part in global expansion prior to the 1500s.

History is a process of enquiry into the past which is open to continuous reassessment, reappraisal and revision. Studying history gives us an understanding of how past human actions affect the present and influence our future. It allows us to evaluate these effects, and their significance, in a range of contexts.

Studying history as a school subject equips learners with knowledge about the past and gives learners the conceptual tools to examine how and why different interpretations of the past have been constructed by archaeologists and historians (historiography). It also enables learners to engage critically with tangible and intangible representations of the past, such as memorials, landscapes and buildings, art, literature, film, music, traditions, performances and games. Learners can explore the perspectives of a broad social spectrum and thereby become more aware of and sensitive to race, class, gender and the voices of 'ordinary' people. Through the development of historical thinking skills, learners can analyse critically how and why these representations of the past change over time.

The study of history provides opportunities for learners to develop a historical consciousness through which to orientate themselves in the continuum of human experience and to develop an understanding of how and why human actions have social and environmental consequences.

Specific Aims of School History

1. To develop an interest in and knowledge of the study of ancient and modern pasts.
2. To develop an understanding of substantive and procedural historical and archaeological concepts.
3. To develop an ability to understand and undertake a process of historical enquiry, which uses a range of archaeological and historical sources as evidence to make knowledgeable claims about the past.
4. To prepare young people for local, regional, continental, global and planetary responsibility.

Objectives of School History

1. To demonstrate a chronological knowledge and understanding of the past and the forces that shape it.
2. To demonstrate an ability to use different calendars and demonstrate an understanding of ways of measuring time.
3. To demonstrate a critical understanding of how sources and concepts are used to construct historically valid enquiries about the past.
4. To undertake an historical or archaeological enquiry and be able to present the outcomes of the enquiry in logical, well-structured written and oral forms.
5. To explain why events in the past are often interpreted and represented differently and why explanations or interpretations shift over time.
6. To discuss and deliberate different points about past events or processes, on the basis of available evidence.
7. To demonstrate an appreciation that there are multiple ways of relating to the past – including cognitive, emotional, moral, political, material and aesthetic ways of doing so.

Why archaeology?

Archaeology is the interpretation of past human societies from the study of the things that people leave behind; archaeologists study human activity across space and through time. Archaeologists do not only examine objects that have been carefully excavated from the ground. They also study sources of evidence found underwater, or above ground. These sources may be tiny or microscopic or they may incorporate an entire landscape. Archaeologists also use written sources to help them in their research.

Studies have shown that learners who are taught using an archaeological method of enquiry that involves fieldwork, excavation, and analysis of artefacts or sources of evidence, are more motivated to learn about the past, and have an improved connection with the past and the

present. A more hands-on approach that involves active exploration – such as drawing, measuring, photographing and asking questions – can be coupled with an open, enquiry-based approach that helps to develop critical thinking skills, including observation, analysis, classification, reflection and interpretation. This archaeological method of enquiry encourages and facilitates knowledge production.

Learners working with a wide range of physical remains are also more aware of the biases in the historic record. Knowledge about which materials decay or under what circumstances material is preserved helps the learner recognise that we cannot know everything about the past, and that building and supporting a sound argument often requires multiple lines of evidence.

Archaeology is a multidisciplinary field that combines elements of science, technology and history. For example, archaeochemists use chemistry to analyse bones, archaeozoologists study the animals that people farmed or hunted from the bone remains and consider what those animals might have meant to them, while archaeobotanists focus on changing plant use and environments. Remote sensing technologies enable archaeologists to explore caves, mummies, skulls, or objects without having to open or probe them. LIDAR and remote sensing can also be deployed to expose hidden activities or buildings over large tracts of land. By learning about archaeology, learners can develop an interest in these other areas and possibly be motivated to pursue a variety of career paths.

In short, learners who are taught how to work with physical sources of evidence will understand the human past more easily and with greater enjoyment. They will also begin to appreciate how knowledge from other disciplines, such as geography, science or biology can be applied to understand the past, and how a wide range of technologies can assist in this endeavour.

Why teach the archaeological past?

Archaeology serves an important historical function because it is one of the only means of examining the past in the early times before written records became available. We are completely dependent, therefore, upon archaeological and oral accounts for our knowledge of past societies that did not leave a written record of events. Archaeological excavation is perhaps the only way of appreciating the long and diverse histories of people who lived thousands of years ago in South Africa and abroad. It also allows learners to explore the deep history of different societies to gain a more diverse perspective on history and of different lifeways, cultural exchanges, and responses.

Possibly the most important reason for teaching the archaeological past in the school history syllabuses is to encourage knowledge and appreciation of Africa's long and rich history: the package of tools, art and innovation that had its roots in Africa and accompanied the movement of early humans out of Africa. Archaeology also gives us an awareness of Africa's early connections to Asia and Europe and the unique and remarkable African societies (Mali, Egypt, Ethiopia, for example) that emerged; and, southern Africa's participation in globalisation and trade within Africa and with the Middle East and Asia through the study of societies, maritime records and trade goods.

Archaeology serves yet another historical purpose. Archaeological research does not only reveal the past for which we have no written records, but it also serves to supplement the written records that are available. However, neither archaeological nor written records can be seen as wholly accurate and providing complete portrayals of life in the past. Historical documents tend to record major events and the lives of prominent people. History is also inherently biased. The personal values and interests of the writer, the social context in which the document is written, and the facts available to the writer at the time all exert an influence on the accuracy and completeness of any historical document. Since archaeological remains are also not a complete record of life in the past, historical and archaeological research can supplement one another for time periods where written documents exist. During the colonial period, a combination of archaeological, oral and written evidence can provide a more holistic picture of the past.

Lastly, because of the long-term perspective that archaeology provides, learners can become mindful of how human actions in the past have created and altered the current environment. This encourages social awareness of their impact on the environment and of the value of protecting and preserving historical sites and landscapes.

Why make use of Oral History?

Before 1994, the school history curriculum put the experiences and achievements of white people, mainly males, at the centre of the narrative of South Africa. The story began with the arrival of the Dutch traders under Jan van Riebeeck and the establishment of a refreshment station at the Cape of Good Hope in 1652, the British takeover of the Cape Colony and conflicts culminating in the 'Great Trek' into what the settlers imagined was an 'empty' interior, followed by sporadic clashes with African societies and their defeat. The story ended with the National Party's takeover of a minority government and the establishment of the Black national states (also known as Bantustans). All these developments were seen through the eyes of the white people, specifically the Afrikaners. In other words, the Afrikaner nationalist perspective was the history of South Africa while African perspectives were completely marginalised.

In a context where only written sources were viewed as important building blocks of historical narratives, African perspectives were disregarded because they were deemed inadequately captured in official written sources. Minerals in South Africa, for example, were presented as a 'discovery' made by the white people, and the ensuing developments revolved around industrialisation, especially diamond and then gold mining in the late 19th century, thus disregarding African oral accounts of mining and metallurgy in pre-colonial southern African societies such as those in Phalaborwa, Mapungubwe and Great Zimbabwe.

Even when written records or historiographical interpretations by or about Africans existed (for example, correspondence by literate Africans such as John Langalibalele Dube, Tiyo Soga, and Sol Plaatje, among others), these were simply ignored by those in power. The school history curriculum of the time advanced a version of the past that was based mainly on sources generated by outsiders who were often hostile and prejudiced against African societies, for example, European colonial officials, hunters, travellers, traders, and so forth.

It was inevitable, therefore, that shortly after independence and democracy, the new government felt the school history curriculum needed to be transformed to reflect the multiplicity of perspectives that exist in the country, particularly those of African communities whose perspectives and general well-being had been utterly disregarded during the colonial and apartheid periods. African societies relied heavily on orality; memory was, and in many respects continues to be used as a valuable storage house for valuable historical information.

Through the inclusion of Oral History in the school curriculum, therefore, an opportunity was provided for marginalised communities with few or no written documents (societal groups such as the working class, farm tenants, women, etc.) to have their experience of forced removals, land expropriation and their bitter struggle against apartheid, to be captured in their own voices. The growing emphasis on Oral History in schools and broader society post-1994 was thus based on a genuine effort to recover our silenced voices.

However, the need to take Oral History seriously does not mean that written sources (official correspondence, letters, memoranda, reports compiled by white commissioners, records of court cases, etc.) should be disregarded. The colonial or apartheid archive, read critically, must continue to be taken seriously as a repository of important aspects of our history.

What is Oral History?

The concept of Oral History is used to describe a method that relies largely on oral testimony and oral tradition as forms of historical evidence. It refers to history that is passed down through the generations by word of mouth.

There are two types of oral evidence, namely oral testimony and oral tradition. Each of these calls for an additional explanation.

- Oral testimony is an eyewitness or first-hand account of an event or situation which occurred during the lifetime of the person interviewed. The informant tells a story about themselves, about what he or she has seen, heard, or done in the past.

- Oral tradition refers to stories or narratives which have been handed down by word of mouth from one generation to the next and, unlike oral testimonies, are no longer contemporary. There are many different examples – folktales, genealogies ('who begot whom' in the Old Testament), chiefly genealogies, praise songs of past heroes, etc.

Oral History can be seen as a means of asking, and perhaps answering, the kind of questions likely to lead to a fuller understanding of the experiences and consciousness of ordinary people.

What makes Oral History different?

The answer to this question is that it tells us not just what people did, but what they wanted to do, what they believed they were doing, and what they now think that they did.[3]

Types of Oral Interviews

Oral history is usually collected through interviews. There are various types of interviews that historians may make use of, and these are discussed briefly below:

- **Life history interview**
  This is an interview conducted with one person focusing on his or her individual life history, or his or her family history. Often the interviewee will talk about parents, siblings and relatives. The idea is to gain a deeper understanding of the individual's life, with information being gathered in chronological order. By focusing on the stories of individuals and their families we can gain a better understanding of the experiences that are often ignored (such as details of the lifestyles of peasants, tenants, farm labourers and women). Broader historical themes that deserve attention include the

3. A. Portelli, 'Oral History as Genre', in M. Chamberlain and P. Thompson (eds), *Narrative and Genre: Contexts and Types of Communication* (London: Routledge, 1998).

history of land possession and dispossession, identity and acculturation, and religious affiliation. One of the main strengths of a life history interview is that it has a great capacity to yield unexpected data.

- **Structured interview**
  In a structured interview, the researcher prepares all the questions before the interview and only includes these particular pre-selected questions.

- **Semi-structured interview**
  A semi-structured interview is more open than a standardised questionnaire. A few questions are prepared in advance to steer the interview. The interviewee is allowed to give unrestricted answers and perhaps go off on a tangent into new topics of discussion. The interviewer should then follow up with related questions.

The limitation of structured and semi-structured interviews is that the interviewer may steer the interviewee away from important areas that might have revealed new data and could also make the interviewee feel that his or her other life experiences are unimportant.

Conceptual Constructs in History Education

School history involves educating learners about the past and its representation through three interconnected conceptual constructs of 'history' (historical thinking, historical culture and historical consciousness) which develop intellectual and social competencies and enable learners to orientate themselves in time and place.

1. Historical thinking

Historical thinking refers to a disciplinary way of thinking about the past. It requires learners to move beyond an uncritical mastery of dates and details, the mere 'facts' about the past, to progress to an understanding of how and why histories are constructed and contested.

Novice historical thinkers or younger learners tend to view history as a single, unchangeable account of the past while more sophisticated historical thinkers demonstrate an understanding of history as a construction, and as a critical interpretation of events in the past (as in a historiography on a certain topic or train of events). This form of disciplinary thinking needs to

be taught and nurtured explicitly in learners. Alongside developing their knowledge of events and processes, learners should be given opportunities to *analyse* a variety of historical and archaeological sources from, and accounts of, the past. They should evaluate interpretations and representations of the past created by others, and conduct valid historical enquiries using different source materials, means of investigation or techniques. In addition, discussion, debate and the disciplined use of evidence to defend a line of argument should be incorporated into history lessons, alongside reading and writing, regularly.

Concepts in History

Concepts are abstract ideas which form the building blocks of discipline. In History education there are different types of concepts:

> *Substantive concepts* relate to the events (the 'what') of the past. They are used by historians to bind together events within a period, such as the 'Industrial Revolution' the 'Apartheid era' and the 'Cold War'. They also include concepts used to explain historical processes, such as 'nationalism', 'revolution' and 'colonisation'. The meaning and significance of concepts may be interpreted differently depending on their context.
>
> *Procedural concepts* are meta-concepts which guide and shape the practice of history (the 'how'). They help us construct enquiry questions, and also assist in selecting, organising and evaluating information from and about the past to construct histories. Procedural concepts only become meaningful when we use them to ask questions about the past.

This School History curriculum identifies five core, procedural concepts

a) Time and Chronology

What is 'time'? Many of us take time for granted; we regard it as a natural phenomenon, like gravity. We often forget that time is perceived and communicated through devices that have been invented and introduced by people at different points in history to help organise and coordinate our activities. For example, did you know that standardised time (GMT) was only introduced in South Africa after 8 February 1892, to meet the needs of the railways? Or that GMT stands for Greenwich Mean Time (Greenwich is in London, which tells us something about South Africa's colonial past). Furthermore, do you know that the calendar we use is the Gregorian or Christian calendar, which was introduced in Europe in 1582 CE? This calendar was based on the Julian calendar, adopted by Julius Caesar in 46 BCE.

There were other calendars developed and used both earlier and at the same time as these calendars. For example, the Ethiopian calendar is based on the same astronomical calculations that lie behind today's Gregorian calendar. A year in the Ethiopian calendar is 13 months long (12 months of 30 days each and one month of 5 days or 6 days in a leap year).

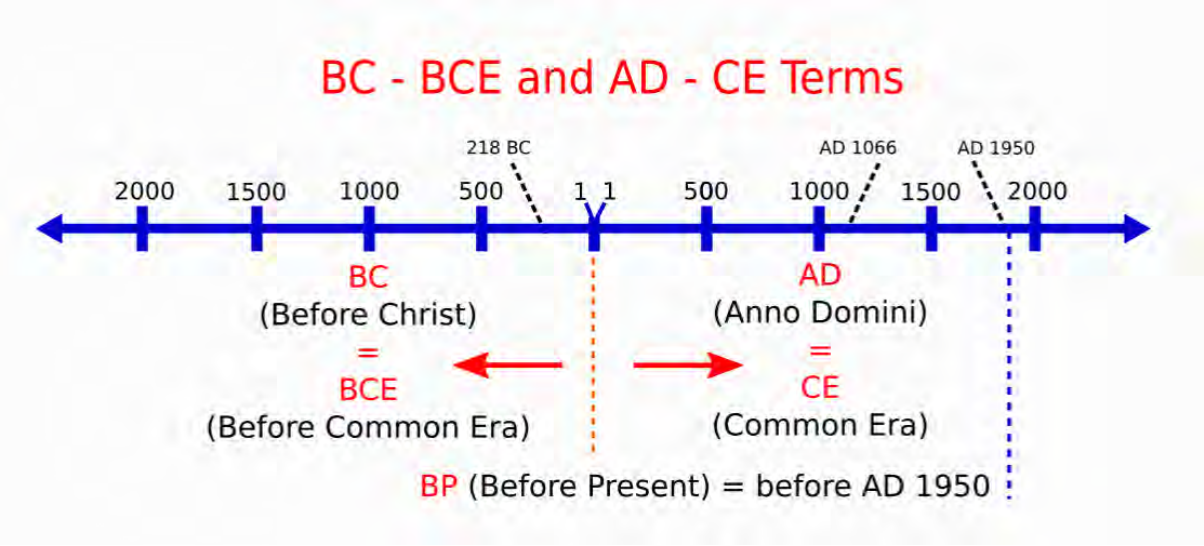
This means that while most Christians celebrate Christmas on the 25 December, Ethiopians and many Orthodox churches celebrate Christmas on 7 January.

In ancient Egypt, the first day of the year coincided with the appearance of Sirius on the eastern horizon just before sunrise and the flooding of the Nile at Memphis. The Zulu people also used the moon and stars to keep track of time. The season of cultivation was announced by the *isilimela*, the star cluster known as the Pleiades. The annual cycle was divided into thirteen phases of the moon, each associated with ecological changes and social activity. The new moon marked the end of the month, which often caused those working in the city to become disgruntled when this did not coincide with month-end on the colonial calendar. This tension is evident in the title of the Keletso Atkins book, *The Moon is Dead! Give us Our Money*![4] In other words, the way we measure time is socially constructed. Even our perceptions of time are based on our personal experiences. When we enjoy ourselves, time flies, but a three-hour exam can seem like an eternity! With a global focus on economics and wealth, time is said to be money, and people are unwilling to waste time.

Historians and archaeologists arrange and define past events into periods or blocks of time. This is called 'periodisation' and when placed in sequence the periods form a chronology. These blocks of time may be based on features that are considered diagnostic of the particular period (Bronze Age; the Renaissance; the Industrial Revolution etc). Periods can be problematic because sometimes the features are common to more than one period, and often create the impression that history unfolded linearly. Periodisation can be revised to emphasise different aspects of the past. For example, instead of writing about the 'pre-colonial' period, historians may refer to the 'long past' of southern African history to emphasise that Africa has a far longer history than the short period of European colonisation.

Archaeologists work with different kinds of clocks to measure how much time has passed from the present (years Before Present [BP]). Among the many techniques available, they count tree rings (dendrochronology), and/or use radioactive clocks to calculate how much time has passed basing their calculations on the decay of radioactive isotopes. Radiocarbon or carbon-14 dating is an example of a radiometric clock.

4. K.E. Atkins, *The Moon is Dead! Give Us Our Money! The Cultural Origins of an African* (Portsmouth: Heinemann, 1993).



Examples of enquiry questions on the historical concept of 'time and chronology'

IP: How have the means of transport changed over time? (G5)
SP: How might we periodise the political dynamics of the Cape region c.1500–1850? (G7)
FET: What were the origins of the Cold War? (G12)

b) Historical Significance

Historical significance relates to events, people or processes in the past that have resulted in important changes. The selection of what is considered 'significant' varies over time and place and depends on who is making the choice. Developing as a historical thinker involves learners considering why some events, people or processes are (or were) considered important and selected to be remembered, recognised or recorded, and others were not. It also involves considering why some parts of the past seem to remain significant, while others fade from public knowledge or interest. An example of this could be the changes in the events celebrated as public holidays in South Africa, these have changed across the 19th, 20th and 21st centuries. Significance can also vary in scale, for example sometimes an event is catastrophic and has a global impact (such as the atomic bomb), while at other times the effects are only felt by a single nation, family or person.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'historical significance':

IP: Why is knowledge from sites dating back thousands of years important to South Africa and the world? (Gr.6)
SP: To what extent was education employed as a tool to keep the people in South Africa divided along racial and ethnic lines from the early 1900s to the early 1990s? (Gr.9)
FET: What was so significant about the Haitian Revolution? (Gr.10)

c) Cause and Effect

Historical change is driven by multiple causes and its multiple effects involve individuals or groups taking action in different contexts. An event or process can be influenced by short-term and long-term causes, and often there is a 'trigger' which may spark an event or action. Historians often debate which one of many causes was more significant than others and what is the compound effect of several causal factors. The outcome of similar causes (such as unemployment, or a harvest failure) is neither predictable nor inevitable because they occur in different contexts. Similarly, the effects of an event or process cannot always be predicted and will impact people and places differently. Just as there are short-term and long-term 'causes', so there will be short-term and long-term effects. Scale is important to consider because some actions have global impacts while others may have local impacts or may be limited to a specific group of people.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'cause and effect':

IP: What happened when people started to settle in one place, grow their own crops and keep their own livestock in Mesopotamia c.5000 years ago? (Gr 6)
SP: Explain the possible causes of the Mfecane/Difaqane. (Gr 8)
FET: Evaluate the social, political, environmental and health impact the Dutch and English voyages of 'discovery' had on Africa and the Americas. (Gr 11)

d) Continuity and Change

Continuity' refers to things staying the same while 'change', which means alterations from what has gone before. Such change/s may vary in scale, pace and intensity. Both processes are experienced differently by people and importantly, change does not necessarily mean progress. School history often focuses on turning points and sudden changes in political leadership, such as revolutions, which may bring about significant changes to the social, economic, ideological or political life; however, underlying these changes may be profound structural continuities. Change in the archaeological past may appear to be very slow. Early modern humans appear to use the same tools, for tens of thousands of years, but we need to remember that evidence based on bone, wood and fibre tools, for example, may deteriorate with age and often do not preserve. The absence of these records creates the impression of an unchanging, static past. However, in certain cave sites where preservation is good, archaeologists can still gain a clear picture of change over time; they can detect the first use of body adornment, ochre, and complex tools. This enables them to assess how human behaviour, diet, hunting techniques, health and social systems changed over time.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'change and continuity:

IP: How has the medium of communication changed over time? (Gr 4)
SP: How did trade centres, routes, goods and local societies change over time? (Gr 7)
FET: How did nature and governance of kingdoms change as they become more centralised? (Gr 11)

e) The concept of using 'multi-perspectivity and interpretations'

One of the goals of the new History curriculum is to shift the vantage point from which events and processes in the past are viewed, to position the learner in Africa and to view events from the vantage point of Africa. This involves 'de-centring' or 'provincialising' the histories of Europe and the global North. In the past, stories of and about the global North have been the focus of versions of the South African school curricula in terms of content, questions asked, archives consulted, and interpretations privileged. Examining multiple perspectives does not mean that all viewpoints are equally valid. Indeed, any claims made about the past must be supported with evidence.

Working with multi-perspectivity involves:

- Recognising that different perspectives about past events exist and that different people may have understood events or processes differently in the past. (This does not necessarily mean that learners must 'accept' these perspectives).
- Identifying the different interpretations people had of past events at the time they occurred.
- Examining possible reasons why people in the past thought and acted as they did and recognising that they made choices in the context in which they were living.
- Examining the different ways in which historians and archaeologists interpreted and represented the past over time, using the evidence available (as in the relevant historiography). For example, today, working with different technologies and with different sources of evidence, archaeologists and historians can look for evidence to support or refute what earlier historians have written.
- Understanding that historians and archaeologists may ask very different questions about the past (due to their personal interest and curiosity, or the concerns of the time in which they are writing) or focus their enquiries on groups of people who were previously marginalised or unseen.
- Examining how different people today interpret the actions and behaviour of people of the past.
- Examining the different ways in which events or processes in the past have been and are represented. For example, as academic history, art, tradition, orality, music, literature, film, memorials etc.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept 'multi-perspectivity and Interpretations':

IP: Why do names of places and landmarks often have a story linked to them – a local legend or hero – that might be remembered differently by different groups of people? (Gr 4)
SP: How have the roles played by different historical personalities/characters in this period been remembered? (Gr 7)
FET: How have different scholars critiqued claims that 'tribalism' is a defining feature of African societies? (Gr 10)

2. Historical Culture

Historical culture refers to 'people's relationships to the past'. It involves investigating how people deal with the past, the meanings it is given, and the uses to which 'history' is put in contemporary society. Historical knowledge is constructed in many different spaces outside academic writing, and learners need to engage critically with a variety of tangible and intangible representations of the past – for example, social practices and traditions, heritage sites and memorials, art, literature, music, film, social media, gaming, etc.

One very important area of historical culture is heritage. Heritage refers to the cultural, historical, and natural legacy that is passed down from previous generations and chosen to be preserved for future generations. It includes tangible and intangible aspects of that society's past, for example, buildings, monuments, and artefacts, as well as traditions, languages, customs, rituals, knowledge systems, and natural landscapes. Heritage can provide a sense of belonging and continuity by connecting such people to their roots and their shared cultural values. As such, it plays an important role in shaping the identity of individuals, communities, and nations. Heritage and heritage sites have immense educational value and this curriculum encourages teachers to use local examples when constructing classroom enquiries, projects or planning field trips.

The study of historical culture in the school classroom enables learners to ask critical questions about popular representations and the ideological uses of the past, as well as the social consequences of these representations. For example, historical representations can be used for narrow patriotic or more inclusive purposes; they can be used to divide as well as unite certain groups within a society. History can be used to recognise multiple voices from the past, including those which are missing from official histories, or to selectively promote one group. For example, the role played by women and children in past events and processes are often left out of official historical narratives.

Research projects in every grade provide opportunities for History learners to explore how the past is remembered in public and political spaces, by whom and how these representations have changed over time. For example, a heritage project might research changes in South African street names, memorials or public holidays.

Examples of enquiry questions which explore Historical Culture:

IP: Explore whether and why some of the places you know are called something else by local people as different from the official maps (Gr 4)
SP: Why has June 16 become the public holiday, Youth Day' since 1994? (Gr 9)
FET: Evaluate the usefulness and reliability of oral testimonies and traditions captured in written collections of slave narratives for answering questions about the living and working conditions of enslaved people, e.g., Henry Louis Gates Jnr's *Classic Slave Narratives*: *Biographies and Autobiographies of Former Slaves* (1987). (G11)

3. Historical Consciousness

Historical consciousness is the understanding an individual has of his or her place in time. It is the capacity to meaningfully remember and interpret historical events, their significance and meanings to people over time. Through historical consciousness, a person understands that there is a past, that it shapes the present, and that we too are shaping a future that others will live through. It means that we are conscious of being a part of a much longer story (and many stories therein), a story that neither begins nor ends with us. This speaks of having an awareness of change over time.

In the 2002 *Report of the History & Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education* presented to Minister Kader Asmal, it is recognised that history education is important in the development and refinement of a person's sense of history and historical consciousness:

> … we have to recognise the fact that everyone has a form of historical consciousness. This historical consciousness is not crafted on a blank slate by teachers in schools, or by professional historians in universities. It is created in and by the family, the community, churches, the media and other areas of communication, interacting with individual experience. In this, the value of the formal study of history is that it aims to develop this latent consciousness into a conscious consciousness. To be sure, if the present situation is one in which the formal study of history continues to be either ignored or neglected, there is a real danger of robbing future generations of a sense of how they have come to be what they are.

Through history education of various forms, we develop a more complex consciousness of processes of change. This in turn helps us see the past in its context as well as to exercise informed and complex judgments about this past. A well-developed sense of historical consciousness emerges from a combination of history skills and abilities that reveal how humanity constructs and deploys historical narratives. These skills are gained by engaging actively with history in everyday life as well as through the formal study of the past.

By understanding that we too are historical agents who will be subject to judgments, historical consciousness helps us to develop a humanistic approach to our understanding of historical events even if we did not live through them. It creates the ability to reason empathetically when we think and debate about how and why human beings have acted in certain ways in the past. Empathetic reasoning does not mean that we condone or accept any historical actions, in contrast, it means that we can understand the complex choices faced by people in the past to analyse and judge their actions. By being able to understand the past in context, as well as how human beings connect to each other, and to ourselves, over time, we can make normative judgments and draw moral lessons from history without being superficial and overly simplistic about what has gone before.

Examples of Historical Consciousness in the Curriculum

IP: Between Grade 4 and Grade 6, learners develop the ability to place themselves in a timeline. This means they are aware that they come at a certain point in a timeline even though they cannot accurately organise timescales or identify specific time periods. They may not be able to represent time correctly with numbers or quantities, but they can imagine the idea of 'time before them' or 'long, long ago'.

At this stage, a child can understand that parents, grandparents and other elders come from a time before their existence. They also can imagine that there was a world long ago in which there were legends and mythical or extinct creatures. Clan names (genealogy), folktales (imagined time) and archaeological exploration (material changes) play a critical role in developing this historical consciousness in the learner.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

Who am I? What are my names and what do they mean? (G4)

SP: Between Grade 7 and Grade 9 a learner is making connections to his or her place within social and political communities and their identities within a continental and global context.

The learner will develop an idea about their national history, and how their particular community situates itself in this history and begins to ask questions about the past and how it connects to the immediate present of their particular community. At this phase, the curriculum shows the inter-connectedness between the national, the continental and the global.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

What were the responses to and interactions of African societies on the western coastal region and the semi-interior when European merchant traders arrived between the late 1400s and 1650? (G7)

FET – Between Grade 10 and Grade 12 the learner is maturing cognitively and has begun to develop a strong political sense about their world. The curriculum prompts them to question history, how it is produced and why there are multiple perspectives. Learners will want to draw their own conclusions and make considered judgments about the past. The curriculum aims to provide the learner with the capability to deal with the high level of contentiousness and politics of history within a global context.

For example, the emergence of the Cold War, as well as anti-colonial struggles (including the South African liberation struggle) produced forms of organising, resistance, leadership and geo-political conflict that may seem a world away from learners' sense of the world today. The task of the history curriculum is to orientate learners through this complicated modern period and help them to develop a sense of historical consciousness; to assist them in fitting into these events and how, for example, the current democratic dispensation came about.

A deeper awareness of time is developed through more advanced studying of precolonial topics, and also the important historical events such as the Anglo-Pedi and Anglo-Zulu Wars. The Anglo-Zulu War is particularly of global significance because the 1879 Battle of Isandlwana was a major defeat for the British Empire of that epoch. The war sparked the inspiration and admiration of indigenous resistance worldwide, even in the United Kingdom itself where the Anglo-Zulu War remains an important aspect of heritage. Historical consciousness means that learners develop more complex frameworks for understanding the global legacies of events that have occurred within South Africa.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

Do you agree that South Africa has attained political freedom but that economic inequalities have remained unchanged, and the struggle continues for economic freedom? (G12)

How can the different concepts of 'history' (Historical thinking, Historical culture and Historical consciousness) work together in a school classroom?

For example: Make a study of the battle that was fought at the Ncome River ('Blood River') in 1838. Faced with this question, learners might choose to study what happened on the day of the battle through the critical 'reading' of a variety of historical source materials from and about the events of the day. Alternatively, they may decide to study the different interpretations that have been generated by academic and public historians, using historical sources to deliberate on the cause and effect of the battle and to construct a written argument in answer to a historically valid question. This process would develop learners' **historical thinking** skills.

They might also explore the changing significance of the events at the Ncome River in 1838 by studying other forms of tangible and intangible representation and memorialisation. For example, learners might research why this event came to be commemorated as a public holiday on 16 December in the late 19th century, delving into why and when the name of this holiday shifted from Dingaan's Day, the Day of the Vow and the Day of the Covenant, to the Day of Reconciliation. Other learners might elect to examine why different groups in South Africa have commemorated this day or look at the significance of the ANC's decision to launch its military wing, uMkhonto we Sizwe, on 16 December 1961. They might study artistic, musical, film or social media representations of the battle, or write a critical analysis of the two memorials as heritage sites that have been built on both sides of the Ncome River.

This examination of **historical culture**, and the public uses of the past, develops learners' understanding of the importance of history in society which in turn develops their **historical consciousness**. As they study the presence of the past in the present and engage critically with the multiple forms in which the past is embodied, represented and disseminated, learners can better appreciate the importance of the study of History and begin to construct an understanding of their own place in history, which in turn will inform their sense of possibility for the future. The goal of school History, then, is to provide learners with the disciplinary knowledge, conceptual tools and rich learning opportunities to make sense of their present position in society, through the analysis of various representations of the past, and to imagine possible and different futures.

Historical Sources and Evidence

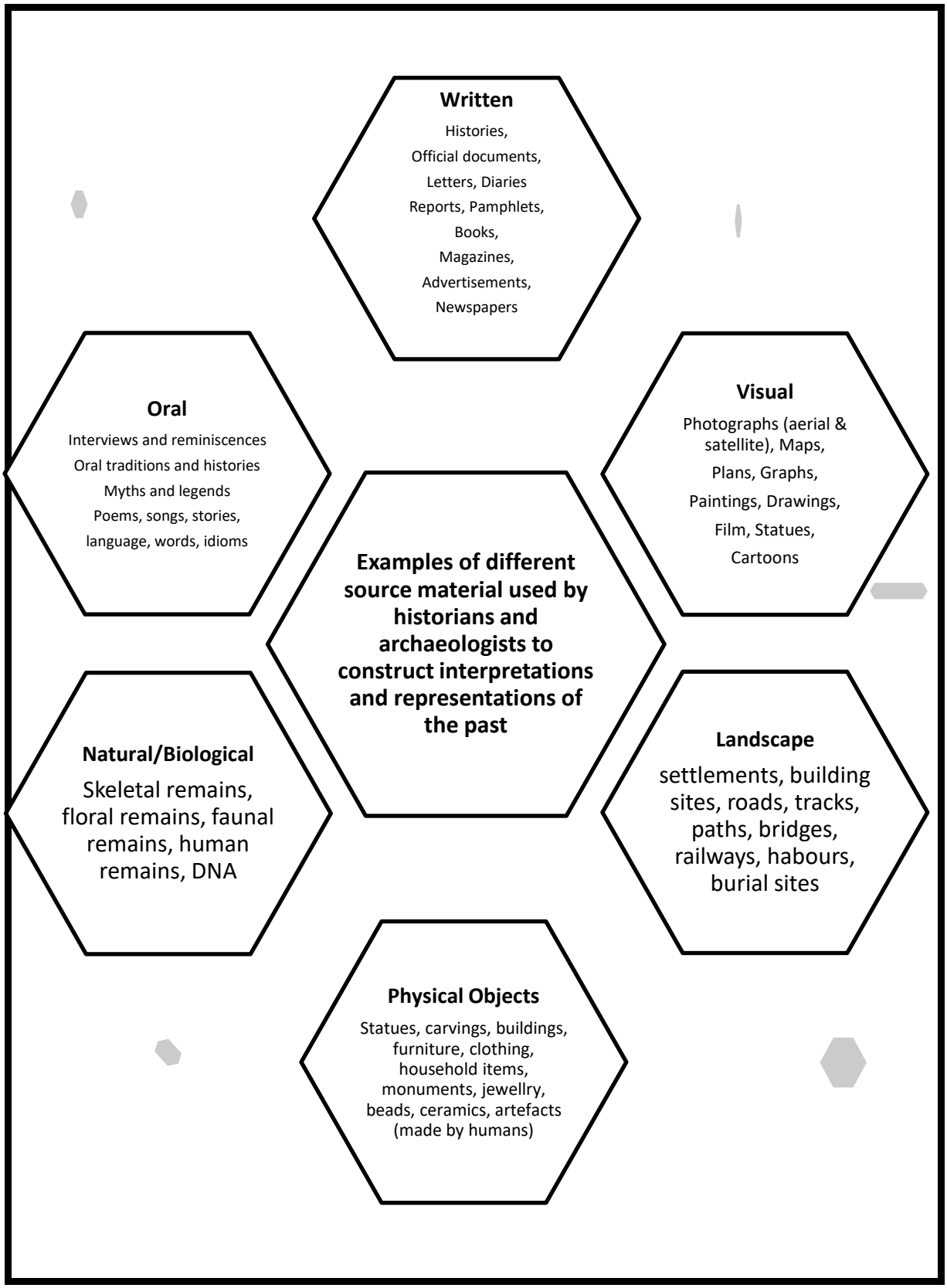
History is not merely 'the past'. History is a version of the past constructed through a process of asking questions about the past and interpreting and evaluating traces or fragments which survive from the past. In school History, we usually refer to these traces or fragments of the past as 'sources'. Historical 'sources' become 'evidence' when they are used to answer questions about the past through a process of enquiry.

Interpretations of the past are arrived at after sifting through all the available evidence. However, these interpretations may differ because the record is incomplete, or the historian has a particular viewpoint or focus that they want to develop (for example, economic or environmental history, the history of medicine, or struggles for equality). Or historians might choose to ask questions and view the sources through a particular theoretical lens (for example, Marxism, Feminism or Pan-Africanism). Historians may ask different questions about the same sources or interpret the same sources differently (this body of historical information is known as historiography). However, historians must always provide the evidence on which their claims are made about the past.

In school History, learners are taught about the past and learn how historical accounts about the past are constructed. By working critically with historical source materials, learners then answer questions and develop the skills of thinking, reading, and writing 'like a historian'. The process of working critically with historical sources involves identification, classification, selection, extraction, interpretation, analysis, and perspectival recognition, as well as the evaluation of the usefulness or reliability of different sources to answer historical questions.

Over the grades, learners are taught to use the information gained from a range of different historical source materials (examples of which are given in the figure below) as evidence to answer questions about the past. They learn to support a line of argument and to construct substantiated pieces of historical writing, to make oral presentations and to participate in discussions and debates, thereby producing creative representations of past events.

Source materials from the past can take many forms as illustrated below.



The Process of Enquiry

'History is a process of enquiry'. Central to the process of constructing histories is to ask questions about the past. To answer these questions, historians study what other historians have already written (as featured in the histography), and they also study relics or traces (historical sources) which remain from the past. They analyse, interpret and evaluate these historical sources and use them as evidence to answer their questions about the past – i.e. information from historical sources is used as evidence to support knowledge claims made about the Who? What? Where? When? Why? How? What? and So What? of the past.

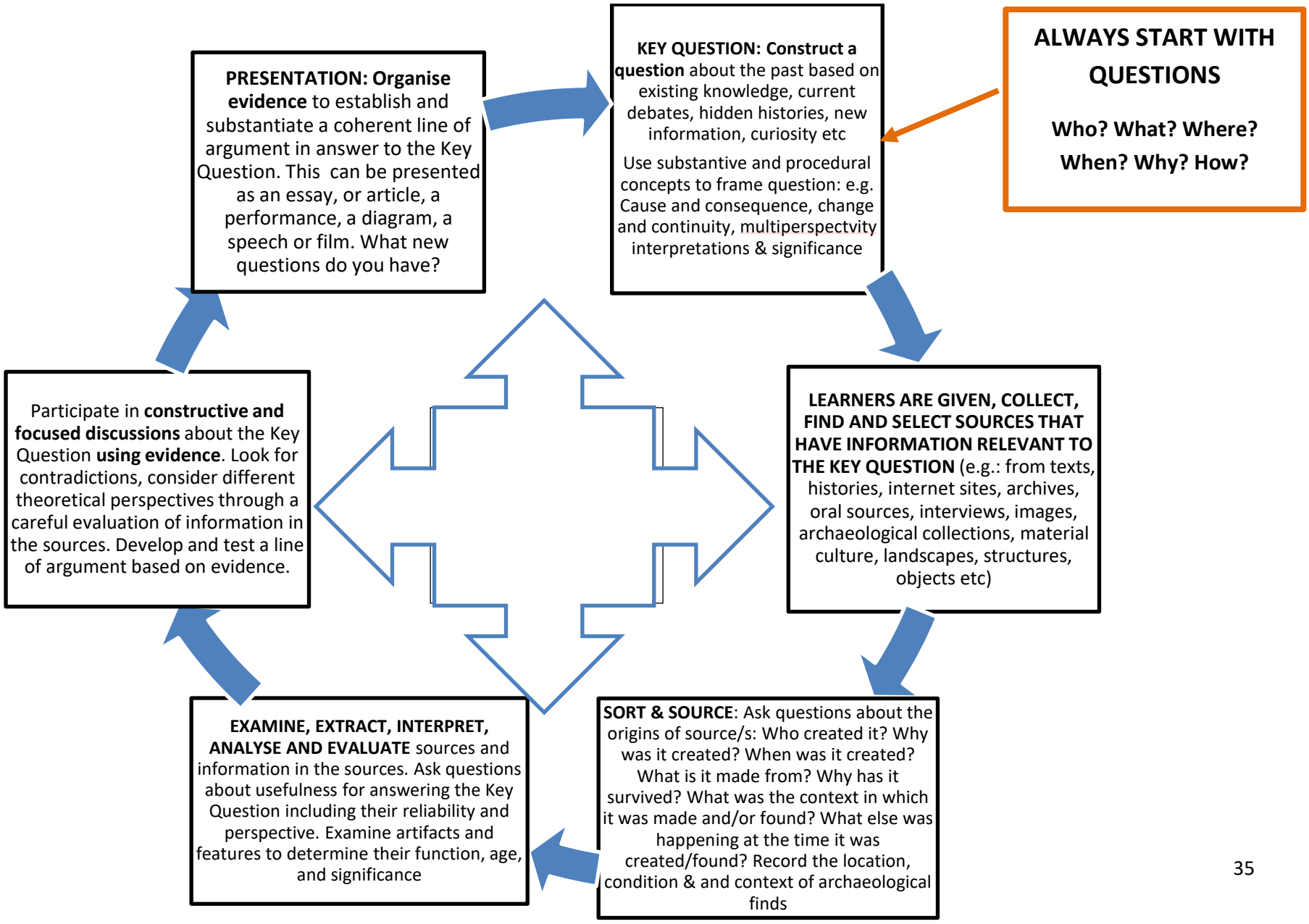
Studying history at school involves hearing and reading stories about the past, but it also involves learning about how those stories were constructed and how they have changed over time. Through explicit teaching, history learners will develop thinking tools to evaluate all historical source material critically, including the different stories that have been constructed about the past (histories).

As academic disciplines, history and archaeology have their own methods and procedures. Underpinning both these disciplines is a process of enquiry about the past which always begins and is driven forward **by asking questions**.

One of the specific aims of the school history curriculum is **'To develop an ability to understand and undertake a process of historical enquiry, which uses a range of archaeological and historical sources as evidence to make knowledgeable claims about the past**'.

To enable learners to develop the competency to undertake a process of enquiry, every topic in the content framework, as outlined in Chapter/Section 3, is organised around a 'Key Question'. The key questions in this curriculum are informed by current debates and interests among academic or public historians. Some are of **local** interest, while others are of **global** interest.

The image below illustrates the enquiry process that learners are guided through over a series of lessons to equip them to answer the overarching Key Question for each topic. Learners will follow a similar process when they conduct their own research projects although the level of support given will be determined by their grade level.


ALWAYS START WITH QUESTIONS
Who? What? Where? When? Why? How?
KEY QUESTION: Construct a question about the past based on existing knowledge, current debates, hidden histories, new information, curiosity etc
Use substantive and procedural concepts to frame question: e.g. Cause and consequence, change and continuity, multiperspectvity interpretations & significance
LEARNERS ARE GIVEN, COLLECT, FIND AND SELECT SOURCES THAT HAVE INFORMATION RELEVANT TO THE KEY QUESTION (e.g.: from texts, histories, internet sites, archives, oral sources, interviews, images, archaeological collections, material culture, landscapes, structures, objects etc)
SORT & SOURCE: Ask questions about the origins of source/s: Who created it? Why was it created? When was it created? What is it made from? Why has it survived? What was the context in which it was made and/or found? What else was happening at the time it was created/found? Record the location, condition & and context of archaeological finds
EXAMINE, EXTRACT, INTERPRET, ANALYSE AND EVALUATE sources and information in the sources. Ask questions about usefulness for answering the Key Question including their reliability and perspective. Examine artifacts and features to determine their function, age, and significance
Participate in constructive and focused discussions about the Key Question using evidence. Look for contradictions, consider different theoretical perspectives through a careful evaluation of information in the sources. Develop and test a line of argument based on evidence.
PRESENTATION: Organise evidence to establish and substantiate a coherent line of argument in answer to the Key Question. This can be presented as an essay, or article, a performance, a diagram, a speech or film. What new questions do you have?

How content, concepts and enquiry work together in the curriculum

One of the main concerns expressed by school history teachers regarding the curriculum is 'content overload'. However, if content is organised into lesson sequences or 'enquiries' which pose and answer the 'Key Questions' that are posed, it is easier for teachers to evaluate the depth at which the curriculum content should be studied. Enquiries may begin with a lesson or two allowing learners to develop a broad overview of a period or process, after which they may spend a few lessons taking a 'deep dive' into a case study or examining a specific aspect of the topic.

Key Questions are used to provide focus and to frame the content throughout the Curriculum from Grade 4 to Grade 12 for a number of different reasons:

- Questions convey that history is a discipline of enquiry and not just received knowledge
- Historical knowledge is open-ended, debated and changeable
- History lessons should be built around the intrigue of the relevant questions
- Historical research, investigation and interpretation is driven by these questions

The key questions used to frame enquiries and drive them forward should be:

- Interesting (something the learners will enjoy answering)
- Open-ended (not a question that can be answered with a single word)
- Encourage the learners to explore hidden histories and bring to the surface the perspectives or voices of those who have been previously marginalised or silenced.
- Historically relevant (an issue of interest or debate in the historical literature)
- Constructed around substantive and procedural historical concepts

History teachers should plan enquiries that enable their learners to build knowledge systematically and cumulatively to answer historical questions. As noted, each topic in Chapter 3 has at least one overarching 'Key Question' and the content framework is sub-divided into smaller sections which can be organised around sub-questions. The time allocations in the curriculum provide a guide for teachers because they are arranged into weekly, termly and annual teaching plans.

Integration of historical content with concepts in an enquiry process

Each topic has a suggested Key Question. The topic can be further divided into three or four enquiries of four to six lessons, depending on the grade level and the topics are also organised around a Key Question. These enquiries should be structured using the suggestions given in the text with the opening sentence: 'How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry process?'

For example:

By the end of Term 4 in Grade 6, learners should be able to answer the Key Question: 'What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?' They might answer this question through a piece of writing, an oral presentation, a class discussion, or even the construction of a poster or video. To answer this overarching Key Question for the topic, the 10 hours allocated to History in Term 4 can be divided into three enquiries of 3 hours each. The content and activities in each enquiry will be scaffolded to answer one of the following questions:

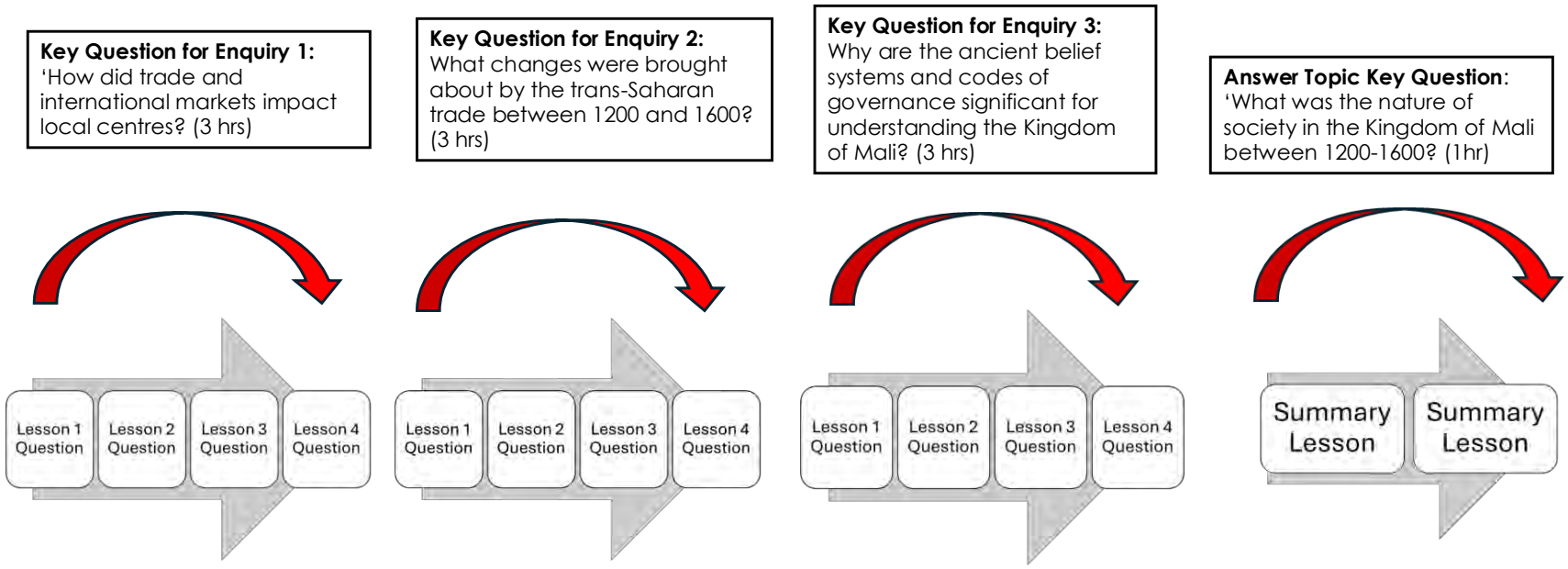
1) 'How did trade and international markets impact local centres?' (3 hours)
2) What changes were brought about by the trans-Saharan trade in the period from 1200 to about 1600? (3 hours)
3) Why are the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (in that particular society) significant for understanding the Kingdom of Mali? (3 hours)

History enquiries should include both direct instruction and guided opportunities for learners to work with a variety of primary and secondary historical and archaeological source materials to find answers to the questions posed.

See for example below:

Grade 6: Term 4	
Topic: : The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu c. 1200- 1600	
Key Question: What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?	**Suggested contact time:** 10 hours
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? Learners will be able to: ● recognise the impact of trade and international markets on local centres (cause and effect) ● consider the changes brought about by the trans-Saharan trade (change and continuity) ● appreciate the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (significance)	

Topic Key Question: What was the Nature of Society in the Kingdom of Mali between 1200 and 1600?



Integration of content with concepts and the enquiry process in FET

Grade 12: Term 1	
Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the Late 19th and 20th Century	
Key Question: How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th century?	**Suggested contact time:** **5 weeks (20 hours)**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand that the mineral revolution and industrialisation which began during the late 19th century were crucial in bringing about British Imperialism and colonisation of South Africa, which laid the seed of both African and Afrikaner nationalism (Time and Chronology) • Recognise that industrialisation, mining capital and British imperialism led to the rise of Afrikaner and African nationalisms as well as workers' consciousness (Cause and Effect) • Assess different interpretations of the impact of British imperialism and industrialisation, e.g. Marxist, Liberal, and Afrikaner nationalist schools of thought, African perspectives (Multiperspectivity) • Recognise that Imperialism and Capitalism changed the nature of economic development in South Africa in which race and nationalism became primary factors. (Change and Continuity) • Recognise the lasting impact of capitalism in the racially-based economic development of South Africa (Significance)	

The overarching Key Question which learners should be able to answer by the end of Term 1 in Grade 12 is, "How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th century?"

Teachers have 5 weeks to introduce content and provide learning opportunities that will enable learners to answer this question. Teachers could organise the content framework into three enquiries of 4-6 lessons in order to answer sub-questions constructed from statements that integrate the content with historical concepts into enquiries. For example:

1. Why did the events and processes which began during the 19th century mineral revolution lay the seeds for both African and Afrikaner nationalism?
2. How have different interpretations explained the significance of the mineral revolution in South African history?
3. What have been the lasting consequences of racial capitalism in South Africa?

Learning Activities

Lesson sequences should incorporate a range of different pedagogies including direct instruction, structured and guided source-based activities as well as opportunities for oral presentations, class discussions and role-play. Pedagogies selected should be appropriate to context, the content being taught and the age of learner.

Suggestions for activities which could be used as assessment FOR learning activities are given at the end of each topic in Chapter 3. Learners could present their findings to the Key Questions in different forms of writing, as well as classroom discussions, performance, digital and oral presentations.

Developing a sound knowledge of dates, names and events is important so that learners can use this information for higher-order analysis and constructing an argument. This may involve quick quizzes or 'memory' work as part of assessment FOR learning. However, tasks such as **multiple-choice questions (MCQs), True/False, Matching columns etc** should **not** be used for formal assessment OF learning tasks.

Working with History after school

The new history curriculum allows ALL learners to learn about history, to learn through history and to learn from history. In addition to developing specific and specialised historical knowledge, studying history also develops critical reasoning and analytical skills, including the capacity for solving problems and thinking creatively and the ability to ask questions and summarise information from a variety of source materials to construct an argument. History prepares learners to communicate answers to questions clearly and persuasively, in both oral and written forms, using supporting evidence. Studying history also teaches learners to question overly simplistic answers to problems; to grapple with complexity and nuance; and to understand that many different factors influence the actions of individuals and groups in societies. It teaches learners that all these issues change over time and in different contexts.

For learners who develop a special interest in the past and its representations, or who are curious about how the past relates to the present, there are several possible places in which they could work with history, in its broadest meaning, after school. Examples are schools and universities, heritage sites, libraries and archives, museums and art galleries. learners with a love of history are also well suited to work in a number of different sectors, for example diplomacy, education, journalism and media, the arts and performance and technology.

2.5 OVERVIEW OF TOPICS

SUMMARY: CONTENT OVERVIEW HISTORY INTERMEDIATE PHASE			
TERM	**GRADE 4**	**GRADE 5**	**GRADE 6**
1	Personal History	Fire	Evidence for an ancient African past
2	My Community	Metals	Mesopotamia and fertile crescent (c 5000 years ago)
3	Our Histories	Food	Egypt (c 3000 years ago)
4	Modes of communication	Transport	The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu (c 1200 - 1600

SUMMARY: CONTENT OVERVIEW HISTORY INTERMEDIATE PHASE			
TERM	**GRADE 7**	**GRADE 8**	**GRADE 9**
1	International Trade between the Southern African Interior and the Eurasian World (800 – 1600 CE)	Mfecane / Difaqane: Indigenous political and military Changes in the Pre-industrial Era 1780s and 1830s	Race and Racism: pseudo-science and the Entrenchment of Social inequalities during the 19th Century
2	Pre-colonial economies of the semi-arid societies from 2500 years ago up to the early 1600s	The Industrial Revolution: Britain	Segregation: The Implementation of segregationist policies in South Africa: Education from the 19th Century to the late 20th Century
3	Colonization, resistance, and social change in the cape region 1650s-1800s	The impact of industrialization in Southern Africa (1860s – 1900s)	Gender and Human Rights: Women, women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910 – 1960
4	African Towns and Cities in the Southern African Interior c1700 – 1820s	South African War to 1910	World War II (1919 – 1945). Second World War and its lasting impact on the international community.

SUMMARY: CONTENT OVERVIEW HISTORY INTERMEDIATE PHASE			
TERM	**GRADE 10**	**GRADE 11**	**GRADE 12**
1	**Topic 1:** Societies of the Wider World – Case Studies of different civilizations Compulsory: Egypt Middle Kingdom and India Mughal Empire Choice: China, South America, Greece	**Topic 1**: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 15th to 18th centuries. Case Study – Spanish and Portuguese	**Topic 1**: The Politics and Economics
	Topic 2: Ancient Ethiopia before 1600 CE and the use	**Topic 2**: Europe comes into contact with the	**Topic 2**: The National Question in South Africa. The Formation

	of myths and legends in History as Discipline	wider world during the 16th to the 19th century case study- Dutch and English	of the National Party, African National Congress, and Communist Party of South Africa in the early 20th century.
2	**Topic 3:** The rise and fall/ decline of Ancient African Empires in History (up to 1500 CE) Case Study: Mali	**Topic 3**: Slavery, Slave Resistance, and Haitian Revolution	**Topic 3:** The Cold War and the Rise of anti-colonial Struggles
			Topic 4: The Era of Liberation struggles and the politics of Apartheid South Africa on the African continent
3	**Topic 4:** Precolonial African Kingdoms and Empires in Southern Africa 1100 CE to 1500 CE Case Study: Great Zimbabwe	**Topic 4**: Political Centralisation and the African Kingdom in Southern Africa up to the 19th century. Case studies Bapedi and Zulu Kingdoms	**Topic 5**: The roles of the individual leaders in history during the Apartheid period. Case Studies- Oliver Tambo, PW Botha
	Topic 5: Social, Cultural, and Political Organisation of African Societies since the 1750s Case Study: Sotho, Pedi, Tswana Polities ('Tried, tribalism and ethnicity)	**Topics 5**: The scramble for Africa. Case Study: Belgian Congo	**Topic 6**: The coming of democracy in South Africa and coming to terms with the past.
4	**Topic 6:** Achievements of African People since Ancient Times		

SECTION 3

Grade 7: Term 1	
Topic: International Trade between the Southern African Interior and the Eurasian World (800 – 1600 CE?)	
Key Question: How do we know that southern Africa was connected to global trade networks between 800-1600CE	**Suggested Contact Time:** **15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process:

Learners will be able to:

- recognise the nature and kind of evidence for international trade or exchange networks (sources of evidence)
- recognise the significance of sea trade (significance)
- describe changes in the trade centres, routes, goods and local societies over time (change and continuity)
- consider the impact of international trade – what stays the same and what changes in African societies (cause and effect)

Overview of topic

The Indian Ocean has for centuries enabled a thriving trade between Southeast Asia and the African east coast. It was one of many intercontinental trade routes in global history. Sailors, migrants, and traders relied on the Indian Ocean monsoon winds and traditional sailing vessels known as dhows to travel between coastal cities, ports, and islands. Navigation required a range of maritime skills and instruments that emerged within Chinese and Islamic societies at the time.

Archaeological evidence for trade items in southern Africa, along with early documents, provides insight into who was trading and what was being traded between 800 CE and 1600 CE. This evidence shows an extensive exchange of various trade goods within African societies along the coast and into the interior. There was also an unintended introduction of new animals and plants. Over time, the Indian Ocean trade led to the emergence of the Swahili language and culture along the East African coast, as well as other forms of social change.

The Shashe-Limpopo basin provides evidence of changes in social structure over this period with the emergence of trading interior societies such as Mapungubwe and Great Zimbabwe. This shows us that Africa was connected with other societies over long distances across the world. The oceans were not barriers but highways of trade and exchange, demonstrating that Africa was not isolated but connected to the rest of the world**.**

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- timelines - revise Before Common Era (BCE), Common Era (CE) and Before Present (BP) and place this topic in time.
- the main global sea and land trade routes before 1600CE on a map: Silk Road, Mediterranean Sea, Trans-Saharan Trade Route, Pacific Trade Routes, Indian Ocean Sea Route. Discuss what goods were traded, how they were traded and who was controlling each route.

(3 hours)

- Indian Ocean Coastal trade, focusing on trade winds (monsoons), navigation methods and systems: maps, compasses and instruments of the time. Challenges faced by sailing ships on the seas.
- intended and unintended consequences of trade (exchange of cultural ideas and religious beliefs, shipwrecks, mixing of people of different languages and cultures, introduction of new animals and plants, spreading of new diseases)

(3 hour)

- the development of trading societies in southern Africa focusing on K2, Mapungubwe, and Great Zimbabwe: the kind of resources traded for example, ivory, gold, skin, cotton and the changes this brought about in society; the connection between the coast, main trade sites and interior networks in southern and eastern African

(5 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Identify the location of several global trade routes of this era on a map (seas, continents)
- Identify some of the southern African archaeological sites where trade has been detected
- List the main trade items that were moving between trade centres – in and out of Africa
- Describe navigation techniques and technologies
- Discuss the positives and negatives of sailing to foreign places – pirates, bad weather, boats wrecking
- consider relationships with people at the coastal ports, especially when they do not speak the same language
- Use what has been learnt to write a travelogue of a traveller on the Indian Ocean trade route at this time
- Explain some of the unintended consequences of trade links, such as the exchanges of ideas, beliefs, languages, the introduction of new animals, plants and diseases
- Describe the changes that occurred in the Shashe-Limpopo basin leading up the occupation of Great Zimbabwe

Assessment of learning (formal/summative) (3 Hours)

Standardized Test: Source-based questions (45 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)

Grade 7: Term 2	
Topic: Precolonial economies of the semi-arid societies from up to the early 1600s	
Key Question: How did sheep and cattle become an important part of the semi-arid societies of southern Africa by 1600 CE?	**Suggested contact time:** **10 hours**

How does this topic integrate concepts and historical enquiry processes:

The learner will be able to:

- Recognise the ways in which different sources of evidence such as folklore, place names, oral traditions and testimony, archaeology and early Europeans records, portray/ convey history of Khoekhoe and San people (sources of evidence)
- Recognise the economies and culture of the semi-arid areas changed with the emergence of livestock herding (change and continuity)
- Understand the importance of socio-cultural legacies of San and Khoekhoe cultures in southern African (significance)
- Explain how and why some early trade interactions between indigenous people and Europeans were beneficial while others were conflictual (cause and effect)

Overview of Topic

This term focuses on the economic developments in the precolonial societies of the western semi-arid regions of southern Africa from about 2500 years ago to the 1600s. This region is largely in today's Northern Cape, Western Cape as well as part of the North-West, and Eastern Cape provinces. The major change of this period was the incorporation of livestock herding alongside the hunter-gather way of life of the region from 500BCE to 800 CE. In the pre-cattle indigenous cultures, animals such as the eland, praying mantis and others emerged as spiritually important. Over timed, sheep an cattle would also become important symbols of culture in southern Africa. Trade networks across the region also provided people with items which they themselves did not make or those which they desired to trade in exchange for their own surplus goods. Some of the items traded with other Africans were copper, iron, ceramic pots, salt, beads and livestock. Between 800CE and 1600CE cattle herding developed as a strong economic pillar of the semi-arid regions. In the late 1400s, indigenous societies began to trade their cattle with European merchant ships along the Cape shores. The trade between indigenous people and the merchant ships between 1480s and early 1600s would result in some benefits but also serious conflicts.

Focus:
The teacher should introduce:

- Historical overview of San/Bushmen societies of southern Africa:

  - Explain that there were thousands of years of indigenoussocial life and culture in southern Africa before cattle, sheep and goats were introduced into the region
  - Establish that diverse San/ Bushmen/ abaThwa societies occupied much of southern Africa for the past 20 000 - 40 000 years including their living descendants today across the country (some still culturally identifiable today e.g clans, lineages and communities in the KwaZulu-Natal Drakensberg areas, Upington, Kimberley, Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho etc)
  - South Africa's national motto which is written in /Xam language and a brief history of /Xam people
  - Scientific and Cultural legacies

- Rock art: Depictions of social and economic life, the importance of animals for example, the eland to some San communities and how animal depictions showed a special relationship with certain animals (eland, praying mantis, etc)
- Artistic expression: showing the importance cultural symbols also captured through language, idiom, folklore, mythologies, ornaments/ adornments
- Scientific developments and legacies (technologies and techniques, medicinal, environment and nature)

o Economic production early indigenous societies San/Bushmen before sheep and cattle: Food harvesting, hunting, production, preparation and storage techniques across diverse environmental landscapes

(2 hours)

- Rise of pastoral societies and economy in semi-arid region of southern Africa:
  - o Size and natural features of semi-arid region including the Atlantic coastline and adjacent Namibia and Botswana arid regions (e.g. rainfall, plants and animals)
  - o One or two Northern Cape place names in the Khoekhoe/Nama/San-languages
  - o Introduction of livestock through trade and exchange of livestock by ancestral San and Khoekhoe people around 500 BCE
    - Introduction of fat-tailed sheep, goats later
    - Spread and entrenchment of cattle in the Kalahari, Nama and Karoo semi-arid areas by 500CE through trade and exchange from other parts of Africa and societies (e.g. trading cattle with agropastoral, iron-producing societies)
    - What sheep and cattle add to a society's resource base
  - o Use of diverse food preparation, production and storage methods by Khoekhoe people (hunting, fish trapping, gathering, ceramic pottery etc)
  - o Architectural and indigenous building techniques in Khoekhoe economic life over time
  - o Study of cattle in the social and economic life of the semi-arid region
    - When evidence of cattle herding is shown in rock art
    - Environmental knowledge needed for livestock and sheep management by Khoekhoe pastoralists
    - What cattle are used for: meat and milk products, leather technology, use of cattle as transportation, cattle rearing science and techniques and role of women, men, children
    - Cattle in sports, recreation, conflict amongst indigenous people

    (4 hours)

- Trade and warfare over livestock with European merchant traders up to 1488 – 1650:
  - o Reasons Europeans on Indies voyages needed to trade with indigenous people for sheep and cattle (archival descriptions of Khoekhoe sheep and cattle herds by Europeans of the time can be provided)
  - o How indigenous people traded to their benefit and also why there was sometime conflict with Europeans
    - Mossel Bay incident 1488 (First recorded conflictual encounter)
    - Defeat of Viceroy De Almedia 1510 (First recorded military defeat of Europeans by southern African indigenous people)
    - Xhore 1613 (First recorded abduction of indigenous southern African Khoi by European merchants)

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to

- Identify and describe main ecological characteristics of the broad semi-arid region of South Africa
- Demonstrate importance of Khoekhoe and San languages to South African history by using example of South African motto and a place name in those languages
- Describe the cultural and economic life of the historical San-Bushmen and Khoekhoe indigenous societies, their knowledges and technologies through time
- Describe how sheep and cattle came through trade and migration of Khoekhoe pastoralists from other parts of Africa
- Describe the many ways cattle were used and managed by Khoekhoe people
- Explain why Europeans needed to trade with indigenous people
- How trade with Europeans benefitted and also caused conflicts with indigenous people

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

Mid-year exam to cover Term 1 and 2

Grade 7: Term 3
Topic: Colonisation, resistance and social change in the Cape region 1650s – 1800s

Key Question:	**suggested contact time:**
What changes did the colonisation of the Cape bring between the 1650s and 1800s?	**15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process:

Learners will be able to:

- understand that independent African societies entered into a radically transformational period of political organisation with the arrival of Europeans in the 1600s (time and chronology)
- recognise the processes and events that played a role in causing conflict and transformation of both indigenous and colonial society in this period (cause and effect)
- use biographies/ life histories to understand the lives people in this period (sources of evidence)
- recognise the roles played by different historical personalities/ characters in this period (multi-perspectivity)

Overview of Topic:

This section focuses on colonisation of the Cape from the 1650s to the 1800s. In this period, independent indigenous societies began to be transformed politically and economically by the growing European presence and settlement in the Cape.

New forms of cooperation and conflict emerge in this period when the Dutch East India Company colonised the Cape. New forms of labour, servitude and exploitation emerged which resulted in major destruction of indigenous social structures and the emergence of new classes and identities. This era showed fierce resistance by the San and Khoi against the Dutch in a 100 years' war.

Enslaved people from Africa and Asia were brought into the Cape to serve as labour in the growing Dutch settlement. In 1806 the British took over the administration of the Cape Colony and began a campaign to dispossess amaXhosa leading to numerous wars of resistance. In 1820 struggling British immigrants arrived in the Eastern Cape seeking a new life from hardships in Europe. Their arrival further intensified war in the region.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Era of Cape Settlement Growth and Early Khoikhoi and Slave Resistance:
    - Settlement by the Dutch East India Company led by Jan van Riebeeck and development of refreshment station (planting of wheat, wine etc)
    - Impact and responses of indigenous people e.g Doman, Krotoa, Autshumato etc
    - Introduction of slavery system to the Cape with forcible movement of enslaved people from other parts of Africa and Asia
    - Early wars of Khoi, San and slave resistance in the Cape
    - Destruction of indigenous societies by disease, dispossession and genocide
        - Deliberate hunting of San men, abduction of children and forcible labour of women
    - Rise of new society of cultural infusions including early Afrikaans language by enslaved and indigenous people
    - **Study the life of an enslaved person in the early Cape colony**

(4 hours)

- Era of European expansion, African resistance and new adaptations:
    - Explain why Dutch colonists expanded into the South African interior and colonised land and water sources and the impact on dispossessed indigenous societies
    - Explain how Christian Calvinist trekboer life drew on knowledge from indigenous people e.g. diet, language, the development of expertise about terrain and aspects of ox-wagon building
    - Discuss why Europeans and enslaved people went into interior (travellers, hunters, traders, indentured servants, shipwreck survivors from the Wild Coast etc)
    - Continued resistance by indigenous people (e.g. Klaas and Dawid Stuurman)
    - Different forms of evidence that show the major changes of this period: Explore the use of underwater archaeology as evidence; rock art that depicts colonists, horses, ships; archaeology of outposts (sites of Dutch outposts that show trade and other dynamics of Dutch expansion)
    - **Study the life of a European colonist, traveller, hunter, or trader from this period**

(4 hours)

- Era of intensification of conquest and resistance of amaXhosa:
    - Explain how the arrival of the British led to warfare with amaXhosa and how amaXhosa defended themselves in various wars
    - Explain the various alliances between related Khoi-Xhosa clans
    - Explain the arrival of 4000 British immigrants to the Eastern Cape in 1820 and the impact on indigenous societies
    - **Study King Maqoma's role in indigenous resistance**

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Explain why and how the Dutch East India Company created a colonial settlement in Cape
- Describe how indigenous people responded to Dutch colonisation
- Understand the genocide against the indigenous people in the Cape region
- How different groups of indigenous people and people from other parts of Africa and the world created a new society and cultures in the Cape
- How the arrival of the British led to further warfare with indigenous societies
- Describe the life history of one individual person in the context of this period

Assessment of learning (formal/summative) (3 hours)

Research on TWO of the characters of this period and Role-playing ONE of these historical personalities (50 marks)

Grade 7: Term 4	
Topic: African Towns and Cities in the Southern African Interior c.1700-1820s	
Key Question: What was the nature of early African cities in the interior of South Africa, c.1700-1800s?	**Suggested contact time:** **10 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

Learners will be able to:

- recognise different kinds of evidence for early African cities in the interior of South Africa (evidence),
- appreciate that sources of evidence can answer different questions about the past (sources and evidence)
- comprehend the scale of the developments in the interior of South Africa before the arrival of the Europeans (significance)
- recognise the different factors that may have brought these early cities to an end. (cause and effect)

Overview of Topic:

Many large African farming settlements existed in the southern African interior between the 1700 and early 1800s, at around the same time that the Dutch settlement was growing in the Cape. This history demonstrates that there was no basis for the myth of the empty land that loomed large in the colonial and apartheid histories of South Africa. These included, among others, towns and cities in Johannesburg (Kweneng, Klipriviersberg), Mpumalanga (Bokoni), North West Province (Marothodi, Kaditshwene, Molokwane, Olifantspoort), Free State (Thabeng) and Limpopo (Dzata). These towns and cities thrived under various African leaders and all would decline or collapse for various reasons by the early 1800s. We know about these towns from various forms of archaeological, oral and documentary evidence that tell us what the structures and layout of the towns were, and about the people and their ways of life. These towns were characterised by social stratification, division of labour, specialisations of craft, and having diverse techniques of livestock management and agricultural production.

Some of these sites have been reconstructed and form an important part of the heritage of the area. Teachers are encouraged to take the learners to the sites where possible

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the sites on a map and what they look like currently (LIDAR/Google earth/photographs)
- Identify different parts of the settlement. Consider where the elites lived and why; where the livestock was kept; position of the courts; the fields.

(2 hours)

- excavated material – from households and middens. Explore the different kinds of information that can be reconstructed from these artefacts – e.g diet, kinds of wood burnt, metals used and traded, and objects traded from afar like sea

shells or glass beads. What does this evidence tell us about skills and specialisations (mining, smelting,) agricultural knowledge and trade?

(4 hours)

- explore one of the settlements through
  - early traveller reports that describe what is seen in these towns
  - the oral traditions of these societies (e.g. genealogies) and what they tell us about the political and social affairs of the indigenous societies living in these towns and political practices.

(3 hours)

- reasons for the abandonment and destruction of some cities at various times after the 1800s – difaqane, drought and disease.

(1 hour)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- describe how early cities can be found and scientifically explored.
- list the kinds of evidence excavated from a site and what each might tell us about life in the past
- describe what can be learnt from oral and written records
- debate the factors what might have brought the cities to an end (what makes cities sustainable?) – disease, drought, unrest, poor governance, changing belief systems

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

End of year exam to cover Term 3 and 4

Grade 8: Term 1	
Topic: Mfecane/Difaqane: Indigenous Political and Military Changes in the Pre Industrial Era - 1780s and 1830s	
Key Questions: What was the Mfecane/Difaqane? What were the possible causes of the Mfecane/Difaqane? What military and political changes played a role in the Mfecane/Difaqane? What were the effects of the Mfecane/Difaqane?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry process?

Learners will be able to:

- describe aspects of indigenous political systems of the 1700s (time and chronology)
- understand varying responses to political change and their impact across the region in this period (cause and effect)
- read historical sources and literatures (both colonial and African vernacular), oral traditions and archaeological evidence to understand different perspectives on, and experiences of Mfecane/Difaqane (multi-perspectivity)
- explain how Mfecane/Difaqane affected African societies in southern Africa and how it shifted identities (significance; change and continuity)

Overview of Topic

For centuries before the 1700s, societies inhabiting the southern African region (large and small) were characterised by high levels of complexity of political differentiation, social and political inequalities. The rulers exercised power and domination over their subordinates but there were also relationships of reciprocity between the rulers and the ruled. The era between 1780 and 1830 was one of dynamism and change in southern Africa. Several indigenous states underwent changes in their political and military systems. These dynamics resulted in a period of conflict, migrations and the re-organisation of indigenous states known as Mfecane/Difaqane.

This period was shaped by many factors and involved many historical actors. Several kingdoms experienced expansion, others decline, and new types of states would emerge. Furthermore, major military changes occurred in terms of new regiment systems and tactical methods. Guns and horses would make an impact in the way states such as the Griqua asserted themselves.

By the time the Mfecane/Difaqane was unfolding, Europeans had been present in the Cape in South Africa for about 150 years and also as hunters and traders in other parts of the country. The Mfecane/Difaqane also coincided with the Industrial Revolution (to be studied in Term 2). The expansion and involvement of Dutch boer settlers in African politics. Further, the demand for ivory by hunters as well as the growing migration of Europeans into South Africa brought about new demands on African resources (e.g control over trade routes, labour raids, demand for land e.g. the political presence of the 1820 settlers shifting political discussion in the Cape). All these ‘roads of change’ would affect how the Mfecane period unfolded and eventually ended.

Many people lived in chiefdoms, which were presided over by chiefs. Chiefdoms

consisted of a number of villages constituted by different territorial wards (kgoro in Northern Sotho/Sepedi; kgotla in Sesotho/Setswana; isigodi in Nguni languages). Each ward comprised of people descended from the same ancestor and retained substantial authority and independence over its members' social, economic and judicial affairs. There were, however, also unrelated groups or individuals attached to these entities and movement between different wards were uncommon.

Societies were rank-conscious, and the population was divided into a number of diverse divisions: the refugees constituted a distinct group ranked below the commoners who formed a grouping distant from but related to the ruling group. The aristocrats belonged to the ruling lineage while the captives were right at the bottom performing the most tedious and unskilled tasks.

Chiefs inter alia allocated land to their subjects, were responsible for providing defence from enemies, were expected to help them in times of economic need and resolved difficult disputes in their courts. Contrary to the view that chiefs were despotic, chiefs did not act alone but consulted with advisors such as councillors and headmen drawn from both the ruling lineage and subordinate groups. The process of consultation happened at the level of the ward whereby adult men gathered on a more regular basis to resolve issues collectively in what was known as lekgotla in Sesotho languages, or ibandla in Nguni languages. On contentious and important issues, the process of consultation involved the public assembly (pitso/imbizo/palaver), a public forum made up of all adult men in the community. This allowed mass participation in the affairs of the chiefdoms, a consultative process that allowed space for debates and deliberations in order to reach consensus on key issues (a key element of democracy). The boundaries of the chiefdoms were porous, and the abundance of land and relative shortage of people put clear checks on chiefly abuse of power; harsh, greedy and incompetent rulers lost followers to militarily strong and effective leaders, a clear indication of the cultural heterogeneity of the societies at the time.

Indigenous African societies were not static but in the throes of transformation when major political and social upheavals and conflicts in southern Africa took place in the latter part of the 1700s and reached a peak between 1810 and the 1830s. These upheavals, popularly known as the Mfecane/Difaqane, predated King Shaka and the formation of the Zulu kingdom. There were the larger Ndwandwe and Mthethwa kingdoms, which were engaged in rivalry, and smaller chiefdoms that were caught between them took flight, attacked, and disrupted life in the chiefdoms that were on their paths. Shaka became one of several important rulers at the time when this historical process reached its climax between the 1810s and 1830s. The impact of natural disasters such as drought, as well as international trade over items such as ivory and cattle in the Delagoa Bay area were cited as other causes of these conflicts. Other examples of migrations and conflicts relate to the Griquas, Koranas and subsequently the trekboers. The latter migrated from the Cape colony into the interior following their discontent with the British takeover and abolition of slavery and their desire to acquire more land and reconstitute themselves in the interior. Some of these processes of migrations intertwined with and further catalysed the Mfecane/Difaqane migrations.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the governance systems that prevailed among indigenous African communities before the 1700s, focusing on the relationship between the rulers and the ruled, consultation and collective decision-making (importance of councillors, lekgotla/ibandla and pitso/imbizo) (3 hours)
- the notion of fluidity of polities and constant movement of individuals and groups as a result of the abundance of land and relative shortage of people, something that put clear checks on chiefs' abuse of power (2 hour)
- the concept of Mfecane (Nguni form)/Difaqane (Sotho form) and explain what it describes, where it occurred, to what period it refers, and what political players were produced (2 hour)
- the possible causes of the political upheavals in south-eastern Africa, for example, droughts, trade, technological innovation, etc. (2 hours)
- different perspectives on the experience of the Mfecane/Difaqane through individual histories - teacher to select two individuals as case studies - Zwide (Ndwandwe), Dingiswayo (Mthethwa) (militarisation); Manthatisi (Batlokwa), Matiwane (raiding); Shaka (consolidation); Mzilikazi (raiding on the Highveld); Maselwane (Lepalong refuge); Swati (State formation); Griqua (Adam Kok II) (raid and trade); Hintsa (integration of Mfengu); Moshoeshoe (diplomacy); Sekhukhune I (defence) - (3 hours)
- the role of guns and horses in the intensified contestation for power which occurred from 1780s (growth in militarisation from 1790s; importance of guns, horses in changing Griqua and the Korana social formations, and the trekboer migrations from the Cape colony into the interior; guns for ivory hunting and the control of trade routes; guns for land) (3 hours)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- describe indigenous African system of governance and how rulers ruled through various platforms and institutions such as councillors, wards, consultation and public gatherings
- describe how African rulers exercised control over their subjects and subordinate peoples
- define the Mfecane/Difaqane as a historical process
- locate the regions affected by the Mfecane/Difaqane on a map
- identify and explain the factors that possibly caused the Mfecane/Difaqane
- describe the role of any two leaders in the Mfecane/Difaqane
- understand how the use of guns and horses
  - changed Griqua and Korana indigenous social formations
  - helped the trekboers to gain alliances and further their own ends

Assessment of learning (Formal/Summative)

Standardised Test: Source-Based questions (44 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)

Grade 8: Term 2
Topic: The Industrial Revolution in Europe (1750 – 1900)

Key Question(s) What factors gave rise to the Industrial Revolution in Europe and what was its impact in Britain c.1750s to 1900	**Suggested Contact Time:** **10 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry process?

The learner should:

- understand why this period was called the 'industrial revolution' (significance)
- explain what lead to the industrial revolution (cause and effect)
- examine the social and economic impact of the Industrial Revolution (Multi-Perspectives)
- Understand the long-term significance of the Industrial Revolution (Significance)

Overview of Topic

The Industrial Revolution that began in Europe in the mid-18th century (i.e., +/-1750s) had far reaching consequences for the world. The industrial revolution was a period in which European economies shifted from localised, craft-based, agricultural economies into machine-driven mass production systems. From the 1760s, major changes in production led to the emergence of large urban manufacturing centres especially in Britain which began to produce goods at large scale using innovations such as the spinning jenny, the steam engine. Coal, iron and steel became major drivers and inputs in the manufacturing processes.

The industrial revolution grew out of the prior East Indies era of merchant shipping, the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, and some key development in politics, science and philosophy. The expansion of European merchant companies in the spices, opium and slave trade created profits for re-investment into the early industrialising Europe. It also allowed European companies to be well positioned in key parts of the world of which they could take advantage as rapid industrialisation unfolded.

Producing cloth became faster and required less human labour. European merchants began to seek out new markets and new resources for the production and sale of their goods. The emerging merchant and capitalist class used their political and economic power to control markets. Mills and later factories began producing textiles (cloths), steel and iron products, consumables, coal, and many other goods that were in demand as urban populations, new lifestyles and tastes began to expand.

Many people moved out of the small towns and rural areas and moved into crowded cities. Conditions in the cities and industrial workplaces were poor and inhumane. Labour conditions were highly exploitative including child labour (e.g., chimneysweeps, miners, machine operators). Working class movements emerged and new political ideas challenging the power of industrialists and the capitalist system as a whole became a force in European politics.

The new demand for resources and labour would lead European powers to expand their imperial ambitions around the world and compete intensely to control colonial terrains. This led to the Scramble for Africa by the 1880s. The industrial revolution also spread across the world through the expansion of other innovations such as the telegraph and later, the emergence of electricity.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the Industrial Revolution in Britain and greater Europe (from 1750s) (1 Hour)

- the inventions and innovations that led to changes in industry and processes of production (e.g., spinning jenny, steam engine etc.) (1 hour)
- the different experiences of various classes within Europe and the social and economic transformations that occurred (2 hours)
- The changing working and living conditions brought about by massive industrialisation with special reference made to the impact on children, the working poor, the land dispossessed (1 hour)
- Responses of various groups of people, actors, and agents to the industrialising social and economic environment (1 hour)
- The other innovations which emerged in other places in the latter half of the 1800s (e.g., electricity, telegraph) (1 hour)
- How the industrial revolution spread to other parts of the world outside of Europe and changed the way human beings live to this day (e.g., mass urbanisation) (1 hour)
- The rise of British imperialism and how it enabled Britain to exercise vast amount of territories throughout the world (1 hour)
- The power and success of the British empire gave rise to further competitive imperial behaviour amongst Europeans in the Scramble for Africa (1 hour)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- define the Industrial Revolution and identify some of the innovations that catalysed it
- describe the experiences of various classes in the context of the social and economic transformations of the period
- describe the living and working conditions created by the Industrial Revolution and how working classes responded
- explain how the Industrial Revolution changed the way in which humans live to this day

Formal assessment

Mid-year exam to cover Term 1 and 2

Grade 8: Term 3	
Topic: Minerals Revolution and Industrialisation in South Africa (1860s – 1910)	
Key Question: What were the consequences and significance of modern mining and industrialisation on economic, social and political life in southern Africa?	**Suggested Contact Time:** **15 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- understand the emergence of modern sugar and mining industries in South Africa (Significance)
- describe how migrant labour evolved over time into a cheap labour system in southern Africa (Time & Chronology)
- explain how land dispossession and taxation in the latter part of the 19th century forced Africans to take up wage labour in the emerging mining towns (Change and Continuity)
- understand how and why indentured labourers were brought from India and China to South Africa (Significance)

Overview of Topic

By the middle of the 19th century, the British Empire extended throughout many regions of the globe and embraced more than a quarter of the world's population. The industrial revolution in Europe galvanised British colonisation in southern Africa. Against the background of large-scale industrialisation, the needs of the British industrial economy (manufacturing and maximisation of profit) became the force that propelled the British imperialist project, which in turn profoundly reshaped the lives of the people in the colonies and mobility (both voluntary and coerced) within and between colonies. The establishment of the sugar plantations in the British colony of Natal and African resistance against wage labour in the region facilitated the importation in the 1860s of indentured labourers from India, another colony under the British Empire. Out of their hardships of subjugation and arduous labour on sugar plantations, many of these indentured labourers returned to India once their contracts expired while some stayed on in South Africa where they adapted and made a decent living for their families as well as contributed to the culture especially in Natal.

In order to retain political independence, the rulers of African polities (e.g., the Pedi under Sekhukhune I/Thulare in 1840s and 1850s), whose sovereignty was threatened by the encroaching Boers who were making demands of labour and land on them in the 1840s and 1850s, took advantage of the emerging colonial capitalist economy by sending their young men at first to work in the Cape Colony and to use their wages to purchase firearms needed back home to defend their communities. The Transvaal Boer Republic (ZAR) was established in 1852; since the establishment of the Boer Republic, many African communities in the Transvaal experienced no peace, including the Kekana Ndebele of Mokopane, leading to the Siege of 'Makapansgat' of 1854, and the annihilation of The Maraba Ndebele in Polokwane in 1868.

The development of mining economy enabled these societies to acquire firearms nearby without having to embark on the very long and arduous journeys to the Cape. It also allowed societies affected by drought and livestock diseases to accumulate wealth and replenish livestock (e.g., migrants from Mozambique). The compounds in which these mineworkers lived were more like prisons and the living conditions were appalling. The beginnings of modern mining in diamonds in the 1860s and gold in the 1880s in South

Africa (in Kimberley and on the Rand, respectively) increased demand for wage labour, expedited land dispossession, intensified the migrant labour system and led to the formalisation and tightening of political and social control. The outbreak of the South African War (1899-1902) created a shortage of labour as African polities in southern Africa withheld their labour.

In the last quarter of the 19th century, this modern mining economy accelerated the process of African land dispossession. The effect of this was that African people could no longer subsist on the land and were forced take up wage labour. One of the major outcomes was mining companies taking advantage of surplus labour to eliminate competition and establish monopoly over labour in the southern African region by establishing the Witwatersrand Native Labour Association (WNLA). However, the continuing problem of labour shortage led to introduction of Chinese indentured labourers.

This section of the curriculum explores how and why Africans from the southern African region were increasingly drawn into the modern mining economy as migrant labourers and why and how the Indian and Chinese indentured labourers were brought to South Africa in the context of industrialisation and British imperialism. It also looks at why and how migrant labour came into existence and evolved into a cheap labour system.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the concept of British Empire (1 hour)
- the role of the major owners and drivers of industry (mining and sugar) and their links with the British empire and how they integrated South Africa into imperial economic networks (2 hours)
- the creation of a hierarchical labour system based on race, with white workers occupying skilled positions while African migrants and Chinese indentured labourers occupied unskilled positions (2 hours)
- the relationship between British imperialism and the importation of indentured labourers from India for the sugar plantations in Natal, and Chinese indentured labourers for the goldmines on the Witwatersrand (2 hours)
- what life was like for Indian and Chinese indentured labourers and African migrants and what working and living conditions were like for them (3 hours)
- why and how was migrant labour beneficial to both employer groups as well as the African traditional leaders in southern Africa between the 1860s and the 1910s (consider the impact of land expropriation and taxation on rural African societies, payment of bachelor wages', and the costs of labour production being carried by the rural Reserves) (2 hours)
- how and why various forms of separation, segregation and racialization of labour began to emerge through these labour systems (1 hour)
- how new forms of social life, culture and politics began to emerge in the urban areas amongst the various working classes (e.g., emergence of the cultural and social life of areas such as Cato Manor and other similar urban, multi-racial spaces) (2 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- define the concepts of indentured labour and migrant labour systems

- explain how labour shortages led to the introduction of indentured labour from India and China between 1860 and 1911
- identify who the migrant labourers were and why they engaged in the migrant labour system
- explain how migrant labour evolved into a system of cheap labour
- describe the living and working conditions created by the indentured labour and migrant labour systems

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)
Task: Creative Response:

Grade 8: Term 4
Topic: Global Interconnectedness: South African War, First World War, the Spanish Influenza

Key Question: How is global interconnectedness demonstrated by the events of the South African War, First World War & Spanish Influenza?	**Suggested contact time:** **10 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process?

The learner should:

- understand how and why different groups of people in South Africa came to be involved in or affected by these three major events (Cause and Effect)
- describe how these events affected political and economic developments in South Africa (Significance)
- explain the long-term effects of the South African War, the First World War and the Spanish Flu (Time and Chronology**)**
- appreciate the interconnectedness of human society globally (Significance)

Overview of Topic

World shattering events occurred during the first twenty years of the 20th century. They began with the South African War (which used to be called the Anglo-Boer War), between 1899 and 1902. This war attracted world-wide sympathy for the Boers who were fighting against the British Empire over economic resources (land and minerals). Until more recently, the impact of this war on black people had not received close attention. Informed by their own motives, some black people sided with the Boers whereas others created alliances with the British. The black people, like their Boer counterparts, that were held in concentration camps were subjected to cruel treatment and oppression by the British. Yet with the signing of the Peace Treaty of Vereeniging in 1902, the Boers and the British reconciled while blacks were left out in the cold.

Another significant event that signified the degree of interconnectedness of the world was the outbreak of the First World War (1914-1918). Caused by European imperialism, South Africa was almost immediately drawn into this global conflict on the side of the British empire. However, the opposition, made up mainly of Afrikaner nationalists were opposed to participation in the war. Black people also participated in the First World War as loyalists expecting to be treated more favourably after the settlement of the war. Examples include Indians (e.g., Gandhi) and Africans who served in various non-combatant roles such as couriers, suppliers, stretch bearers, etc. The sinking of the S.S. Mendi where more than 600 African soldiers drowned, serves as clear evidence of the Black participation in the First World War. The Peace Treaty of Versailles (1918) resolved that German South West Africa (Namibia) be a colony of South Africa.

The third major event that demonstrates the interconnectedness of the world was the outbreak of the Spanish Flu (January 1918 to December 1920). This global pandemic spread rapidly around the world, decimating at least 50 million people worldwide, and it was brought to South Africa by both black and white soldiers returning home after the war.

The significant events chosen during this period for both South Africa and world history, demonstrate South Africa's shared links to societies around the world.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the causes of the South African War (Second Anglo-Boer War) of 1899 to 1902 (1 hour)
- involvement of the different groups and the impact of the South African War on them (2 hours)
- different stands adopted by different groups in South Africa in the First World War, 1914-1918 (3 hours)
- reasons for the African involvement in the First World War and the sinking of the Mendi (2 hours)
- global interconnectedness: The First World War, the Spanish Flu and the unforeseeable major events in history such as epidemics (2 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- understand the concept of global interconnectedness and how this relates to the three key events covered this term
- describe the causes and effects of the First World War (brief overview)
- account for the participation of black people in the First World War

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

End of the Year Examination to cover Term 3 and 4

Grade 9: Term 1	
Topic: Pseudo-Science, Racism and the Entrenchment of Social Inequalities during the Nineteenth Century	
Key Questions: Why and how was pseudo-science used to entrench racial segregation and social and political inequalities during the nineteenth century? How have technology and recent scientific discoveries refuted pseudo-scientific racism?	**Suggested Contact Time:** **15 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?

The learner should:

- understand the history of classifications that led to pseudo-scientific racism (Time and Chronology)
- understand that scientists are part of society and how science can be used to shape ideas and prejudices in society (Cause and Effect)
- appreciate that there are different ways of classification (MultI- perspectivity)
- consider how ideas of race were used differently (Change and Continuity)
- understand the significance of technological advances in refuting pseudo-scientific racism (Significance)

Overview of Topic

Humans have always come to terms with the natural world by classifying things, including humans. These classifications were usually based on visual differences like skin colour and are used to justify prejudice, social and economic differences. This pseudo-science became a tool to underline racism, colonialism and eugenics. They were applied quite aggressively in different colonial settings in north and south America, New Zealand, Australia, the Indian sub-continent and Africa, including southern Africa.

This section of the curriculum explores the rise of racial segregation and scientific racism on the back of the industrial revolution in Europe and during the era of colonialism between the mid-19th and the first half of the 20th century. It unpacks the theories of Social Darwinism and Eugenics to the social inequalities which emerged as a result of the industrial revolution and its subsequent application in southern Africa. Scientific discoveries in the mid-20th century like techniques for dating and DNA refuted scientific racism.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- early scientific classification systems (e.g., Linnaeus, Broca, Galton) and how they were used to justify racism and eugenics (2 Hours)
- the concepts Social Darwinism , scientific racism and eugenics (2 Hours)
- how scientific classification was implemented in Europe, the Holocaust (2 Hours)
- how scientific racism was used to promote and develop colonialism (Germans, British, etc.) – e.g., the fascination of Europe with Africans (Khoi and San, Nama and Herero, Sara Baartman) - the role of museums in racism heritage (3 Hours)

- Nuclear Age – recent discoveries such as unstable isotopes, e.g., radiocarbon dating and its impact such as the shifting of perspectives on Africa as the "Cradle of Humankind" (3 Hours)

- DNA Age-Where does humanity originate? The power of controlling DNA (3 Hours)

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- understand the early scientific classification systems and how they relate to scientific racism and eugenics
- describe scientific racism and eugenics
- discuss the implementation of scientific racism in Europe
- understand the relationship between scientific racism and the promotion and development of racism in southern Africa
- understand how technological advances during the Nuclear and DNA Age refute pseudo-scientific racism

- Historical records and testimonies of (Khoi & San stories) in the Cape conquest

- Debate (human genome- genetic modification to create a perfect human- is it ethical?)

- Oral discussions

- Source analysis and interpretation (e.g. cartoons, photographs, maps, newspapers, historical novels, etc.)

- Role play

-Paragraph and Essay writing

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

Standardized Test: Source-based questions (44 marks) and paragraph writing (6 marks)

Grade 9: Term 2	
Topic: The implementation of segregationist policies in South Africa: Education from the 19th century to the late 20th century	
Key Question(s): To what extent was education employed as a tool to keep the people in South Africa divided along racial and ethnic lines from the early 1900s to the early 1990s?	**Suggested Contact Time:** **10 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- understand how the forms of education provided in 'South Africa' changed with the advent of colonialism in the 19th century and the segregationist and apartheid system in the 20th century (Time and Chronology)
- recognise that the introduction of racially segregated schooling resulted in widespread resistance (Cause and Effect)
- recognise that Western education in 20th-century South Africa was not only racially but also ethnically segregated (Change and Continuity)
- understand the different views on the role of education in society (Multiperspectivity)
- recognise the lasting impact of the system of segregated education on society today (Significance)

Overview of Topic

Prior to European colonisation, Africans in southern Africa had their own forms of highly structured system of education through which the youth, both male and female, were socialised and educated through initiation practices for their future roles as productive and responsible citizens, as well as for manhood, fatherhood, womanhood and motherhood. Considering the sensitivities, initiation needs to be discussed without violating the scared aspects, there are the aspects where the community participates. There are sacred and secret parts and there is the public side so that learners understand that there is 'sacredness'. Initiation has also a lot as it has been affected by colonisation and mission education. In some places initiation was associated with heathenism and those who converted to Christianity stopped practicing traditional rites. However, the advent of European colonialism created divisions within African societies, with Christian converts, by-and-large abandoning initiation practices and adopting 'Western' formal schooling. In fact, the missionaries from the various Christian denominations were in charge of black schools.

With the formation of the Union government in 1910, education became formally segregated in line with the segregationist policies of the time. While the state fully provided funding for white education in the four provinces, African schooling remained the prerogative of missionaries and the schools received conditional funding mostly in the form of teachers' salaries. After the National Party came to power in 1948, Bantu Education, which was a system of cheap mass education intended to prepare Africans for a subordinate position politically, socially and economically, was introduced in 1953 and implemented in 1955. There was, however, substantial opposition to this system, particularly from highly politicised teachers some of whom resigned from their posts while others were expelled. Education for people classified as Coloureds and Indians was also segregated in line with state policy. This system was extended to tertiary institutions, with the introduction of the Black Universities Act in 1959.

While there was early resistance against Bantu Education from the moment of its inception, the 16 June 1976 Soweto students' uprising is perhaps the most well-known

resistance to this system. The introduction of Afrikaans as a medium of instruction in half of the subjects offered in black schools triggered the revolt that resulted in hundreds of students being shot dead and thousands maimed by the police. While this system of education was reformed over time, the racially segregated schooling remained in place until the mid-1990s.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- precolonial African indigenous education in 'South Africa' (general overview):
  - how youth were educated for their future adult roles as productive and responsible citizens through socialisation
  - initiation and preparation for manhood and womanhood, fatherhood and motherhood;
  - African community health systems before the late-19th century (2 Hour)
- colonial education in the 19th century, with special focus on missionary education (2 Hour)
- segregationist education, 1910 – 1953 (4 provinces – education run by provinces) (2 Hours)
- apartheid education, 1953 – 1994 (racial and ethnic segregation of schools) (2 Hours)
- the end of Bantu Education case study of either Soweto 1976 / Cape Town 1976 / Durban 1976 / Limpopo 1976 and the establishment of a unitary Education Department in South Africa, post-1994 (2 Hours)

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- understand how precolonial forms of education in South Africa changed with the advent of colonialism in the 19th century
- recognise continuities between missionary and segregationist education in terms of the racial divisions of the students
- understand the role that apartheid education played in reinforcing racial separation as well as ethnic divisions among black people in general, and the African community in particular
- recognise that Bantu Education was intended to produce semi-skilled cheap labourers and submissive and subservient citizens
- explain how the students became agents of change by rebelling against a racially segregated education system, paving the way for a non-racial education system in 1994

- Oral testimonies and oral traditions

- Archival sources: National Archives; Cillie Commission report on the 1976 Soweto student uprising;

- Museums: Hector Pietersen Museum; Apartheid Museum

- Debate / Oral discussions / Roleplay

- Source analysis and interpretation (e.g., cartoons, photographs, maps, newspapers)

Formal assessment

Mid-year exam to cover Terms 1 and 2

Grade 9: Term 3	
Topic: Gender and Human Rights: Women, Women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910s – 1960s	
Key Question: How did the experiences of African women in the rural areas from the early 1900s shape their political awareness and militancy both in the cities and in the rural areas up to the 1960s? How did black women (African, Coloured and Indian) generally in urban and rural areas demonstrate militant politics up to the 1960s?	**Suggested contact time:** **15 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with history concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- understand why women migrated from the rural reserves and white farms to the urban areas over time between the 1910s and 1960s (Time and Chronology)
- understand how the harsh experiences of African women in the rural reserves and towns shaped their political awareness and militancy (Cause and Effect)
- understand the different perspectives and interpretations as to why women became involved in the struggle against racial segregation and apartheid (Multiperspectivity)
- recognise changes and continuities in the position of women in society both in the rural areas and urban towns in the period between the 1910s and 1960s (Change and Continuity)
- understand the role of women in the struggles against racial segregation and apartheid (Significance)

Overview of topic:

As a result of land dispossession and the intensification of the migrant labour system, African women were left behind in the rural areas by men who went to work on the mines and other industries in the emerging towns and cities. In this process, rural women had the sole responsibility for crop production, livestock farming and the upkeep of their rural households. They also looked after the elderly, the children and the infirm. The turn of the 20th century also witnessed rapid economic decline and poverty in the rural areas following the intensification of land dispossession and natural disasters such as drought and rinderpest. Despite the widespread opposition from African chiefs and elders, the economic pressures still forced African women to join men streaming to the urban areas as well. As more and more African women arrived in the towns and cities in search of employment, the white authorities tightened influx control laws and imposed measures that prevented them from migrating and being employed in towns. These developments brought about militancy amongst sections of African women who rejected attempts to limit their movement. These assumed the form of women's protests in Bloemfontein against the authorities' plan to introduce passes for women in 1913. This marked the beginning of conscious mobilisation of women in the struggle against segregationist and later apartheid policies. These struggles produced some of the most prominent women leaders such as Mannya-Maxeke, Bertha Mkhize, Helen Suzman, Amina Cachalia, Ida Mntwana, Ruth First, Annie Silinga, amongst others.

Later in the 1920s and 1930s, when rural productivity declined due to the impact of the 1913 Natives Land Act and the 1936 Natives Land Amendment Act, more and more women migrated to the towns and cities where they were excluded from job opportunities. The reduction of productivity on private commercial farms and on Crown Lands added to this migration to the towns, where they found they were not welcomed. At the same time, white women also began to enter the labour market in increasing numbers, especially during the Second World War, often finding work in factories and the informal sector. As for black women, that is African, Coloured and Indian women, many engaged in informal sector roles such as taking on washing for whites, beer brewing and various other piece jobs. But then these women were also employed in factories where they were paid lower wage than their male counterparts, so these women became unionised.

The authorities did not welcome the influx of African women into urban areas, hence the imposition of legislation such as the Native Urban Areas Act of 1923 (it later became the Native Urban Areas Amendment Act in 1946). Others took on domestic work, which was quite exploitative as women lived on the premises of their white employers and their labour was used day and night. They were paid very low wages and the employers' excuse was that they offered free accommodation to the workers.

In the 1950s and 1960s with the imposition of the Apartheid system, black women found their own voice and played a leading role in resisting apartheid policies. Women's issues began to be discussed by both black and white women. The extension of the pass laws to black women by the apartheid government in the 1950s was a major source of grievance among women, culminating in the women's march to the Union Buildings in 1956 (organised by the Federation of South African Women - FEDSAW). This march was preceded and inspired by the women's march in Johannesburg in 1956.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- the onerous responsibilities that rural women had to shoulder in the context of men migrating to urban mining towns and cities (2 hour)
- worsening conditions in the rural areas that forced women to join migrancy to the towns where white authorities were hostile (2 hour)
- the various forms of work that women performed in towns – white women working in factories and the informal sector; African women in the informal sector – beer brewing, and formal low-paid work such as washerwomen and domestic work, etc. (2 Hours)
- women's protests pass in Bloemfontein and Durban – Charlotte Mannya-Maxeke and Bertha Mkhize as examples of women leaders in the 1910s – 30s (3 Hours)
- women's resistance against apartheid policies in the 1950s and 1960s – Lilian Ngoyi, Winnie Madikizela-Mandela, Frances Baard, Sophie de Bruyn, Helen Joseph, Fatima Meer, Rahima Moosa, Phyllis Naidoo, Helen Suzman, Amina Cachalia, Ida Mntwana, Ruth First, Annie Silinga etc. (choose at least two women leaders) (3 Hours)
- women's issues and a march by both black and white women in Johannesburg in 1956 and its inspiration on the women's march to the Union Buildings in 1956 (3 Hours)

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding can be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- describe the various onerous roles that African women had to shoulder in the rural areas following men's absorption into the migrant labour system
- show the link between the worsening conditions of rural African women and the harshness of town life in driving these women towards political awareness and militancy
- describe the involvement of Charlotte Mannya-Maxeke and Bertha Mkhize in organising women's protests against passes in Bloemfontein and Durban respectively between the 1910s and 1930s
- discuss the leadership of the anti-apartheid struggles by at least two women leaders in the 1950s and 1960s
- understand the significance of the 1956 women's march to the Union Buildings in terms of its recognition as a public holiday in post-apartheid South Africa

- Oral testimonies and traditions;

- Debate

- Oral discussions

- Source analysis and interpretation (e.g., cartoons, photographs, maps, newspapers, historical novels, etc.); archival sources such as Winnie Madikizela-Mandela's letters to Nelson Mandela on Robben Island; biographies and autobiographies of women leaders such as Sophie de Bruyn, Helen Joseph, Lilian Ngoyi, and others;

- Role play

- Paragraph and Essay writing

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

Research Project: Gender and Human Rights: Women and Women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910s – 1960s

Grade 9: Term 4	
Topic: World War II (1919 - 1945)	
Key Questions: Why the Weimar Republic failed as a democracy, the rise of Nazi Germany, the outbreak of World War II in Europe?	**Suggested Contact Time:** **10 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process?

The learner should:

- understand the ending of the First World War and the rise of the Weimar Republic (Time and chronology)
- understand the implications of the Treaty of Versailles its impact on Germany (Cause and Effect)
- understand why different countries chose sides in the context of the World War II (Multiperspectivity)
- recognise that the end of the World War II has left a lasting legacy (Change and Continuity)
- recognise the lasting impact of the World War II on the international community to this day (Significance)

Overview of Topic:

In 1918, Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles, ending the First World War. The stipulations of the treaty saw German losses of territory, namely in the Saar Valley and Alsace-Lorraine, as well as the reparations Germany would have to pay for destruction of property and occupation. These, among others, were keenly felt by the German people as unfair and punitive. The amount Germany was forced to pay resulted in economic hardships such as hyperinflation, leaving the Germany economy in ruins. . In January 1919, a new democratic constitution for Germany was drawn up. It became known at the Weimar Constitution, and this period of German History became known as 'The Weimar Republic.' During the worldwide economic crisis of the Great Depression in the 1930s, many people lost faith in liberal democracy and countries across the world turned to authoritarian regimes. In Germany, resentment over the terms of the Treaty of Versailles was intensified by the instability of the German political system, as many on both the Right and the Left rejected the Weimar Republic liberalism. The most extreme political aspirant to emerge from that situation was Adolf Hitler, the leader of the Nazi Party. The Nazis took totalitarian power in Germany from 1933 and demanded the undoing of the Versailles provisions

During the interwar period, deep anger arose in the Weimar Republic over the conditions of the 1919 Treaty of Versailles, which punished Germany for its role in World War I with heavy financial reparations and severe limitations on its military that were intended to prevent it from becoming a military power again. The demilitarisation of the Rhineland, the prohibition of German unification with Austria, and the loss of its overseas colonies as well as some 12% of its pre-war land area and population all provoked strong currents of revanchism in German politics.

During the worldwide economic crisis of the Great Depression in the 1930s, many people lost faith in liberal democracy and countries across the world turned to authoritarian regimes. In Germany, resentment over the terms of the Treaty of Versailles was intensified by the instability of the German political system, as many on both the Right and the Left rejected the Weimar Republic liberalism. The most extreme political aspirant to emerge from that situation was Adolf Hitler, the leader of the Nazi Party. The Nazis took totalitarian power in Germany from 1933 and demanded the undoing of the Versailles provisions.

Throughout Europe, Jews had experienced discrimination for hundreds of years. They were often treated unjustly in courts or forced to live in ghettos. One reason for this persecution

was religious, in that Jews were blamed for the death of Jesus Christ. Another reason was that they tended to be well educated and therefore held well-paid professional jobs or ran successful stores or businesses. Hitler hated Jews insanely. In his years of poverty in Vienna, he became obsessed by the fact that Jews ran many of the most successful businesses, particularly the large department stores. This offended his idea of the superiority of Aryans. Hitler also blamed Jewish businessmen and bankers for Germany's defeat in the First World War. He thought that they had forced the surrender of the German army. As soon as Hitler took power in 1933 he began to mobilise the full powers of the state against the Jews. They were immediately banned from the Civil Service and a variety of public services such as broadcasting and teaching. At the same time, SA and later SS troopers organised boycotts of Jewish shops and businesses, which were marked with a Star of David.

That aggressive strategy worked as Germany pulled out of the League of Nations (1933), rejected the Versailles Treaty, began to rearm with the Anglo-German Naval Agreement (1935), won back the Saar (1935), re-militarized the Rhineland (1936), formed an alliance ("axis") with Mussolini's Italy (1936), sent massive military aid to Franco in the Spanish Civil War (1936–39), seized Austria (1938), took over Czechoslovakia after the British and French appeasement of the Munich Agreement of 1938, formed a peace pact with Stalin's Russia in August 1939 and finally invaded Poland in September 1939.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- end of World War I; Weimar Republic; Treaty of Versailles 1919 and brief summary of German punishments (1 Hour)
- the Great Depression of 1929 and failure of democracy in the Weimar Republic (2 Hours)
- reasons for public support for the rise of the Nazi Party and the 1932 and 1933 elections and Enabling Act (1 Hour)
- Nazi's aggressive, expansionist foreign policy for lebensraum (very briefly) (1 Hour)
- outbreak of World War II: Axis vs. Allies countries (2 Hours)
- extermination camps and genocide, the Holocaust, and the 'Final Solution' (2 Hours)
- end of World War II in Europe (1 Hour)

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- explain the terms of the Treaty of Versailles and the rise of the Weimar Republic
- describe the effects of the Great Depression and the failure of the Weimar Republic
- discuss the rise of the Nazi Party and its aggressive foreign policy
- explain the causes for the outbreak of World War II
- understand the creation of extermination camps and genocide – the Holocaust

- Debate – genocide (creation of extermination camps resulting in the Holocaust)

- Oral discussions / Role play / Source analysis and interpretation (e.g. cartoons, photographs, maps.)

- Paragraph and Essay writing

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

End of year exam to cover Term 3 and 4

CHAPTER 4: ASSESSMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Assessment is a continuously planned process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information regarding the performance of learners. It involves four steps: generating and collecting evidence of achievement; evaluating this evidence; recording the findings and using this information to understand and thereby assist the learner's development, in order to improve the process of learning and teaching.

All assessment tasks should reflect adequate curriculum coverage in terms of content, concepts and skills at grade-appropriate cognitive levels and should be appropriate for learners' age and developmental level. In assessing subject knowledge, teachers will evaluate the learner's ability to achieve the aims and demonstrate the disciplinary skills and conceptual understanding of each subject as outlined in Section 2 of the document. To enable learners to achieve and demonstrate disciplinary skills, they will need to have a full grasp and understanding of the content and concepts outlined in Section 3 of the document.

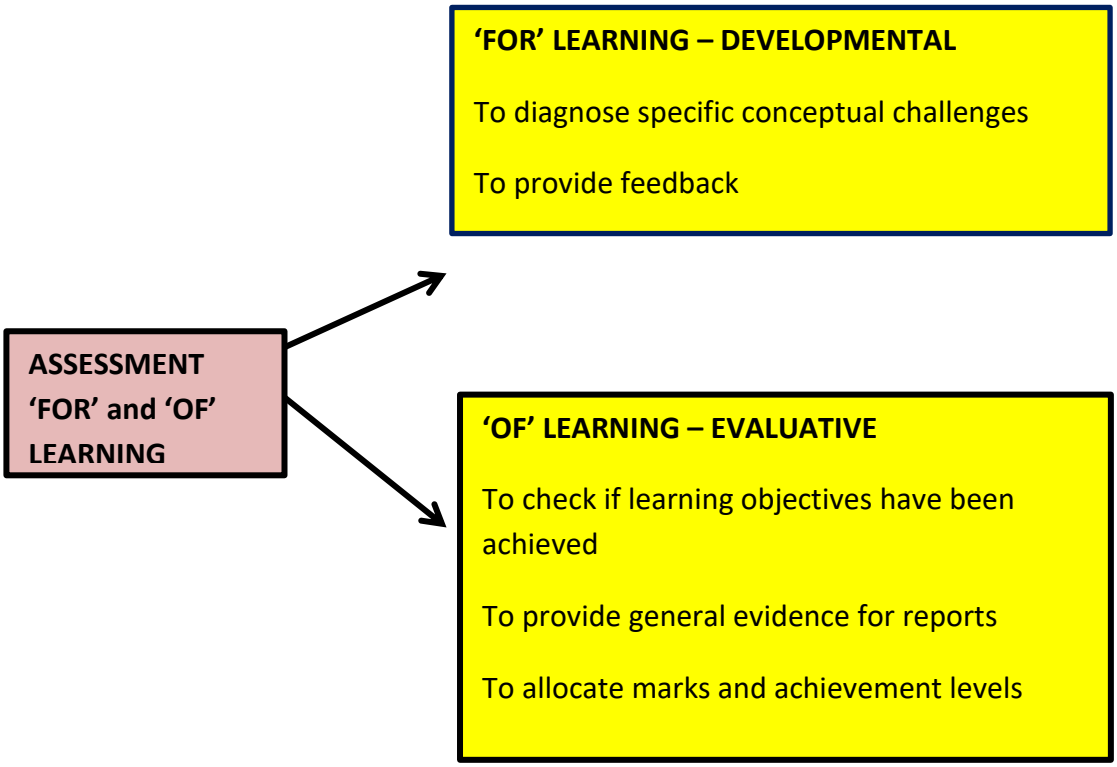
Assessments should be both informal (Assessment for Learning or AfL) and formal (Assessment of Learning or AoL). In both cases, regular feedback should be provided to learners to enhance the learning experience.

GOALS OF ASSESSMENTS 'FOR' AND 'OF' LEARNING IN THE NEW HISTORY CURRICULUM

1) To strengthen and streamline rather than revise fundamentally the existing assessment practices in History

2) To build greater developmental coherence from G4-G12 (e.g.: Key questions are used throughout the curriculum; Cognitive levels are differentiated for each phase, and writing tasks increase in complexity across the phases)

3) To give teachers space for creativity, local innovations, developing engaging source-based enquires and relevant research projects, and to encourage teachers to curate new 'archives' of historical and archaeological source materials.



Assessment for learning (AfL) has the purpose of continuously collecting information on learners' achievement that can be used to improve their learning.

Informal assessment includes baseline assessment, which establishes what knowledge learners bring to the classroom about a topic; and diagnostic assessment, which helps teachers identify concepts or content with which learners are struggling, or barriers to learning.

Informal assessment is a daily monitoring of learners' progress. This is done through observations, discussions, practical demonstrations, learner-teacher conferences, informal classroom interactions and activities, homework tasks, etc. Informal assessment may be as simple as stopping during the lesson to observe learners or to discuss with learners how learning is progressing. It should not be seen as separate from learning activities taking place in the classroom. Learners or teachers can mark written informal assessment tasks.

Self-assessment and peer assessment actively involve learners in assessment. This is important as it allows learners to learn from and reflect on their performance. The results of the informal daily assessment tasks are not recorded formally unless the teacher wishes to do so. However, they should be used to provide feedback to the learners, plan for remediation, and inform future lesson design.

Informal assessment may be structured by working through activities provided in available textbooks. However, teachers can design their own AfL tasks, using a range of credible historical source material to enrich teaching and learning.

Evidence 'of learner's work, including assessment, should be kept in the learners' notebook.

Sufficient informal assessment should be administered to scaffold learning and to prepare learners for formal assessment tasks.

4.2 FORMAL ASSESSMENT (Assessment of Learning or AoL)

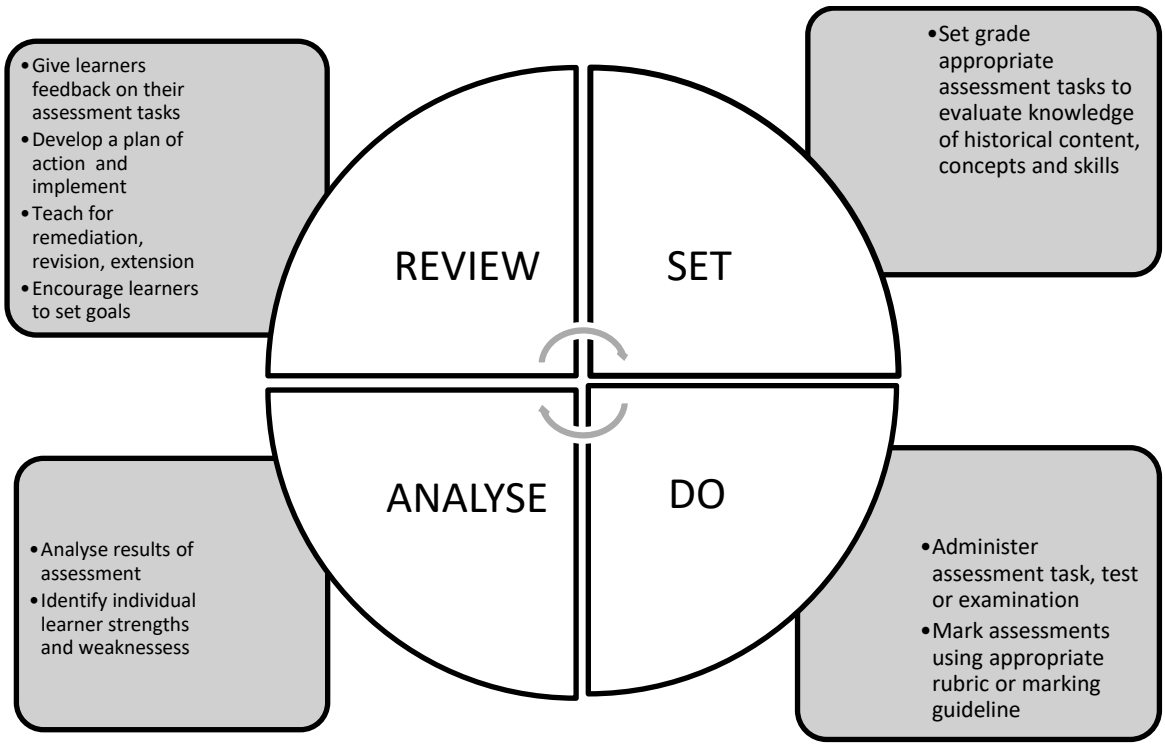
When assessment is used to record a judgement of the competence or performance of the learner, it serves a summative purpose. Formal assessment provides teachers with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a grade and in a particular subject.

Formal assessment tasks form part of a year-long formal programme of assessment in each grade and subject. All assessment tasks that make up a formal programme of assessment for the year are regarded as formal assessments. All formal assessment tasks are subject to moderation for quality assurance and to ensure that appropriate standards are maintained. Formal assessment tasks are marked and formally recorded by the teacher for promotion and progression purposes.

Formal assessment tasks include projects, source-based enquiries, writing tasks, tests and examinations.

4.3 THE ASSESSMENT CYCLE

The Assessment cycle involves the following stages: Set, Do, Analyse, and Review.



SET

Follow these steps when designing your own assessment task:

1. Clarify the purpose of assessment (Why?)
2. Decide on the task activity or activities (Form of assessment)
3. Decide on the content, concepts and skills to be assessed (What?)
4. Select a format for learner presentation (Clarify the method: How?)

Both formal and informal assessments must cater for a range of cognitive levels and abilities of learners. Assessment tasks should include a grade-appropriate weighting of low, middle and high-order questions, to evaluate disciplinary knowledge of History.

Before handing out an assessment task to learners, teachers should ensure that they can answer all the questions themselves. When teachers set an assessment task, they should draw up a marking guideline of answers and/ or a rubric for the assessment.

DO

Learners should be given clear instructions, which include mark allocation and time frames for the completion of assessment tasks.Assessment tasks should be marked without delay.

ANALYSE

Teachers should analyse the results of individual learners as well as those of the whole class to identify areas of strength and weakness.

REVIEW

Learners should receive continuous, constructive feedback both informally and formally. Feedback should acknowledge strengths and identify areas of weakness for learners' developmental needs. An action plan of appropriate remediation and how learners will be supported should accompany the feedback when marked assessment tasks are returned to learners. It is important that the feedback provided to learners encourages them to do better and builds their self-confidence.

Assessment results give teachers insight into the topics or sections of work that individual learners and whole classes find challenging. Assessment should inform teachers' planning for future lessons. They should reflect in their practice and research additional strategies to teach content, concepts or skills with which learners struggle as well as create extension activities for learners who have demonstrated an excellent understanding.

Until learners have demonstrated their understanding, a lesson has not been effectively taught. Setting good assessment tasks can be both challenging and time-consuming. Teachers are encouraged to work collaboratively with History colleagues in their own and other schools, to use carefully selected textbooks as a guide, and to share Historical source materials and well-constructed assessment tasks.

4.4 Assessment in History

4.4.1 Introduction

Assessment in History should be used to evaluate the level at which the core aims and

objectives of the subject, as outlined in Chapter 2 of the document, have been attained. All tasks, projects, tests and examinations used to assess historical understanding must evaluate knowledge of disciplinary content, concepts, and thinking skills (based on the specific aims and objectives).

Objectives of School History

1. To demonstrate a chronological knowledge and understanding of the past and the forces that shape it.
2. To demonstrate an ability to use different calendars and demonstrate an understanding of ways of measuring time.
3. To demonstrate a critical understanding of how sources and concepts are used to construct historically valid enquiries about the past.
4. To undertake a historical enquiry and be able to present the outcomes of the enquiry in logical and well-structured written and oral forms.
5. To explain why events in the past are often interpreted and represented differently and why explanations or interpretations shift over time.
6. To argue different points in debates about events or processes in the past based on available evidence.
7. To demonstrate an appreciation that there are multiple ways of relating to the past - cognitive, emotional, moral, political, material, and aesthetic.

4.4.2 Questions and Questioning in History Assessment

History is a process of enquiry based on the interpretation and analysis of evidence from the past. Different types of questions are used in History assessment.

A) Closed and Open Questions

Closed questions are those with a limited number of correct answers. These might begin with ‘who’, when’, ‘where’ or require yes/no answers. This type of question will test recall and understanding, they are useful for revision and help learners develop the foundational knowledge used in later grades for constructing a line of arguments. As such, they have a useful place in informal History assessment.

Open questions usually have multiple possible answers. In History, they often begin with ‘how’, ‘why’ or ‘what’. In answering these types of questions learners are required to give views, opinions, beliefs or judgements and provide information as evidence to support their responses. Open questions can be used to sustain classroom discussion and debate; they promote higher-order thinking and help learners develop their Historical thinking skills.

- **Key Questions**

Key questions are overarching enquiry questions which give any lesson or topic unity and coherence, driving and focusing the investigation. When constructing assessment tasks, teachers may use the key questions given in the curriculum or construct alternative key questions. Good key questions challenge learners to investigate a topic (rather than simply learn a narrative) and help to deepen our understanding of the complex past.

When constructing key questions for assessment purposes, Historical concepts should be

taken into consideration and used to frame the question. In this curriculum these concepts are:

- Time and chronology
- Significance
- Cause and Consequence
- Continuity and Change
- Multi-perspectivity (interpretations)

Example of Grade 9: Term 1

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Grade 9: Term 1</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Topic: Pseudo-Science, Racism and the Entrenchment of Social Inequalities during the Nineteenth Century</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key Questions:
Why and how was pseudo-science used to entrench racial segregation and social and political inequalities during the nineteenth century?

How have technology and recent scientific discoveries refuted pseudo-scientific racism?</td><td>Suggested Contact Time:
15 Hours</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process?
The learner should:
• understand the history of classifications that led to pseudo-scientific racism (Time and Chronology)
• understand that scientists are part of society and how science can be used to shape ideas and prejudices in society (Cause and Effect)
● appreciate that there are different ways of classification (Multiperspectivity)
● consider how ideas of race were used differently (Change and Continuity)
• understand the significance of technological advances in refuting pseudo-scientific racism (Significance)</td></tr>
</table>

B) Learners' Questions

Learning to ask good questions is a valuable skill to acquire in History. Learners should be given opportunities to construct and ask their own questions about a topic. This can be used as a valuable activity in assessment for learning.

4.4.3 Cognitive Levels in History

Informal and Formal assessments in History may take various forms, as outlined in section 4.2.4; however, all assessment tasks should cater for a range of cognitive levels and abilities of learners, as shown in the Figure below.

4.4.3.1 The Weighting of Cognitive Levels for Assessment in History

All Formal assessment tasks in History should be constructed using questions set at the grade-appropriate weighting of cognitive levels as indicated in percentage.

WEIGHTING OF COGNITIVE LEVELS: Gr 4- Gr 12

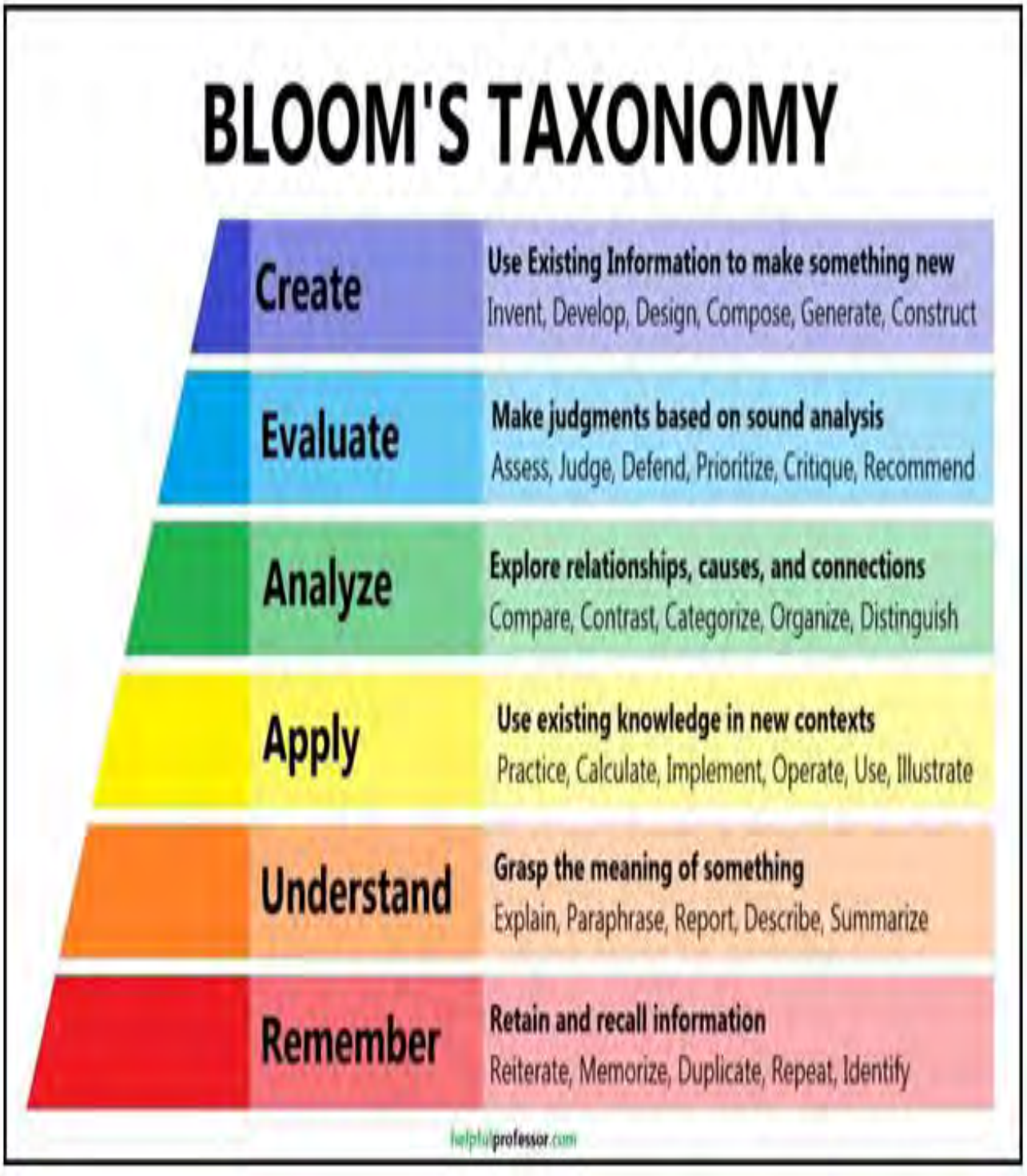
	LEVEL 1	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3
Grade 4	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 5	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 6	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 7	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 8	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 9	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 10	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**
Grade 11	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**
Grade 12	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**

Figure A: The cognitive level in terms of Blooms taxonomy and verbs, their application to History and suggested questions that can be asked in History assessment at different levels.

Cognitive Level	Blooms Category	Verbs	Application to History: Learners are able to	Questions that can be asked at different cognitive levels
L1	Comprehension Understanding Knowledge	Define Identify List Name State Select Quote Describe Discuss Illustrate	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the key features and characteristics of the period studied Understand and recognise the range of sources of information available for studying the past Extract information from source material to answer a question Extract information about the origins and context of a source	Questions that demonstrate knowledge What can you tell us about …? Recount information about … Using your own knowledge … Questions that demonstrate comprehension of provenance (origins) Who wrote/created this source? When was this source written/created? Where was it found/published/distributed? Questions that demonstrate comprehension/understanding Describe in your own words in what ways...explain your answer, What does the author tell us about …? What information does the author provide about …? Questions that demonstrate understanding of chronology In what order did the events of … happen?

Cognitive Level	Blooms Category	Verbs	Application to History: Learners are able to	Questions that can be asked at different cognitive levels.
L2	Analysis Application	Explain Choose Show Complete Predict Construct Use Analyse Compare Contrast Investigate Criticize Conclude Interpret	Interpret historical source material to explain its meaning in context Analyse historical events and periods studied using procedural historical concepts such as cause and consequence, multi-perspectivity, significance, change and continuity, time and chronology Interpret information from a number of sources including written, oral, landscape, material culture. Make inferences on the basis of information contained in source material. Apply prior knowledge to make meaning of historical source material	Explain the connection between… What language or words does the author use to persuade the audience? Describe the different points of view given in Discuss the different causes and/or effects of …? Classify information relating to the topic into different categories (eg: social, political, economic causes) What does the author / creator infer about …. Explain how the sources disagree of the matter of…? Identify and explain the authors perspective on … With reference to its origin, purpose and content, analyse the value and limitations of Examine the role of.. Point of view of author, interpret and explain Identify and explain similarities and differences between events Identify and explain similarities and differences between sources How does the source prove/ support/ show that … Analyse the reasons for …

				What is the significance, implication, meaning … What conclusion can be drawn from the source about …
Cognitive Level	**Blooms Category**	**Verbs**	**Application to History: Learners are able to**	**Suggested question prompts**
L3	Creation Evaluation Synthesis	Evaluate Appraise Support Compare Defend Estimate Predict Argue Interpret Contrast	Evaluate and use historical sources to answer questions and make substantiated judgements about past events and processes, in the context of historical events studied. Evaluate the usefulness of sources for answering questions about the past including their reliability, stereotyping and subjectivity Recognise that there is often more than one perspective of a historical event Explain why there were and are different interpretations of historical events and processes Participate in constructive and focussed debate through the careful evaluation of historical evidence Organise evidence to substantiate an argument, in order to create an original, coherent and balanced piece writing	Explain reasons why the interpretations might differ. With reference to their origin and purpose of the source, assess the value and/or limitations of … With reference to the author's perspective, what might be limitations to the source's accuracy regarding … Evaluate the sources' usefulness for answering a given question considering their provenance (origins), purpose and limitations Evaluate the significance of … on … Use source materials from multiple sources to create a representation of the events … Assess the reasons why …? Evaluate the contribution made by x to y? Assess the impact of … Evaluate the importance of Account for the differences regarding …. In the two sources Using information gathered from relevant sources and your knowledge, write a paragraph explaining /evaluating /critiquing… Evaluate the relative significance of ….



4.5 Forms of Assessment for History

Teachers should use a variety of informal and formal assessment tasks to evaluate learning. These tasks should be designed to demonstrate competency of historical content, concepts and skills and assess understanding of the core aims and objectives of the History curriculum.

Types of Assessment of Learning (AoL) in History Curriculum

Phase	Source-Based	Written Tasks
Intermediate Phase	**Source-based questions**	**Sentences** **Paragraphs**
Senior Phase	**Source-based questions**	**Sentences** **Paragraphs** **Narrative Essays**
FET	**Source-based questions**	**Sentences** **Paragraphs** **Narrative Essays** **Discursive Essays**

4.5.1 Tasks: Informal Assessment (AfL)

Every History lesson should engage learners in reading, writing and discussion about the historical topic and questions being studied. In addition to textbook tasks, informal assessment tasks (AfL) which might be included in History lessons include:

- Reading and extracting information from textbooks and other sources
- Writing summary notes under headings
- Organising information into categories (for example causes and consequences, similarities and differences, perspectives of different people about an event)
- Constructing questions about the topic using information from textbooks and other source material (these could be used for revision or quick quizzes)
- Putting dates into chronological order to create a timeline
- Creating a flow diagram or storyboard of events
- Asking and answering open and closed questions (who, what, when, where, why, how) using information in textbooks and historical source materials
- Using information in historical sources to answer questions at different cognitive levels (for example extracts, lists, names, identify, analyse, interpret, compare, contrast, evaluate, critique, synthesise, create). Answers could be presented in written, oral, dramatic or visual form.
- Creating a word wall or glossary with definitions of historical terminology
- Studying images (photographs, posters, paintings) to identify symbols and explain their meaning in context.
- Studying objects, landscapes, and material culture to answer questions about the past.
- Participating in structured, prepared discussion, debate or dramatic presentation about a topic, which involves extracting information from textbooks and other sources material.

4.5.2 Source-Based Enquiries: Formal Assessment and Informal Assessment

Source-based enquiries can be constructed using a wide range of primary and secondary source material, including oral, written, visual, as well as objects and material culture.

Working with sources across the curriculum

In the **Intermediate Phase** the aim of working with historical sources is to enable learners

- Identify a range of different sources materials that can be used to find about the past
- Ask historical questions about the source material
- Extract information from source material
- Interpret information from source material
- Extract information from source material
- Interpret information presented in different types of sources
- Use source material to construct stories
- Use information to answer questions about the past

In **Senior Phase** learners will also

- Interpret and analyze the information given in a variety of historical source
- Understand and explain why there is usually more than one perspective or interpretation of an historical event or process recorded in historical accounts of past events
- Identify and explain different perspectives and interpretations about past events
- Organise information from sources material to answer key questions

In **FET** learners will also

- Infer meaning from a variety of sources when answering questions
- Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of different source material for answering key questions
- Synthesis information , debates or interpretations from range of sources
- Select and organize information from a variety of historical sources materials which can be used to answer questions about the past, support a line of argument and to construct an original piece of historical writing.

When constructing source-based enquiries, teachers must ensure that the following aspects are adhered to:

- Group historical source material around a key question.
- The key question should be interesting, historically relevant and framed by the historical concepts indicated in Chapter 2.
- Provide a contextualisation for all source material.
  Contextualisation includes the author or creator of the source, the title and place of publication or website and the date of publication or when the website was accessed. If the source is an object, contextual information should include where it was found and what it is made. Contextualisation should be guided by the questions 'who, what, why, when, and for whom.

- NB: Learners need to use contextual information to answer questions about the usefulness of a source to answer the key question, and to evaluate its reliability as a source of evidence.
- All source material should be correctly referenced (ie the book, online site (URL), newspaper etc., where the sources were accessed)
- People in photographs and cartoons should be identified and labelled
- All text and images must be visible
- No sources should be combined into a composite source.

When used for Informal Assessment (AfL), the key question in a source-based enquiry could be answered in written, oral, dramatic or visual forms; however, when used for formal assessment, the final question in a source-based enquiry should require learners to answer the key question in paragraph form.

4.5.3 Writing Tasks: Paragraph and Essay writing (Informal or Formal Assessment)

One of the key objectives of the curriculum is to be able to present the outcomes of historical enquiry in logical and well-structured written (and oral) forms.

Learners should further develop their writing skills and be helped to practice them. Learners should have developed the skill of using historical evidence to write sentences in answer to questions and write longer pieces, such as paragraphs, which involve teaching learners to *select* the information they want to include (only to choose what is relevant), and to *arrange* the information in a logical order.

Writing frames and strategies such as 'PEEL' can be useful for scaffolding the learning of paragraph writing and connecting paragraphs to develop a line of argument.

The 'PEEL' method of paragraph writing is as follows:

- Point/Topic sentence
- Explanation
- Evidence

- Linking sentence (either/or back to the question or in longer pieces of writing, to the next paragraph)

In formal and informal assessments, paragraph questions should be allocated **5 marks** and a length of **5 lines (50 words**) for Grades 7 and **6 marks** and a length of **6 lines (60 words) for Grades 8 and 9.** Paragraph writing evaluates a range of skills at different cognitive levels, including selection, extraction, organisation, evaluation, and creation. Paragraphs must be written in full sentences.

Grade 7 – Rubric for Paragraph Writing

LEVELS	LEVEL DESCRIPTORS GRADE 7	MARKS
LEVEL 1	Uses evidence in an elementary manner, e.g., shows little or no understanding of the topic. Uses evidence partially to report on the topic or cannot report on the topic. There is no evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	0 -1
LEVEL 2	Evidence is mostly relevant and relates largely to the topic. Uses evidence in a very basic manner. There is evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	2 - 3
LEVEL 3	Uses relevant evidence, e.g., demonstrates a thorough understanding of the topic. Uses evidence very effectively in an organised paragraph that shows an understanding of the topic. Adheres to the structure of a paragraph with evidence of all components' topic sentence, main points, and closing sentence.	4 - 5

Grade 8 and 9 - Rubric for Paragraph Writing

LEVELS	LEVEL DESCRIPTORS GRADE 8 & 9	MARKS
LEVEL 1	Uses evidence in an elementary manner e.g. shows little or no understanding of the topic. Uses evidence partially to report on a topic or cannot report on the topic. There is no evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	0-2
LEVEL 2	Evidence is mostly relevant and relates largely to the topic. Uses evidence in a very basic manner. There is evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	3- 4
LEVEL 3	Uses relevant evidence, e.g. demonstrates a thorough understanding of the topic. Uses evidence very effectively in an organised paragraph that shows an understanding of the topic. Adheres to the structure of a paragraph with evidence of all components: topic sentence, main points, and closing sentence.	5 - 6

NB: In addition to the rubric, the memorandum (marking guidelines) for formal assessment tasks should include a model answer to a paragraph question.

Creative Response

Rubric for a Poster

Criteria	Level 1 1	Level 2 2	Level 3 3	Level 4 4
Design and layout	Design and layout disorganized and the poster mostly unattractive	Some organization is evident, and it is partly attractive.	Poster is well organized and very attractive	Poster is very well organized and extremely attractive
Creativity	There is little evidence of creativity	Reflects some degree of creativity	Poster is shown to be faultless.	Poster Reflects an original degree of creativity
Presentation	The poster is messy and not presented professionally	The poster has limited presentability	The presentability of the poster is at the expected achievement.	The poster is neat and presentable in an original way.
Purpose	The poster does not achieve its purpose	The poster partially achieves its purpose	The purpose is accomplished per the expected achievement.	The purpose has been achieved originally and creatively.
Effectiveness	There is little relevant information present	Some information to create understanding is present	All the information to create understanding is present	More information that is needed to create an understanding is present
Total				**10 marks**

Essay Writing (Narrative)

When constructing essay questions, teachers should use the topic focus suggested by the key questions and suggestions for the integration of content with historical concepts that are made for every topic. Writing an essay could be the result of an enquiry-based lesson sequence in which learners have studied a topic and analysed a variety of historical source material relating to a key question.

- Essays must have a formal structure that includes an introduction, which introduces the point of view or explanation of the topic.
- A main body, which develops an argument; and a conclusion (conclude the line of argument). Credit will be given for this structure.
- Each paragraph represents an idea. The line of argument must form a thread throughout the essay.
- When answering essay questions, learners should discuss, explain or assess (prove) the accuracy of a statement if required to do so, or to express an opinion.

- Through essays, teachers should assess learners' ability to demonstrate or communicate thorough knowledge and understanding of the topic and use relevant information to answer the question.
- Learners should:
    - plan and structure an essay.
    - use evidence to support an argument.
    - develop and sustain an independent and well-balanced argument; and
    - write logically, coherently and chronologically.

Marking essay questions

- Teachers must be aware that the content of the answer will be indicated as a synopsis in the marking guidelines.
- Learners may have other relevant introductions and/or conclusions than those included in a specific essay marking guideline for a specific essay.
- When assessing open-ended source-based questions, learners should be credited for any other relevant answers.

Global assessment of the essay

The essay will be assessed holistically (globally). This approach requires the teacher to score the overall product, without scoring the component parts separately. This approach encourages the learner to offer an individual opinion by using selected factual evidence to support an argument. The learner will not be required to simply mention 'facts' to achieve a high mark. This approach discourages learners from preparing 'model' answers and reproducing them without taking into account the specific requirements of the question. Holistic marking of the essay credits learners' opinions supported by evidence. Holistic assessment, unlike content-based marking, does not penalise language inadequacies as the emphasis is on the following:

- The construction of an argument
- The appropriate selection of factual evidence to support such an argument
- The learner's interpretation of the question.

Keep the synopsis in mind when assessing the essay. During the first reading of the essay ticks need to be awarded for a relevant introduction (indicated by a bullet in the marking guideline/memorandum), each of the main points/aspects that are properly contextualized (also indicated by bullets in the marking

guideline/memorandum) and a relevant conclusion (indicated by a bullet in the marking guideline/memorandum). The following additional symbols can also be used:

- Introduction, main aspects and conclusion not properly contextualized: ^
- Wrong statement: _____
- Irrelevant statement: |
  |
  |
- Repetition: R
- Analysis: A ✓
- Interpretation: 1 ✓

A generic rubric for assessing essays in Grades 7-9 is provided below. It is important to note that Grade 7 learners write essays that carry a total of 10 marks, as indicated in the rubric, and Grades 8-9, essays are allocated a total of 20 marks.

PRESENTATION	LEVEL 7	LEVEL 6	LEVEL 5	LEVEL 4	LEVEL 3	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 1
CONTENT	Very well planned and structured. Good synthesis of information. Constructed an argument. Very good use of evidence to support the argument	Well planned and structured. Synthesis of information. Constructed and argument. Evidence used to support the argument.	Writing structured. Constructed an argument. Evidence used to support argument.	Clear attempt to construct an argument. Evidence used to a large extent to support the argument.	Some attempt to organise the information into an argument. Evidence not well used in supporting the argument.	Largely descriptive/ with little or some attempt to develop an argument.	Answer not at all well-structured.
LEVEL 7 The question has been fully answered. Content selection fully relevant to line of argument.	18-20 [Gr 8-9] 13-15 [Gr 7]	16-17 [Gr 8-9] 12-13 [Gr 7]					
LEVEL 6 The question has been answered. The content selection is relevant to a line of argument.	16-17 [Gr 8-9] 12-13 [Gr 7]	15 [Gr 8-9] 11 [Gr 7]	14 [Gr 8-9] 10 [Gr 7]				
LEVEL 5 The question has been answered to a great extent. The content is adequately covered and is relevant		14 [Gr 8-9] 10 [Gr 7]	13 [Gr 8-9] 9 [Gr 7]	12 [Gr 8-9] 8 [Gr 7]			
LEVEL 4 The question is recognisable in the answer. Some omissions/ irrelevant content selection.			12 [Gr 8-9] 8 [Gr 7]	11 [Gr 8-9] 7 [Gr 7]	10 [Gr 8-9] 6 [Gr 7]		
LEVEL 3 The content selection does not always relate. Omissions in coverage.				10 [Gr 8-9] 6 [Gr 7]	9 [Gr 8-9] 5 [Gr 7]	8 [Gr 8-9] 4 [Gr 7]	

LEVEL 2 The content is sparse. The question is inadequately addressed.					8 [Gr 8-9] 4 [Gr 7]	7 [Gr 8-9] 3 [Gr 7]	6 [Gr 8-9] 2 [Gr 7]
LEVEL 1 The content is sparse, the question is inadequately addressed						6 [Gr 8-9] 2 [Gr 7]	0-5 [Gr 8-9] 0-1 [Gr 7]

Guidelines for allocating a mark for Level 1*:

- Question not addressed at all/totally irrelevant content; no attempt to structure the essay = 0
- Content selection includes basic and generally irrelevant information; no attempt to structure the essay = 1– 6
- Question inadequately addressed and vague; little attempt to structure the essay = 7–13

Marking of Narrative Essay Questions

In the Senior Phase, only a narrative essay will be assessed. In Grade 7, Learners will write an essay in terms 3 and 4, and the length will be 3 paragraphs, which is approximately (c.180 words). In Grades 8 and 9, learners will be assessed with essays during the mid-year and end-year examinations, and the length of the essay is 4 paragraphs, which is approximately (c.240 words). Answer to questions beginning with '**describe' or 'discuss'.**

Gr 7 = 10 **Gr 8 = 15** **Gr 9 = 20**	**5-7**	**3-4**	**2**	**0-1**
Gr 10 = 25	**7-8**	**4-6**	**3**	**0-2**
	LEVEL 4	**LEVEL 3**	**LEVEL 2**	**LEVEL 1**
CRITERIA 1 **STRUCTURE**			Has an introduction, body of paragraphs, and a conclusion	Is missing an introduction, conclusion or a body of paragraph

CRITERIA 2 **SELECTION**	Only relevant and accurate information has been selected for inclusion	Mostly relevant and accurate information has been included. Occasionally irrelevant or inaccurate information has been included	Some relevant and accurate information has been included. Some irrelevant or inaccurate information is included	Little to no relevant and accurate information has been included. Much irrelevant or inaccurate information has been included
CRITERIA 3 **ARRANGEMENT**	All information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order	Information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order to a large extent	Some information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order	Little or no information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order
CRITERIA 4 **USE OF HISTORICAL TERMINOLOGY AND CONCEPTS**		To a large extent historical terms and concepts have been used accurately	To some extent historical terms and concepts have been used accurately	Few or no historical terms and concepts have been used, or have been used inaccurately

4.5.6 Research Projects

Research projects are completed in the GET and FET. They are an opportunity for the learners to **develop and practice the skills of historical enquiry** from the framing of research questions to finding and analysing relevant source material (textual, material culture, images, digital, landscape, oral etc.), and structuring a coherent response to the research question in final presentation.

Suggestions for GET research projects

Gr. 4 (Our Histories), Gr. 5 (Food), Gr. 6 (Ancient Egypt), Gr.7 (Colonisation, resistance and social change in the Cape region 1650s – 1800s) Gr. 9 (Gender and Human Rights: Women, Women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910s – 1960s)

Suggestions for FET research projects

The research project in FET could focus on different aspects of **Historical Culture** through the exploration of **heritage** sites, events or people of local interest. Research questions could be constructed to explore issues of changing or **contemporary forms in which past events are represented** e.g. memorials, but also film, music, art. Research projects are also an opportunity to research more complex issues in contemporary South Africa which are **legacies** of the past.

Teachers may also take as their focus an **appropriate content topic** in Section 3 for a more in-depth study. Research projects should not, however, be used as an alternative to teaching in class.

Alternatively, the research projects could take as their focus an appropriate content topic in Chapter 3 of the document for a more in-depth study. For example,

Grade 4:

Topic 3: Our Histories

Grade 5:

Topic 3: Food

Grade 6:

Topic 3: Egypt – Role of the Nile River

Grade 7 :

Topic 3: Colonisation, resistance and social change in the Cape region 1650s – 1800s

Grade 9:

Topic 3: Gender and Human Rights: Women, Women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910s – 1960s

Grade 10:

Topic 2: Achievements of African People since Ancient Times

Topic 3: Ancient Ethiopia before 1600 C.E. and the use of myths and legends in History as a discipline.

Grade 11:

Topic 2: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 16th to 19th centuries

Topic 3: Slavery, Slave Resistance, and the Haitian Revolution

Grade 12

Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the Late 19th and 20th Century

Topic 2: The National Question in South Africa: The Formation of the National Party, the African National Congress, and the Communist Party of South Africa in the early 20th century.

RUBRIC FOR RESEARCH PROJECT GRADES 7 – 9

CRITERIA	**(5)**	**(4 – 3)**	**(2 - 1)**	**(0)**
1. PREPARATION AND PLANNING • There is evidence of planning for the task eg. Timeline of task, notes on background research, etc.)	Demonstrates thorough evidence of planning	Shows adequate evidence of planning	Shows some evidence of planning	Shows no evidence of planning
	(9 – 10)	**(6 – 8)**	**(3 – 5)**	**(0 – 2)**
2. IDENTIFICATION AND ACCESS TO RELEVANT SOURCES IN GATHERING INFORMATION • Archival material, • Photos • Newspaper articles • Interviewees - Person(s) interviewed was (were) appropriate - The interviewee(s) was (were) placed into historical context - The biographical details of the interviewee(s) was (were) given	Demonstrates outstanding ability to identify relevant sources	Shows adequate ability to identify relevant sources	Shows Some ability to identify relevant sources	Shows No or little ability to identify relevant sources

• Other sources				
	5	**(3 – 4)**	**(1 – 2)**	**(0)**
3. DESIGN A QUESTIONNAIRE (INTERVIEW QUESTIONS) • The questions were focused and open ended. • The questions were appropriate and elicited information relevant to the key question. • There were sufficient questions (no less than 10 questions)	Demonstrates outstanding ability formulate questions	Shows adequate ability formulate questions	Shows Some ability formulate questions	Shows No ability to formulate questions
	5	**(3 – 4)**	**(1 – 2)**	**(0)**
4. TRANSCRIPTION OF INTERVIEWS • The information from the interviews was accurately transcribed (if a recorder was used).	Demonstrates Thorough evidence of transcription of interviewees responses	Shows adequate evidence of transcription of interviewees responses	Shows Some evidence of transcription of interviewees responses	No evidence of transcription of interviewees responses
	(17 – 20)	**(11 – 16)**	**(5 – 10)**	**(0 – 4)**
5. PRESENTATION (WRITTEN AND ORAL) • The context for understanding the interview(s) was given. • The information from the interviews was placed in historical context. • The information from the interviews was analysed and organised coherently, showing different points of view if appropriate. • The presentation of the task to the class was clear and effective	Demonstrates outstanding ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings	Shows adequate ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings	Shows some ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings	Shows no or little ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings
	5	**(3 – 4)**	**(1 – 2)**	**(0)**
6. SELF-REFLECTION • Skills, knowledge, and values learnt in the process	Demonstrates outstanding ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process	Show adequate ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process	Show some ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process	Show no ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process

4.6 Tests and Examinations

Tests and examinations should cover a substantial amount of content. Refer to the Programme of Assessment and Examination Guidelines. Tests and examinations must be completed under strictly controlled and supervised conditions. Each test and examination must cater for a grade-appropriate range of cognitive levels.

4.7 Scaffolding Assessment Tasks

The quality of learners' work depends on the care with which their tasks and questions are set. They should be given precise and detailed instructions, both to tell them what they must do and to tell them where they can find the information they need. It is often a good idea to break down big questions into a number of smaller sub-questions and procedural steps (scaffolding). Clear timeframes and due dates should be given for projects.

4.8 Plagiarism

Plagiarism (using someone else's work and pretending it is one's own) is a particular problem, whether it involves someone else doing the work, copying another learner's work, or cutting and pasting from the Internet. Learners must be taught to show whenever they quote something and how to give their references. Likewise, teachers need to set learners an example by always giving the references for information and sources they use in their teaching materials and show learners how materials in textbooks have been referenced. To avoid plagiarism, teachers should change their assessment tasks, including research projects, annually.

4.9 ASSESSMENT GUIDELINES AND EXAMINATION FRAMEWORK

The programme of assessment is designed to spread formal assessment tasks in a school throughout the term.

GRADE	TERM	FORM OF ASSESSMENT	TYPE OF QUESTION	TERM CONTENT	MARKS
7	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (45) marks) and paragraph writing (5) marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 1	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (30) marks) and Paragraph writing (5) marks)	Term 2	35 Marks
					50 Marks
	3	Task - Research and Role Play	Research on two periods (20 marks each period) Role Play – a character of one leader from the categories (10 marks)	Term 3	50 Marks
	4	End--Year Examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 3	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (10 marks)	Term 4	35 Marks
					50 Marks
	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (44) marks) and paragraph writing (6 marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 1	35 Marks

8			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (15 marks)	Term 2	40 Marks 75 Marks
	3	Task - Creative Response	Design a poster about the living and working conditions created by the indentured and migrant labour system. Write an essay to explain the above (50 Marks).	Term 3	50 Marks
	4	End - year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 3	35 Marks
			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (15 marks)	Term 4	40 Marks 75 Marks
9	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (44) marks) and paragraph writing (6) marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 1	35 Marks
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Essay writing (20 marks)	Term 2	40 Marks 75 Marks
	3	Project	Research on Gender and Human Rights	Term 3	50 Marks
	4	End -year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 3	35 marks
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Essay writing (20 marks)	Term 4	40 marks 75 Marks

Grade 10

Only in the mid-year examination, the learners are expected to write a narrative essay in the exam. However, at the end-of-year examination, the learners will write argumentative essays.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	2	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
2	3	Heritage Assignment	50	40%	20
	4	Mid-year Exam	100	60%	20
3	5	Source-Based or Essay	50	40%	10
	6	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
	SBA Mark				100 (40%)
4		End-of-year examinations (One Paper)			150 (60%)

Grade 11

All the essay questions are argumentative.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	2	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
2	3	Research	50	40%	20
	4	Mid-year Examinations	200	60%	20
3	5	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	6	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
	SBA Mark				100 (40%)
4		End-of-year examinations (Paper 1 and 2)			300 (60%)

Grade 12

All the essay questions are argumentative.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based and Essay	100	25%	10
	2	Standardized Test	100	75%	10
2	3	Research	100	25%	20
	4	June Examinations	300	75%	20
3	5	Source-based and Essay	100	25%	10
	6	Preparatory Examinations	300	75%	30
	SBA Mark				100 (25%)
4		End-of-year examinations (Paper 1 and 2)			300 (75%)

Grade 12

MID-YEAR AND END-OF-YEAR EXAMINATIONS	
Examination	**Marks**
Grade 12: **Two papers mid-year:** Two papers of 3 hours and two topics from each paper to be covered by June; four questions set in each paper: Two essays and two source-based questions; learners answer three questions, one essay, one source-based question, and one from either essay or source-based on each paper.	300
Two papers at the end of the year: The Grade 12 papers will consist of two papers of three hours each. The mark allocation will be 150 for each of the question papers. • Questions are set on all sections. Both question papers consisted of 6 questions each, SECTION A and SECTION B. • SECTION A consists of THREE (3) source-based questions. Candidates are required to answer at least ONE SOURCE-BASED question (compulsory theme) in each question paper. • SECTION B consists of THREE (3) essay questions. Candidates are required to answer at least ONE ESSAY question (compulsory theme) in each question paper. • In total candidates were required to answer THREE questions, which were as follow: ✓ ONE (1) source-based question (compulsory theme) and ONE (1) essay question (compulsory theme). The third question can be either a source-based question or an essay question. ✓ Topic 2: The National Question in South Africa: The Formation of the National Party, the African National Congress and the Communist Party of South Africa in the Early 20th Century – **[COMPULSORY]** ✓ Topic 4: The Era of the Liberation Struggles and the Politics of Apartheid South Africa on the African Continent - **[COMPULSORY]**	300

4.10 RECORDING AND REPORTING

Recording is a process in which the teacher documents the level of a learner's performance in a specific assessment task. It indicates learner progress towards the achievement of the knowledge as prescribed in the curriculum and assessment policy statements. Records of learner performance should provide evidence of the learner's conceptual progression within a grade and his or her

readiness to progress or be promoted to the next grade. Records of learner performance should also be used to verify the progress made by teachers and learners in the teaching and learning process.

Reporting is a process of communicating learner performance to learners, parents, schools, and other stakeholders. Learners' performance can be reported in many ways. These include report cards, parent meetings, school visitation days, parent-teacher conferences, phone calls, letters, class or school newsletters, etc. Teachers in all grades report in percentages against the subject. The various achievement levels and their corresponding percentage bands are shown in the table below.

4.11 CODES AND PERCENTAGES FOR RECORDING AND REPORTING

Rating code	Description of competence	Percentage
7	Outstanding achievement	80 – 100
6	Meritorious achievement	70 - 79
5	Substantial achievement	60 – 69
4	Adequate achievement	50 – 59
3	Moderate achievement	40 – 49
2	Elementary achievement	30 - 39
1	Not achieved	0 – 29

Teachers will record actual marks against the task by using a record sheet and report percentages against the subject on the learners' report cards.

4.12 Moderation of Assessment

Moderation ensures that the assessment tasks are fair, valid and reliable. Moderation should be implemented at school, district, provincial and national levels. Comprehensive and appropriate moderation practices must be in place for the quality assurance of all subject assessments.

4.12.1 Moderation in history

Moderators should pay particular attention to the instructions for tasks and projects, as well as to the wording of questions in examinations, and they should ask: Is it clear what learners are expected to do? Can it be explained better? Is there further information that will assist learners in completing the tasks or question? They should also insist that references are provided for all sources used.

The table for the *Global Assessment of Essays*, which is provided for Grade 12 examinations, should be adapted and used for the marking of all written work and projects in all three grades, whenever possible. If rubrics are used, teachers should ask: Is it necessary to use a rubric, as many tasks and projects can be marked better using a marking scheme? If a rubric is necessary, does it adequately measure the achievement of the task or project?

Moderators should ensure that assessment tasks and projects comply with the following:

- They include information about where and how learners are realistically expected to information
- They warn learners to avoid plagiarism; and
- They provide instructions for how references are to be written

4.13 General

This document should be read in conjunction with:

National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and

The policy document, National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12

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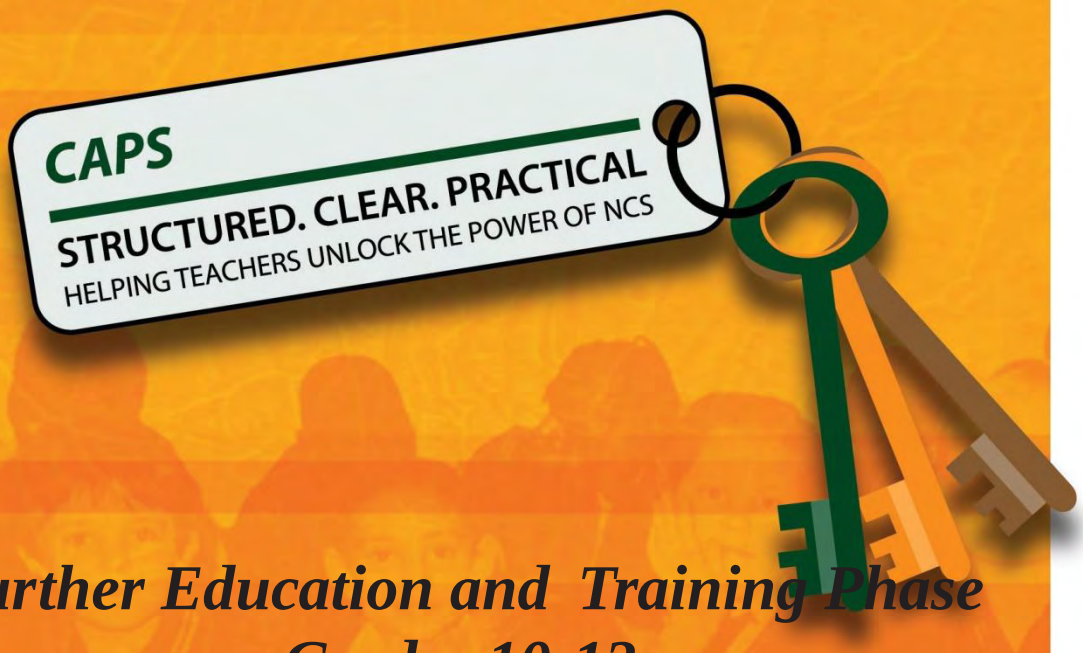
K.E. Atkins, *The Moon is Dead! Give Us Our Money! The Cultural Origins of an African* (Portsmouth: Heinemann, 1993).

HISTORY

National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement



Further Education and Training Phase
Grades 10-12

basic education

Department:
Basic Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT
GRADES 10-12

HISTORY

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Printed by: Government Printing Works

FOREWORD

Our national curriculum is the culmination of our efforts over a period of seventeen years to transform the curriculum bequeathed to us by apartheid. From the start of democracy we have built our curriculum on the values that inspired our Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). The Preamble to the Constitution states that the aims of the Constitution are to:

- heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights;
- improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person;
- lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law; and
- build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations.

Education and the curriculum have an important role to play in realising these aims.

In 1997 we introduced outcomes-based education to overcome the curricular divisions of the past, but the experience of implementation prompted a review in 2000. This led to the first curriculum revision: the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 and the National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 (2002).

Ongoing implementation challenges resulted in another review in 2009 and we revised the Revised National Curriculum Statement (2002) to produce this document.

From 2012 the two 2002 curricula, for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12 respectively, are combined in a single document and will simply be known as the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. The National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-12 builds on the previous curriculum but also updates it and aims to provide clearer specification of what is to be taught and learnt on a term-by-term basis.

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 accordingly replaces the Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines with the

(a) Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for all approved subjects listed in this document;

(b) National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and

(c) National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12.

MS SIVIWE GWARUBE, MP

MINISTER OF BASIC EDUCATION

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SECTION 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENTS FOR HISTORY GRADES 10-12

1.1 Background

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (NCS) stipulates policy on curriculum and assessment in the schooling sector.

To improve implementation, the National Curriculum Statement was amended, with the amendments coming into effect in January 2012. A single comprehensive Curriculum and Assessment Policy document was developed for each subject to replace Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines in Grades R-12.

1.2 Overview

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools and comprises the following:

(i) Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for each approved school subject;

(ii) The policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and

(iii) The policy document, National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (January 2012).

The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) replaces the two current national curricula statements, namely the

(i) Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9, Government Gazette No. 23406 of 31 May 2002, and

(ii) National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 Government Gazettes, No. 25545 of 6 October 2003 and No. 27594 of 17 May 2005.

The national curriculum statements contemplated in subparagraphs b(i) and (ii) comprise the following policy documents which will be incrementally repealed by the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) during the period 2012-2014:

(i) The Learning Area/Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12;

(ii) The policy document, National Policy on assessment and qualifications for schools in the General Education and Training Band d, promulgated in Government Notice No. 124 in Government Gazette No. 29626 of 12 February 2007;

(iii) The policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), promulgated in Government Gazette No.27819 of 20 July 2005;

The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding learners with special needs, published in Government Gazette, No.29466 of 11 December 2006, is incorporated in the policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and

(v) The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding the National Protocol for Assessment (Grades R-12), promulgated in Government Notice No.1267 in Government Gazette No. 29467 of 11 December 2006.

(d) The policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12, and the sections on the Curriculum and Assessment Policy as contemplated in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of this document constitute the norms and standards of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. It will therefore, in terms of section 6A of the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996,) form the basis for the Minister of Basic Education to determine minimum outcomes and standards, as well as the processes and procedures for the assessment of learner achievement to be applicable to public and independent schools.

1.3 General aims of the South African Curriculum

(a) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 gives expression to the knowledge, skills and values worth learning in South African schools. This curriculum aims to ensure that children acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. In this regard, the curriculum promotes knowledge in local contexts, while being sensitive to global imperatives.

(b) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 serves the purposes of:

- equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country;
- providing access to higher education;
- facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace; and
- providing employers with a sufficient profile of a learner's competences.

(c) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is based on the following principles:

Social transformation: ensuring that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed, and that equal educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population;

Active and critical learning: encouraging an active and critical approach to learning, rather than rote and uncritical learning of given truths;

- High knowledge and high skills: the minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade are specified and set high, achievable standards in all subjects;

- Progression: content and context of each grade shows progression from simple to complex;
- Human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice: infusing the principles and practices of social and environmental justice and human rights as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is sensitive to issues of diversity such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability and other factors;
- Valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution; and
- Credibility, quality and efficiency: providing an education that is comparable in quality, breadth and depth to those of other countries.

(d) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 aims to produce learners that are able to:

- identify and solve problems and make decisions using critical and creative thinking;
- work effectively as individuals and with others as members of a team;
- organise and manage themselves and their activities responsibly and effectively;
- collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information;
- communicate effectively using visual, symbolic and/or language skills in various modes;
- use science and technology effectively and critically showing responsibility towards the environment and the health of others; and
- demonstrate an understanding of the world as a set of related systems by recognising that problem solving contexts do not exist in isolation.

(e) Inclusivity should become a central part of the organisation, planning and teaching at each school. This can only happen if all teachers have a sound understanding of how to recognise and address barriers to learning, and how to plan for diversity.

The key to managing inclusivity is ensuring that barriers are identified and addressed by all the relevant support structures within the school community, including teachers, District-Based Support Teams, Institutional-Level Support Teams, parents and Special Schools as Resource Centres. To address barriers in the classroom, teachers should use various curriculum differentiation strategies such as those included in the Department of Basic Education's Guidelines for Inclusive Teaching and Learning (2010).

1.4 Time Allocation

1.4.1 Foundation Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Foundation Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	GRADE R (HOURS)	RADES 1-2 (HOURS)	GRADE 3 (HOURS)
Home Language	10	8/7	8/7
First Additional Language		2/3	¾
Mathematics	7	7	7
Life Skills □ Beginning Knowledge □ Creative Arts □ Physical Education □ Personal and Social Well-being	6 (1) (2) (2) (1)	6 (1) (2) (2) (1)	7 (2) (2) (2) (1)
TOTAL	23	23	25

(b) Instructional time for Grades R, 1 and 2 is 23 hours and for Grade 3 is 25 hours.

Ten hours are allocated for languages in Grades R-2 and 11 hours in Grade 3. A maximum of 8 hours and a minimum of 7 hours are allocated for Home Language and a minimum of 2 hours and a maximum of 3 hours for Additional Language in Grades 1-2. In Grade 3 a maximum of 8 hours and a minimum of 7 hours are allocated for Home Language and a minimum of 3 hours and a maximum of 4 hours for First Additional Language.

In Life Skills Beginning Knowledge is allocated 1 hour in Grades R-2 and 2 hours as indicated by the hours in brackets for Grade 3.

1.4.2 Intermediate Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Intermediate Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	HOURS
Home Language	6
First Additional Language	5
Mathematics	6
Natural Science and Technology	3,5
Social Sciences	3
Life Skills □ Creative Arts □ Physical Education □ Personal and Social Well-being	4 (1,5) (1) (1,5)
TOTAL	27,5

1.4.3 Senior Phase

(a) The instructional time in the Senior Phase is as follows:

SUBJECT	HOURS
Home Language	5
First Additional Language	4
Mathematics	4,5
Natural Science	3
Social Sciences	3
Technology	2
Economic Management Sciences	2
Life Orientation	2
Creative Arts	2
TOTAL	27,5

1.4.4 Grades 10-12

(a) The instructional time in Grades 10-12 is as follows:

SUBJECT	TIME ALLOCATION PER WEEK (HOURS)
Home Language	4.5
First Additional Language	4.5
Mathematics	4.5
Life Orientation	2
A minimum of any three subjects selected from Group B Annexure B, Tables B1-B8 of the policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12, subject to the provisos stipulated in paragraph 28 of the said policy document.	12 (3x4h)

The allocated time per week may be utilised only for the minimum required NCS subjects as specified above, and may not be used for any additional subjects added to the list of minimum subjects. Should a learner wish to offer additional subjects, additional time must be allocated for the offering of these subjects.

SECTION 2

THE ESSENCE OF THE NEW HISTORY CURRICULUM

This is a new African-centred curriculum for 21st-century South Africa, which pays particular attention to the long past. An African-centred approach recognises that the African past is knowable and pursues the history of Africa through multiple methodologies to reconstruct the histories of Africans on the continent and in the world. The intention is to develop in the African child a strong foundational knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the continent, and its relationship to the world.

This is not a narrowly focused 'patriotic' history. It purposefully moves away from parochialism and exceptionalism to develop in learners a global historical consciousness from the vantage point of Africa. This curriculum has been influenced by the UNESCO *General History of Africa* approach to writing history for an independent Africa which is part of the broader process of decolonisation of knowledge across the continent.

UNESCO sets out to construct a history of Africa from the origins of humanity to the era of independence. In Volume I, of this impressive work, *Methodology and African Prehistory*, J. Ki-Zerbo argues:

> It is not our purpose to write a history which will be a mere settling of scores, with colonialist history backfiring on its authors, but rather to change the perspective and revive images which have been forgotten or lost. We must turn once more to science in order to create genuine cultural awareness. We must reconstruct the real course of events. And we must find another mode of discourse.[1]

An African-centred approach makes the effort to explore, use, and exploit various forms of African archives and sources – oral, archaeological, written, visual, linguistic, and landscape – in investigating historical questions about Africa and its interactions with the rest of the world. In addition to recognising a broad range of sources of evidence, it also embraces a wide range of technologies and techniques that are currently used to explore or interrogate material from the past, for example, remote sensing, DNA analysis or chemical analysis of bone and dating techniques.

There is a special place for oral traditions in an African-centred history because these are encoded in African languages and express the idiomatic wisdom and intellectualism of the varieties of people in Africa. Zi-Kerbo expresses the importance of oral forms in a colourful way, stating:

1. J. Ki-Zerbo (ed.), 'Introduction', in *Methodology and African Prehistory: UNESCO General History of Africa*, *Volume 1* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1980), 2.

> Besides the first two sources of African history – written documents and archaeology – oral tradition takes its place as a real living museum, conserver and transmitter of the social and cultural creations stored up by peoples said to have no written records. This spoken history is a very frail thread by which to trace our way back through the dark twists of the labyrinth of time… oral tradition is by far the most intimate of historical sources, the richest, the one which is the fullest of the sap of authenticity.[2]

This curriculum thus draws extensively on traditional indigenous oral forms such as praise poetry, clan praises, idioms, proverbs, folktales and other folklore which act as repositories of history, indigenous knowledge and philosophies. These play a critical role in conveying African interpretations and perspectives of history. They are also important in developing a sense of historical consciousness by conveying the history of pre-colonial pasts to the learner.

African-centredness requires that African languages and their idiomatic expressions be incorporated into the curriculum because they act as important archives of indigenous historical knowledge and memory. As all history requires language skills, the ability to express terms and concepts in a multi-lingual framework enriches and expands the vocabulary of the curriculum. It is especially important where indigenous terms provide more precise conceptual expressions and definitions of historical events and actions. The ability to read and translate African languages, and other languages in general, are critical skills for being able to work with and learn from a range of sources including archival and oral evidence.

Engaging with language as a source of history encourages critical engagement and debate because of how it shifts and changes over time. Language is not seen as a fixed or final arbiter of history but as an opportunity to spark discussion and engagement about the past and the present. In looking at local history, for example, local vernaculars and dialects will emerge through the languages of place names, or words used to describe objects. Place names provide an opportunity to discuss layers of historical meaning and how these change over time. Words can also tell us about relationships in the past, particularly with regard to the trade of goods. Thus, the relationship between various languages provides evidence of the historical process. Multilingualism is thus encouraged in this curriculum.

The curriculum also incorporates the perspectives of previously marginalised historiographies that have not yet been fully appreciated in mainstream academic historiography. Some of this historiography has historically been produced by African writers of the late 19th and early to mid-20th centuries which includes history books, historical novels and plays, poetry and newspaper articles.

Alongside developing knowledge about the past, the new History curriculum intentionally encourages a critical perspective and sets out to instil an analytical approach to working with material from the past and foster an understanding of how and why certain forms of history or representations of the past are constructed and what role they play in public memory.

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2. Ki-Zerbo (ed.), *Methodology and African Prehistory,* 7.

2.1 What is History and what is School History?

In this curriculum, we use the term 'history' in its broadest sense. History is not simply 'the past', it is the study of the past which involves learning how to think about the past in disciplined ways, and through the application of different disciplinary techniques and perspectives. For example, we have included the work of archaeologists, linguists and oral historians to extend the timeline further back into the past, and to provide the experience of working with a wide range of sources and new technologies. By exploring what happened even further back in time we also hope to develop an appreciation for the African past, for the advancement and innovation that spread to the rest of the world as humans began to move beyond Africa, and for Africa's part in global expansion prior to the 1500s.

History is a process of enquiry into the past which is open to continuous reassessment, reappraisal and revision. The study of history gives us an understanding of how past human actions affect the present and influence our future. It allows us to evaluate these effects, and their significance, in a range of contexts.

Studying history as a school subject equips learners with knowledge about the past and gives learners the conceptual tools to examine how and why different interpretations of the past have been constructed by archaeologists and historians (historiography). It also enables learners to engage critically with tangible and intangible representations of the past, such as memorials, landscapes and buildings, art, literature, film, music, traditions, performances and games. Learners can explore the perspectives of a broad social spectrum, and thereby become more aware of and sensitive to race, class, gender and the voices of 'ordinary' people. Through the development of historical thinking skills, learners can analyse critically how and why these representations of the past change over time.

The study of history provides opportunities for learners to develop a historical consciousness through which to orientate themselves in the continuum of human experience and to develop an understanding of how and why human actions have social and environmental consequences.

2.2 Specific Aims of School History

1. To develop an interest in and knowledge of the study of ancient and modern pasts.
2. To develop an understanding of substantive and procedural historical and archaeological concepts.
3. To develop an ability to understand and undertake a process of historical enquiry, which uses a range of archaeological and historical sources as evidence to make knowledgeable claims about the past.
4. To prepare young people for local, regional, continental, global and planetary responsibility.

2.3 Objectives of School History

1. To demonstrate a chronological knowledge and understanding of the past and the forces that shape it.
2. To demonstrate an ability to use different calendars and demonstrate an understanding of ways of measuring time.
3. To demonstrate a critical understanding of how sources and concepts are used to construct historically valid enquiries about the past.
4. To undertake an historical or archaeological enquiry and be able to present the outcomes of the enquiry in logical, well-structured written and oral forms.
5. To explain why events in the past are often interpreted and represented differently and why explanations or interpretations shift over time.
6. To discuss and deliberate different points about past events or processes, on the basis of available evidence.
7. To demonstrate an appreciation that there are multiple ways of relating to the past – including cognitive, emotional, moral, political, material and aesthetic ways of doing so.

2.4 Why archaeology?

Archaeology is the interpretation of past human societies from the study of the things that people leave behind; archaeologists study human activity across space and through time. Archaeologists do not only examine objects that have been carefully excavated from the ground. They also study sources of evidence found underwater, or above ground. These sources may be tiny or microscopic or they may incorporate an entire landscape. Archaeologists also use written sources to help them in their research.

Studies have shown that learners who are taught using an archaeological method of enquiry that involves fieldwork, excavation, and analysis of artefacts or sources of evidence, are more motivated to learn about the past, and have an improved connection with the past and the present. A more hands-on approach that involves active exploration – such as drawing, measuring, photographing and asking questions – can be coupled with an open, enquiry-based approach that helps to develop critical thinking skills, including observation, analysis, classification, reflection and interpretation. This archaeological method of enquiry encourages and facilitates knowledge production.

Learners working with a wide range of physical remains are also more aware of the biases in the historic record. Knowledge about which materials decay or under what circumstances material is preserved helps the learner recognise that we cannot know everything about the past, and that building and supporting a sound argument often requires multiple lines of evidence.

Archaeology is a multidisciplinary field that combines elements of science, technology and history. For example, archaeochemists use chemistry to analyse bones, archaeozoologists study the animals that people farmed or hunted from the bone remains and consider what those animals might have meant to them, while archaeobotanists focus on changing plant use and environments. Remote sensing technologies enable archaeologists to explore caves, mummies, skulls, or objects without having to

open or probe them. LIDAR and remote sensing can also be deployed to expose hidden activities or buildings over large tracts of land. By learning about archaeology, learners can develop an interest in these other areas and possibly be motivated to pursue a variety of career paths.

In short, learners who are taught how to work with physical sources of evidence will understand the human past more easily and with greater enjoyment. They will also begin to appreciate how knowledge from other disciplines, such as geography, science or biology can be applied to understand the past, and how a wide range of technologies can assist in this endeavour.

2.4.1 Why teach the archaeological past?

Archaeology serves an important historical function because it is one of the only means of examining the past in the early times before written records became available. We are completely dependent, therefore, upon archaeological and oral accounts for our knowledge of past societies that did not leave a written record of events. Archaeological excavation is perhaps the only way of appreciating the long and diverse histories of people who lived thousands of years ago in South Africa and abroad. It also allows learners to explore the deep history of different societies to gain a more diverse perspective on history and of different lifeways, cultural exchanges, and responses.

Possibly the most important reason for teaching the archaeological past in the school history syllabuses is to encourage knowledge and appreciation of Africa's long and rich history: the package of tools, art and innovation that had its roots in Africa and accompanied the movement of early humans out of Africa. Archaeology also gives us an awareness of Africa's early connections to Asia and Europe and the unique and remarkable African societies (Mali, Egypt, Ethiopia, for example) that emerged; and, southern Africa's participation in globalisation and trade within Africa and with the Middle East and Asia through the study of societies, maritime records and trade goods.

Archaeology serves yet another historical purpose. Archaeological research does not only reveal the past for which we have no written records, but it also serves to supplement the written records that are available. However, neither archaeological nor written records can be seen as wholly accurate and providing complete portrayals of life in the past. Historical documents tend to record major events and the lives of prominent people. History is also inherently biased. The personal values and interests of the writer, the social context in which the document is written, and the facts available to the writer at the time all exert an influence on the accuracy and completeness of any historical document. Since archaeological remains are also not a complete record of life in the past, historical and archaeological research can supplement one another for time periods where written documents exist. During the colonial period, a combination of archaeological, oral and written evidence can provide a more holistic picture of the past.

Lastly, because of the long-term perspective that archaeology provides, learners can become mindful of how human actions in the past have created and altered the current environment. This encourages

social awareness of their impact on the environment and of the value of protecting and preserving historical sites and landscapes.

2.5 Why make use of Oral History?

Before 1994, the school history curriculum put the experiences and achievements of white people, mainly males, at the centre of the narrative of South Africa. The story began with the arrival of the Dutch traders under Jan van Riebeeck and the establishment of a refreshment station at the Cape of Good Hope in 1652, the British takeover of the Cape Colony and conflicts culminating in the 'Great Trek' into what the settlers imagined was an 'empty' interior, followed by sporadic clashes with African societies and their defeat. The story ended with the National Party's takeover of a minority government and the establishment of the Black national states (also known as Bantustans). All these developments were seen through the eyes of the white people, specifically the Afrikaners. In other words, the Afrikaner nationalist perspective was the history of South Africa while African perspectives were completely marginalised.

In a context where only written sources were viewed as important building blocks of historical narratives, African perspectives were disregarded because they were deemed inadequately captured in official written sources. Minerals in South Africa, for example, were presented as a 'discovery' made by the white people, and the ensuing developments revolved around industrialisation, especially diamond and then gold mining in the late 19th century, thus disregarding African oral accounts of mining and metallurgy in pre-colonial southern African societies such as those in Phalaborwa, Mapungubwe and Great Zimbabwe.

Even when written records or historiographical interpretations by or about Africans existed (for example, correspondence by literate Africans such as John Langalibalele Dube, Tiyo Soga, and Sol Plaatje, among others), these were simply ignored by those in power. The school history curriculum of the time advanced a version of the past that was based mainly on sources generated by outsiders who were often hostile and prejudiced against African societies, for example, European colonial officials, hunters, travellers, traders, and so forth.

It was inevitable, therefore, that shortly after independence and democracy, the new government felt the school history curriculum needed to be transformed to reflect the multiplicity of perspectives that exist in the country, particularly those of African communities whose perspectives and general well-being had been utterly disregarded during the colonial and apartheid periods. African societies relied heavily on orality; memory was, and in many respects continues to be used as a valuable storage house for valuable historical information.

Through the inclusion of Oral History in the school curriculum, therefore, an opportunity was provided for marginalised communities with few or no written documents (societal groups such as the working class, farm tenants, women, etc.) to have their experience of forced removals, land expropriation and their bitter struggle against apartheid, to be captured in their own voices. The growing emphasis on Oral

History in schools and broader society post-1994 was thus based on a genuine effort to recover our silenced voices.

However, the need to take Oral History seriously does not mean that written sources (official correspondence, letters, memoranda, reports compiled by white commissioners, records of court cases, etc.) should be disregarded. The colonial or apartheid archive, read critically, must continue to be taken seriously as a repository of important aspects of our history.

2.5.1 What is Oral History?

The concept of Oral History is used to describe a method that relies largely on oral testimony and oral tradition as forms of historical evidence. It refers to history that is passed down through the generations by word of mouth.

There are two types of oral evidence, namely oral testimony and oral tradition. Each of these calls for additional explanation.

- Oral testimony is an eyewitness or first-hand account of an event or situation which occurred during the lifetime of the person interviewed. The informant tells a story about themselves, about what he or she has seen, heard, or done in the past.

- Oral tradition refers to stories or narratives which have been handed down by word of mouth from one generation to the next and, unlike oral testimonies, are no longer contemporary. There are many different examples – folktales, genealogies ('who begot whom' in the Old Testament), chiefly genealogies, praise songs of past heroes, etc.

Oral History can be seen as a means of asking, and perhaps answering, the kind of questions likely to lead to a fuller understanding of the experiences and consciousness of ordinary people.

2.5.2 What makes Oral History different?

The answer to this question is that it tells us not just what people did, but what they wanted to do, what they believed they were doing, and what they now think that they did.[3]

2.5.3 Types of Oral Interviews

3. A. Portelli, 'Oral History as Genre', in M. Chamberlain and P. Thompson (eds), *Narrative and Genre: Contexts and Types of Communication* (London: Routledge, 1998).

Oral history is usually collected through interviews. There are various types of interviews that historians may make use of, and these are discussed briefly below:

- **Life history interview**
  This is an interview conducted with one person focusing on his or her individual life history, or his or her family history. Often the interviewee will talk about parents, siblings and relatives. The idea is to gain a deeper understanding of the individual's life, with information being gathered in chronological order. By focusing on the stories of individuals and their families we can gain a better understanding of the experiences that are often ignored (such as details of the lifestyles of peasants, tenants, farm labourers and women). Broader historical themes that deserve attention include the history of land possession and dispossession, identity and acculturation, and religious affiliation. One of the main strengths of a life history interview is that it has a great capacity to yield unexpected data.

- **Structured interview**
  In a structured interview, the researcher prepares all the questions before the interview and only includes these particular pre-selected questions.

- **Semi-structured interview**
  A semi-structured interview is more open than a standardised questionnaire. A few questions are prepared in advance to steer the interview. The interviewee is allowed to give unrestricted answers and perhaps go off on a tangent into new topics of discussion. The interviewer should then follow up with related questions.

  The limitation of structured and semi-structured interviews is that the interviewer may steer the interviewee away from important areas that might have revealed new data and could also make the interviewee feel that his or her other life experiences are unimportant.

2.6 Conceptual Constructs in History Education

School history involves educating learners about the past and its representation through three interconnected conceptual constructs of 'history' (historical thinking, historical culture and historical consciousness) which develop intellectual and social competencies and enable learners to orientate themselves in time and place.

2.7 Historical thinking

Historical thinking refers to a disciplinary way of thinking about the past. It requires learners to move beyond an uncritical mastery of dates and details, the mere 'facts' about the past, to progress to an

understanding of how and why histories are constructed and contested.

Novice historical thinkers or younger learners tend to view history as a single, unchangeable account of the past while more sophisticated historical thinkers demonstrate an understanding of history as a construction, and as a critical interpretation of events in the past (as in a historiography on a certain topic or train of events). This form of disciplinary thinking needs to be taught and nurtured explicitly in learners. Alongside developing their knowledge of events and processes, learners should be given opportunities to *analyse* a variety of historical and archaeological sources from, and accounts of, the past. They should evaluate interpretations and representations of the past created by others, and conduct valid historical enquiries using different source materials, means of investigation or techniques. In addition, discussion, debate and the disciplined use of evidence to defend a line of argument should be incorporated into history lessons, alongside reading and writing, regularly.

2.8 Concepts in History

Concepts are abstract ideas which form the building blocks of a discipline. In History education there are different types of concepts:

> *Substantive concepts* relate to the events (the 'what') of the past. They are used by historians to bind together events within a period, such as the 'Industrial Revolution' the 'Apartheid era' and the 'Cold War'. They also include concepts used to explain historical processes, such as 'nationalism', 'revolution' and 'colonisation'. The meaning and significance of concepts may be interpreted differently depending on their context.

> *Procedural concepts* are meta-concepts which guide and shape the practice of history (the 'how'). They help us construct enquiry questions, and also assist in selecting, organising and evaluating information from and about the past to construct histories. Procedural concepts only become meaningful when we use them to ask questions about the past.

2.8.1 This School History curriculum identifies five core, procedural concepts

a) Time and Chronology

What is 'time'? Many of us take time for granted, we regard it as a natural phenomenon, like gravity. We often forget that time is perceived and communicated through devices that have been invented and introduced by people at different points in history to help organise and coordinate our activities. For example, did you know that standardised time (GMT) was only introduced in South Africa after 8 February 1892, to meet the needs of the railways? Or that GMT stands for Greenwich Mean Time

(Greenwich is in London, which tells us something about South Africa's colonial past). Furthermore, do you know that the calendar we use is the Gregorian or Christian calendar, which was introduced in Europe in 1582 CE? This calendar was based on the Julian calendar, adopted by Julius Caesar in 46 BCE.

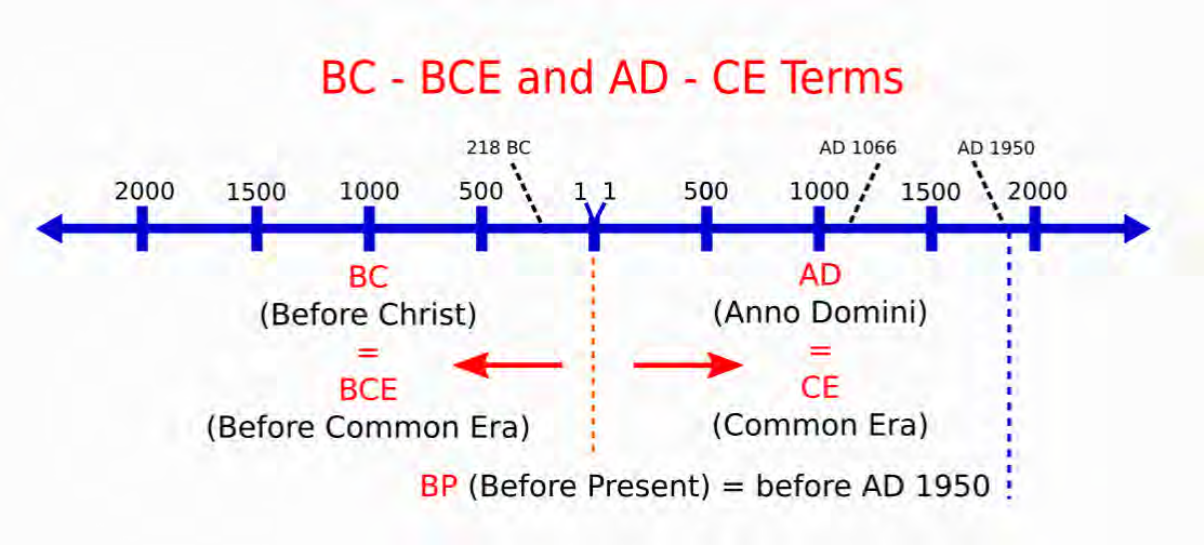
There were other calendars developed and used both earlier and at the same time as these calendars. For example, the Ethiopian calendar is based on the same astronomical calculations that lie behind today's Gregorian calendar. A year in the Ethiopian calendar is 13 months long (12 months of 30 days each and one month of 5 days or 6 days in a leap year). This means that while most Christians celebrate Christmas on the 25 December, Ethiopians and many Orthodox churches celebrate Christmas on 7 January.

In ancient Egypt, the first day of the year coincided with the appearance of Sirius on the eastern horizon just before sunrise and the flooding of the Nile at Memphis. The Zulu people also used the moon and stars to keep track of time. The season of cultivation was announced by the *isilimela*, the star cluster known as the Pleiades. The annual cycle was divided into thirteen phases of the moon, each associated with ecological changes and social activity. The new moon marked the end of the month which often caused those working in the city to become disgruntled when this did not coincide with month-end on the colonial calendar. This tension is evident in the title of the Keletso Atkins book, *The Moon is Dead! Give us Our Money*![4] In other words, the way we measure time is socially constructed. Even our perceptions of time are based on our personal experiences. When we enjoy ourselves, time flies, but a three-hour exam can seem like an eternity! With a global focus on economics and wealth, time is said to be money, and people are unwilling to waste time.

Historians and archaeologists arrange and define past events into periods or blocks of time. This is called 'periodisation' and when placed in sequence the periods form a chronology. These blocks of time may be based on features that are considered diagnostic of the particular period (Bronze Age; the Renaissance; the Industrial Revolution etc). Periods can be problematic because sometimes the features are common to more than one period, and often create the impression that history unfolded linearly. Periodisation can be revised to emphasise different aspects of the past. For example, instead of writing about the 'pre-colonial' period, historians may refer to the 'long past' of southern African history to emphasise that Africa has a far longer history than the short period of European colonisation.

Archaeologists work with different kinds of clocks to measure how much time has passed from the present (years Before Present [BP]). Among the many techniques available, they count tree rings (dendrochronology), and/or use radioactive clocks to calculate how much time has passed basing their calculations on the decay of radioactive isotopes. Radiocarbon or carbon-14 dating is an example of a radiometric clock.

4. K.E. Atkins, *The Moon is Dead! Give Us Our Money! The Cultural Origins of an African* (Portsmouth: Heinemann, 1993).



Examples of enquiry questions on the historical concept of 'time and chronology'

IP: How have the means of transport changed over time? (G5)

SP: How might we periodise the political dynamics of the Cape region c.1500–1850? (G7)

FET: What were the origins of the Cold War? (G12)

b) Historical Significance

Historical significance relates to events, people or processes in the past that have resulted in important changes. The selection of what is considered 'significant' varies over time and place and depends on who is making the choice. Developing as a historical thinker involves learners considering why some events, people or processes are (or were) considered important and selected to be remembered, recognised or recorded, and others were not. It also involves considering why some parts of the past seem to remain significant, while others fade from public knowledge or interest. An example of this could be the changes in the events celebrated as public holidays in South Africa, these have changed across the 19th, 20th and 21st centuries. Significance can also vary in scale, for example sometimes an event is catastrophic and has a global impact (such as the atomic bomb), while at other times the effects are only felt by a single nation, family or person.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'historical significance':

IP: Why is knowledge from sites dating back thousands of years important to South Africa and the world? (G6)

SP: To what extent was education employed as a tool to keep the people in South Africa divided along racial and ethnic lines from the early 1900s to the early 1990s? (G9)

FET: What was so significant about the Haitian Revolution? (G10)

c) Cause and Effect

Historical change is driven by multiple causes and its multiple effects involve individuals or groups taking action in different contexts. An event or process can be influenced by short-term and long-term causes, and often there is a 'trigger' which may spark an event or action. Historians often debate which one of many causes was more significant than others and what is the compound effect of several causal factors. The outcome of similar causes (such as unemployment, or a harvest failure) is neither predictable nor inevitable because they occur in different contexts. Similarly, the effects of an event or process cannot always be predicted and will impact people and places differently. Just as there are short-term and long-term 'causes', so too will there be short-term and long-term effects. Scale is important to consider because some actions have global impacts while others may have local impacts or may be limited to a specific group of people.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'cause and effect':

IP: What happened when people started to settle in one place, grow their own crops and keep their own livestock in Mesopotamia c.5000 years ago? (G6)

SP: Explain the possible causes of the Mfecane/Difaqane. (G8)

FET: Evaluate the social, political, environmental and health impact the Dutch and English voyages of 'discovery' had on Africa and the Americas. (G11)

d) Continuity and Change

'Continuity', refers to things staying the same while 'change', means alterations from what has gone before. Such change/s may vary in scale, pace and intensity. Both processes are experienced differently by people and importantly, change does not necessarily mean progress. School history often focuses on turning-points and sudden changes in political leadership, such as revolutions, which may

bring about significant changes to the social, economic, ideological or political life; however, underlying these changes may be profound structural continuities. Change in the archaeological past may appear to be very slow. Early modern humans appear to use the same tools, for tens of thousands of years, but we need to remember that evidence based on bone, wood and fibre tools, for example, may deteriorate with age and often do not preserve. The absence of these records creates the impression of an unchanging, static past. However, in certain cave sites where preservation is good, archaeologists can still gain a clear picture of change over time; they can detect the first use of body adornment, ochre, and complex tools. This enables them to assess how human behaviour, diet, hunting techniques, health and social systems changed over time.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept of 'change and continuity':

IP: How has the medium of communication changed over time? (G4)

SP: How did trade centres, routes, goods and local societies change over time? (G7)

FET: How did the nature and governance of kingdoms change as they become more centralised? (G11)

e) The concept of using 'multi-perspectivity and interpretations'

One of the goals of the new History curriculum is to shift the vantage point from which events and processes in the past are viewed, to position the learner in Africa and to view events from the vantage point of Africa. This involves 'de-centring' or 'provincialising' the histories of Europe and the global North. In the past, stories of and about the global North have been the focus of versions of the South African school curricula in terms of content, questions asked, archives consulted and interpretations privileged. Examining multiple perspectives does not mean that all viewpoints are equally valid. Indeed, any knowledge claims made about the past must be supported with evidence.

Working with multi-perspectivity involves:

- Recognising that different perspectives about past events exist and that different people may have understood events or processes differently in the past. (This does not necessarily mean that learners must 'accept' these perspectives).
- Identifying the different interpretations people had of past events at the time they occurred.
- Examining possible reasons why people in the past thought and acted as they did and recognising that they made choices in the context in which they were living.
- Examining the different ways in which historians and archaeologists interpreted and represented the past over time, using the evidence available (as in the relevant historiography). For example, today, working with different technologies and with different sources of evidence, archaeologists and historians can look for evidence to support or refute what earlier historians have written.
- Understanding that historians and archaeologists may ask very different questions about the past (due to their personal interest and curiosity, or the concerns of the time in which they are

writing) or focus their enquiries on groups of people who were previously marginalised or unseen.

- Examining how different people today interpret the actions and behaviour of people of the past.
- Examining the different ways in which events or processes in the past have been and are represented. For example, as academic history, art, tradition, orality, music, literature, film, memorials etc.

Examples of enquiry questions framed by the concept 'multiperspectivity and Interpretations':

IP: Why do names of places and landmarks often have a story linked to them – a local legend, or local hero – that might be remembered differently by different groups of people? (G4)

SP: How have the roles played by different historical personalities/characters in this period been remembered? (G7)

FET: How have different scholars critiqued claims that 'tribalism' is a defining feature of African societies? (G10)

2.9 Historical Culture

Historical culture refers to 'people's relationships to the past'. It involves the investigation of how people deal with the past, the meanings it is given and the uses to which 'history' is put in contemporary society. Historical knowledge is constructed in many different spaces outside academic writing and learners need to engage critically with a variety of tangible and intangible representations of the past – for example, social practices and traditions, heritage sites and memorials, art, literature, music, film, social media, gaming, etc.

One very important area of historical culture is heritage. Heritage refers to the cultural, historical, and natural legacy that is passed down from previous generations and chosen to be preserved for future generations. It includes tangible and intangible aspects of that society's past, for example, buildings, monuments, and artefacts, as well as traditions, languages, customs, rituals, knowledge systems, and natural landscapes. Heritage can provide a sense of belonging and continuity by connecting such people to their roots and their shared cultural values. As such, it plays an important role in shaping the identity of individuals, communities, and nations. Heritage and heritage sites have immense educational value and this curriculum encourages teachers to use local examples when constructing classroom enquiries, projects or planning field trips.

The study of historical culture in the school classroom enables learners to ask critical questions about popular representations and the ideological uses of the past, as well as the social consequences of these representations. For example, historical representations can be used for narrow patriotic or more inclusive purposes; they can be used to divide as well as unite certain groups within a society. History can be used to recognise multiple voices from the past, including those which are missing from official

histories, or to selectively promote one group. For example, the role played by women and children in past events and processes are often left out of official historical narratives.

The research projects in every grade provide opportunities for History learners to explore how the past is remembered in public and political spaces, by whom and how these representations have changed over time. For example, a heritage project might research changes in South African street names, memorials or public holidays.

Examples of enquiry questions which explore Historical Culture:

IP: Explore whether and why some of the places you know are called something else by local people as different from the official maps (G4)

SP: Why has June 16 become the public holiday, 'Youth Day' since 1994? (G9)

FET: Evaluate the usefulness and reliability of oral testimonies and traditions captured in written collections of slave narratives for answering questions about the living and working conditions of enslaved people, e.g. Henry Louis Gates Jnr's *Classic Slave Narratives*: *Biographies and Autobiographies of Former Slaves* (1987). (G11)

2.10 Historical Consciousness

Historical consciousness is the understanding an individual has of his or her place in time. It is the capacity to meaningfully remember and interpret historical events, their significance and meanings to people over time. Through historical consciousness, a person understands that there is a past, that it shapes the present, and that we too are shaping a future that others will live through. It means that we are conscious of being a part of a much longer story (and many stories therein), a story that neither begins nor ends with us. This speaks of having an awareness of change over time.

In the 2002 *Report of the History & Archaeology Panel to the Minister of Education* presented to Minister Kader Asmal, it is recognised that history education is important in the development and refinement of a person's sense of history and historical consciousness:

> … we have to recognise the fact that everyone has a form of historical consciousness. This historical consciousness is not crafted on a blank slate by teachers in schools, or by professional historians in universities. It is created in and by the family, the community, churches, the media and other areas of communication, interacting with individual experience. In this, the value of the formal study of history is that it aims to develop this latent consciousness into a conscious consciousness. To be sure, if the present situation is one in which the formal study of history continues to be either ignored or neglected, there is a real danger of robbing future generations of a sense of how they have come to be what they are.

Through history education of various forms, we develop a more complex consciousness of processes of change. This in turn helps us see the past in its context as well as to exercise informed and complex judgments about this past. A well-developed sense of historical consciousness emerges from a combination of history skills and abilities that reveal how humanity constructs and deploys historical narratives. These skills are gained by engaging actively with history in everyday life as well as through the formal study of the past.

By understanding that we too are historical agents who will be subject to judgments, historical consciousness helps us to develop a humanistic approach to our understanding of historical events even if we did not live through them. It creates the ability to reason empathetically when we think and debate about how and why human beings have acted in certain ways in the past. Empathetic reasoning does not mean that we condone or accept any historical actions, in contrast, it means that we can understand the complex choices faced by people in the past to analyse and judge their actions. By being able to understand the past in context, as well as how human beings connect to each other, and to ourselves, over time, we can make normative judgments and draw moral lessons from history without being superficial and overly simplistic about what has gone before.

Examples of Historical Consciousness in the Curriculum

IP: Between Grade 4 and Grade 6, learners develop the ability to place themselves in a timeline. This means they are aware that they come at a certain point in a timeline even though they cannot accurately organise timescales or identify specific time periods. They may not be able to represent time correctly with numbers or quantities but they can imagine the idea of ‘time before them’ or ‘long, long ago’.

At this stage, a child can understand that parents, grandparents and other elders come from a time before their existence. They also can imagine that there was a world long ago in which there were legends and mythical or extinct creatures. Clan names (genealogy), folktales (imagined time) and archaeological exploration (material changes) play a critical role in developing this historical consciousness in the learner.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

Who am I? What are my names and what do they mean? (G4)

SP: Between Grade 7 and Grade 9 a learner is making connections to his or her place within social and political communities and their identities within a continental and global context. The learner will develop an idea about their national history, and how their particular community situates itself in this history and begins to ask questions about the past and how it connects to the immediate present of their particular community. At this phase, the curriculum shows the inter-connectedness between the national, the

continental and the global.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

What were the responses to and interactions of African societies on the western coastal region and the semi-interior when European merchant traders arrived between the late 1400s and 1650? (G7)

FET – Between Grade 10 and Grade 12 the learner is maturing cognitively and has begun to develop a strong political sense about their world. The curriculum prompts them to question history, how it is produced and why there are multiple perspectives. Learners will want to draw their own conclusions and make considered judgments about the past. The curriculum aims to provide the learner with the capability to deal with the high level of contentiousness and politics of history within a global context.

For example, the emergence of the Cold War, as well as anti-colonial struggles (including the South African liberation struggle) produced forms of organising, resistance, leadership and geo-political conflict that may seem a world away from learners' sense of the world today. The task of the history curriculum is to orientate learners through this complicated modern period and help them to develop a sense of historical consciousness; to assist them in fitting into these events and how, for example, the current democratic dispensation came about.

A deeper awareness of time is developed through more advanced studying of precolonial topics, and also the important historical events such as the Anglo-Pedi and Anglo-Zulu Wars. The Anglo-Zulu War is particularly of global significance because the 1879 Battle of Isandlwana was a major defeat for the British Empire of that epoch. The war sparked the inspiration and admiration of indigenous resistance worldwide, even in the United Kingdom itself where the Anglo-Zulu War remains an important aspect of heritage. Historical consciousness means that learners develop more complex frameworks for understanding the global legacies of events that have occurred within South Africa.

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

Do you agree that South Africa has attained political freedom but that economic inequalities have remained unchanged and the struggle continues for economic freedom? (G12)

2.11 How can the different concepts of 'history' (Historical thinking, Historical culture and Historical consciousness) work together in a school classroom?

For example: Make a study of the battle that was fought at the Ncome River ('Blood River') in 1838. Faced with this question, learners might choose to study what happened on the day of the battle through the critical 'reading' of a variety of historical source materials from and about the events of the day. Alternatively, they may decide to study the different interpretations that have been generated by

academic and public historians, using historical sources to deliberate on the cause and effect of the battle and to construct a written argument in answer to a historically valid question. This process would develop learners' **historical thinking** skills.

They might also explore the changing significance of the events at the Ncome River in 1838 by studying other forms of tangible and intangible representation and memorialisation. For example, learners might research why this event came to be commemorated as a public holiday on 16 December in the late 19th century, delving into why and when the name of this holiday shifted from Dingaan's Day, the Day of the Vow and the Day of the Covenant, to the Day of Reconciliation. Other learners might elect to examine why different groups in South Africa have commemorated this day, or look at the significance of the ANC's decision to launch its military wing, uMkhonto we Sizwe, on 16 December 1961. They might study artistic, musical, film or social media representations of the battle, or write a critical analysis of the two memorials as heritage sites that have been built on both sides of the Ncome River.

This examination of **historical culture**, and the public uses of the past, develops learners' understanding of the importance of history in society which in turn develops their **historical consciousness**. As they study the presence of the past in the present and engage critically with the multiple forms in which the past is embodied, represented and disseminated, learners can better appreciate the importance of the study of History and begin to construct an understanding of their own place in history, which in turn will inform their sense of possibility for the future. The goal of school History, then, is to provide learners with the disciplinary knowledge, conceptual tools and rich learning opportunities to make sense of their present position in society, through the analysis of various representations of the past, and to imagine possible and different futures.

2.12 Historical Sources and Evidence

History is not merely 'the past'. History is a version of the past constructed through a process of asking questions about the past and interpreting and evaluating traces or fragments which survive from the past. In school History, we usually refer to these traces or fragments of the past as 'sources'. Historical 'sources' become 'evidence' when they are used to answer questions about the past through a process of enquiry.

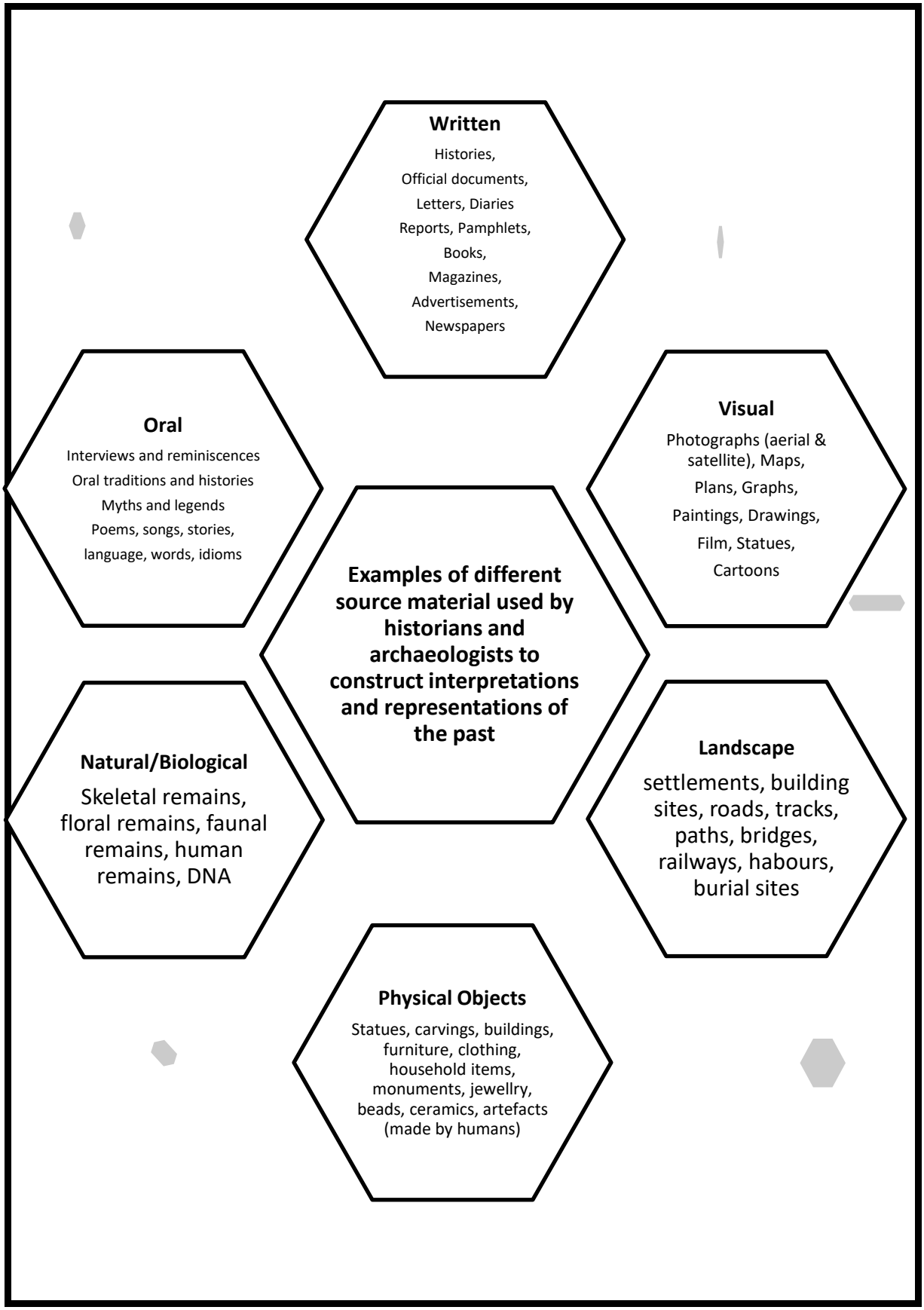
Interpretations of the past are arrived at after sifting through all the available evidence. However, these interpretations may differ because the record is incomplete, or the historian has a particular viewpoint or focus that they want to develop (for example, economic or environmental history, the history of medicine, or struggles for equality). Or historians might choose to ask questions and view the sources through a particular theoretical lens (for example, Marxism, Feminism or Pan-Africanism). Historians may ask different questions about the same sources or interpret the same sources differently (this body of historical information is known as historiography). However, historians must always provide the evidence on which their claims are made about the past.

In school History, learners are taught about the past and learn how historical accounts about the past

are constructed. By working critically with historical source materials learners then answer questions and develop the skills of thinking, reading and writing ‘like a historian’. The process of working critically with historical sources involves identification, classification, selection, extraction, interpretation, analysis, and perspectival recognition, as well as the evaluation of the usefulness or reliability of different sources to answer historical questions.

Over the grades, learners are taught to use the information gained from a range of different historical source materials (examples of which are given in the figure below) as evidence to answer questions about the past. They learn to support a line of argument and to construct substantiated pieces of historical writing, to make oral presentations and to participate in discussions and debates, thereby producing creative representations of past events.

Source materials from the past can take many forms as illustrated below.


Written
Histories,
Official documents,
Letters, Diaries
Reports, Pamphlets,
Books,
Magazines,
Advertisements,
Newspapers
Oral
Interviews and reminiscences
Oral traditions and histories
Myths and legends
Poems, songs, stories,
language, words, idioms
Visual
Photographs (aerial & satellite), Maps,
Plans, Graphs,
Paintings, Drawings,
Film, Statues,
Cartoons
Examples of different source material used by historians and archaeologists to construct interpretations and representations of the past
Natural/Biological
Skeletal remains, floral remains, faunal remains, human remains, DNA
Landscape
settlements, building sites, roads, tracks, paths, bridges, railways, habours, burial sites
Physical Objects
Statues, carvings, buildings, furniture, clothing, household items, monuments, jewellry, beads, ceramics, artefacts (made by humans)

2.1.3 The Process of Enquiry

'History is a process of enquiry'. Central to the process of constructing histories is to ask questions about the past. To answer these questions, historians study what other historians have already written (as featured in the histography), and they also study relics or traces (historical sources) which remain from the past. They analyse, interpret and evaluate these historical sources and use them as evidence to answer their questions about the past – i.e. information from historical sources is used as evidence to support knowledge claims made about the Who? What? Where? When? Why? How? What? and the So What? of the past.

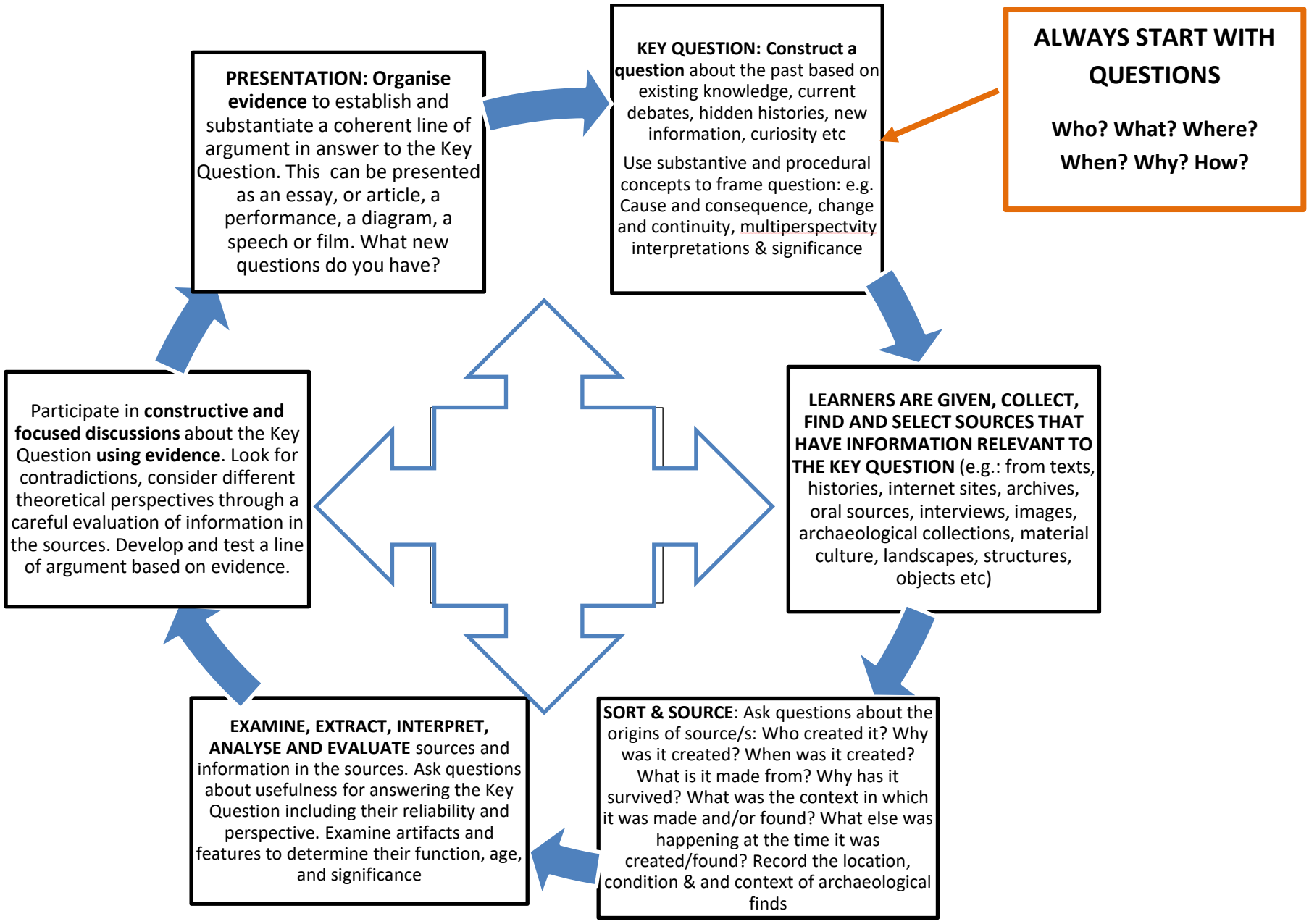
Studying history at school involves hearing and reading stories about the past, but it also involves learning about how those stories were constructed and how they have changed over time. Through explicit teaching, history learners will develop the thinking tools to evaluate all historical source material critically, including the different stories that have been constructed about the past (histories).

As academic disciplines, history and archaeology have their own methods and procedures. Underpinning both these disciplines is a process of enquiry about the past which always begins, and is driven forward **by asking questions**.

One of the specific aims of the school history curriculum is **'To develop an ability to understand and undertake a process of historical enquiry, which uses a range of archaeological and historical sources as evidence to make knowledgeable claims about the past**'.

To enable learners to develop the competency to undertake a process of enquiry, every topic in the content framework, as outlined in Chapter/Section 3, is organised around a 'Key Question'. The key questions in this curriculum are informed by current debates and interests among academic or public historians. Some are of **local** interest, while others are of **global** interest.

The image below illustrates the enquiry process that learners are guided through over a series of lessons to equip them to answer the overarching Key Question for each topic. Learners will follow a similar process when they conduct their own research projects although the level of support given will be determined by their grade level.


ALWAYS START WITH QUESTIONS
Who? What? Where? When? Why? How?
KEY QUESTION: Construct a question about the past based on existing knowledge, current debates, hidden histories, new information, curiosity etc
Use substantive and procedural concepts to frame question: e.g. Cause and consequence, change and continuity, multiperspectvity interpretations & significance
LEARNERS ARE GIVEN, COLLECT, FIND AND SELECT SOURCES THAT HAVE INFORMATION RELEVANT TO THE KEY QUESTION (e.g.: from texts, histories, internet sites, archives, oral sources, interviews, images, archaeological collections, material culture, landscapes, structures, objects etc)
SORT & SOURCE: Ask questions about the origins of source/s: Who created it? Why was it created? When was it created? What is it made from? Why has it survived? What was the context in which it was made and/or found? What else was happening at the time it was created/found? Record the location, condition & and context of archaeological finds
EXAMINE, EXTRACT, INTERPRET, ANALYSE AND EVALUATE sources and information in the sources. Ask questions about usefulness for answering the Key Question including their reliability and perspective. Examine artifacts and features to determine their function, age, and significance
Participate in constructive and focused discussions about the Key Question using evidence. Look for contradictions, consider different theoretical perspectives through a careful evaluation of information in the sources. Develop and test a line of argument based on evidence.
PRESENTATION: Organise evidence to establish and substantiate a coherent line of argument in answer to the Key Question. This can be presented as an essay, or article, a performance, a diagram, a speech or film. What new questions do you have?

2.1.4 How content, concepts and enquiry work together in the curriculum

One of the main concerns expressed by school history teachers regarding the curriculum is 'content overload'. However, if content is organised into lesson sequences or 'enquiries' which pose and answer the 'Key Questions' that are posed, it is easier for teachers to evaluate the depth at which the curriculum content should be studied. Enquiries may begin with a lesson or two allowing learners to develop a broad overview of a period or process, after which they may spend a few lessons taking a 'deep dive' into a case study or examining a specific aspect of the topic.

Key Questions are used to provide focus and to frame the content throughout the Curriculum from Grade 4 to Grade 12 for a number of different reasons:

- Questions convey that history is a discipline of enquiry and not just received knowledge
- Historical knowledge is open-ended, debated and changeable
- History lessons should be built around the intrigue of the relevant questions
- Historical research, investigation and interpretation is driven by these questions

The key questions used to frame enquiries and drive them forward should be:

- Interesting (something the learners will enjoy answering)
- Open-ended (not a question that can be answered with a single word)
- Encourage the learners to explore hidden histories and bring to the surface the perspectives or voices of those who have been previously marginalised or silenced.
- Historically relevant (an issue of interest or debate in the historical literature)
- Constructed around substantive and procedural historical concepts

History teachers should plan enquiries that enable their learners to build knowledge systematically and cumulatively to answer historical questions. As noted, each topic in Chapter 3 has at least one overarching 'Key Question' and the content framework is sub-divided into smaller sections which can be organised around sub-questions. The time allocations in the curriculum provide a guide for teachers because they are arranged into weekly, termly and annual teaching plans.

Integration of historical content with concepts in an enquiry process

Each topic has a suggested Key Question. The topic can be further divided into three or four enquiries of four to six lessons, depending on the grade level and the topics are also organised around a Key Question. These enquiries should be structured using the suggestions given in the text with the opening sentence: 'How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry process?'

For example:

By the end of Term 4 in Grade 6, learners should be able to answer the Key Question: 'What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?' They might answer this question through a piece of writing, an oral presentation, a class discussion, or even the construction of a poster or video. To answer this overarching Key Question for the topic, the 10 hours allocated to History in Term 4 can be divided into

three enquiries of 3 hours each. The content and activities in each enquiry will be scaffolded to answer one of the following questions:

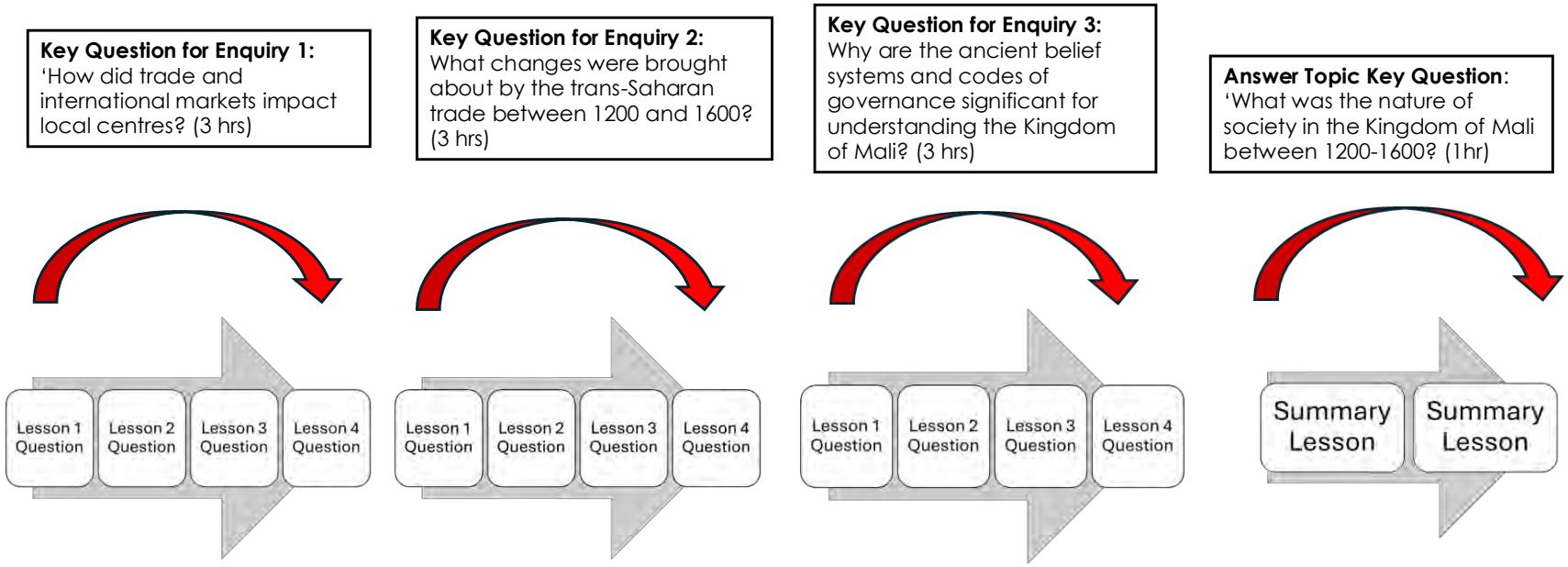
1) 'How did trade and international markets impact local centres?' (3 hours)
2) What changes were brought about by the trans-Saharan trade in the period from 1200 to about 1600? (3 hours)
3) Why are the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (in that particular society) significant for understanding the Kingdom of Mali? (3 hours)

History enquiries should include both direct instruction and guided opportunities for learners to work with a variety of primary and secondary historical and archaeological source materials to find answers to the questions posed.

See for example below:

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Grade 6: Term 4</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Topic: : The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu c. 1200- 1600</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key Question:
What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?</td><td>Suggested contact time:
10 hours</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?
Learners will be able to:
● recognise the impact of trade and international markets on local centres (cause and effect)
● consider the changes brought about by the trans-Saharan trade (change and continuity)
● appreciate the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (significance)</td></tr>
</table>

Topic Key Question: What was the Nature of Society in the Kingdom of Mali between 1200 and 1600?



Integration of content with concepts and the enquiry process in FET

Grade 12: Term 1	
Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the Late 19th and 20th Century	
Key Question: How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th century?	**Suggested contact time:** **5 weeks (20 hours)**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand that the mineral revolution and industrialisation which began during the late 19th century were crucial in bringing about British Imperialism and colonisation of South Africa, which laid the seed of both African and Afrikaner nationalism (Time and Chronology) • Recognise that industrialisation, mining capital and British imperialism led to the rise of Afrikaner and African nationalisms as well as workers' consciousness (Cause and Effect) • Assess different interpretations of the impact of British imperialism and industrialisation, e.g. Marxist, Liberal, and Afrikaner nationalist schools of thought, African perspectives (Multiperspectivity) • Recognise that Imperialism and Capitalism changed the nature of economic development in South Africa in which race and nationalism became primary factors. (Change and Continuity) • Recognise the lasting impact of capitalism in the racially-based economic development of South Africa (Significance)	

The overarching Key Question which learners should be able to answer by the end of Term 1 in Grade 12 is, "How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th century?"

Teachers have 5 weeks to introduce content and provide learning opportunities that will enable learners to answer this question. Teachers could organise the content framework into three enquiries of 4-6 lessons in order to answer sub-questions constructed from statements that integrate the content with historical concepts into enquiries. For example:

1. Why did the events and processes which began during the 19th century mineral revolution lay the seeds for both African and Afrikaner nationalism?
2. How have different interpretations explained the significance of the mineral revolution in South African history?
3. What have been the lasting consequences of racial capitalism in South Africa?

2.1.5 Learning Activities

Lesson sequences should incorporate a range of different pedagogies including direct instruction, structured and guided source-based activities as well as opportunities for oral presentations, class discussions and role-play. Pedagogies selected should be appropriate to context, the content being taught and the age of learner.

Suggestions for activities which could be used as assessment FOR learning activities are given at the end of each topic in Chapter 3. Learners could present their findings to the Key Questions in different forms of writing, as well as classroom discussions, performance, digital and oral presentations.

Developing a sound knowledge of dates, names and events is important so that learners can use this information for higher-order analysis and constructing an argument. This may involve quick quizzes or 'memory' work as part of assessment FOR learning. However, tasks such as **multiple-choice questions (MCQs), True/False, Matching columns etc** should **not** be used for formal assessment OF learning tasks.

2.1.6 Working with History after school

The new history curriculum allows ALL learners to learn about history, to learn through history and to learn from history. In addition to developing specific and specialised historical knowledge, studying history also develops critical reasoning and analytical skills, including the capacity for solving problems and thinking creatively and the ability to ask questions and summarise information from a variety of source materials to construct an argument. History prepares learners to communicate answers to questions clearly and persuasively, in both oral and written forms, using supporting evidence. Studying history also teaches learners to question overly simplistic answers to problems; to grapple with complexity and nuance; and to understand that many different factors influence the actions of individuals and groups in societies. It teaches learners that all these issues change over time and in different contexts.

For learners who develop a special interest in the past and its representations, or who are curious about how the past relates to the present, there are several possible places in which they could work with history, in its broadest meaning, after school. Examples are schools and universities, heritage sites, libraries and archives, museums and art galleries. learners with a love of history are also well suited to work in a number of different sectors, for example diplomacy, education, journalism and media, the arts and performance and technology.

2.5 Overview of FET topics

GRADE 10		
Topic no.	Title	Page
1	Societies of the Wider World in Ancient Times	
2	The rise and decline of ancient African Kingdoms and Empires (Mali)	
3	African Kingdoms and Empires: Ancient Ethiopia	
4	Precolonial African Kingdoms and Empires in Southern Africa (including Great Zimbabwe)	
5	The Social, Cultural and Political Organisation of African Societies Since the 1750s	
6	Achievements of African People Since Ancient Times	

GRADE 11		
1	Europe came into contact with the wider world in the period from the 15th to 18th centuries.	
2	Europe came into contact with the wider world in the period from the 16th to 19th centuries.	
3	The slave trade in the wider world: The Haitian Revolution and its impact on the wider world.	
4	African kingdoms in southern Africa up to the nineteenth century.	
5	The Scramble for Africa.	
GRADE 12		
1	The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the 19th and 20th Centuries.	
2	The National Question in South Africa: The Formation of the African National Congress, the National Party and the Communist Party of South Africa during	
3	The Cold War and the Rise of Anti-colonial Struggles	
4	The Era of the Liberation Struggles and the Politics of Apartheid South Africa on the African Continent	
5	Anti-apartheid Resistance in South Africa, 1960s – 1980s: With an emphasis on the role of individuals in history – e.g. Oliver Tambo, PW Botha.	
6	The Birth of Democracy in South Africa and coming to terms with the past.	

SECTION 3

3.1 Content for Grade 10

Overall key questions:

- **What were the characteristics or features of precolonial African societies?**
- **How have historians, archaeologists, explorers and various forms of historical literature (i.e. Victorian era diaries, novels, travelogues, newspaper reports) explained or interpreted the development of precolonial/classical/ancient African societies?**

Topic 1: Societies of the Wider World	
Key Questions • How did social, economic and political change shape the wider world in ancient times? • Why did the meaning of 'civilisation' as a historical concept change in a given time?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 Hours**
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? **The learner should:** • Understand how societies change over time (Time and Chronology). • Understand the socio-economic, environmental and political complexities of the societies of the wider world (Cause and Effect). • Understand how different societies of the wider world have been interpreted as either 'civilised' or 'uncivilised' and why different interpretations exist (Multiperspectivity). • Recognise the role that trade played in the cultural changes and colonisation of different societies in the wider world (Change and Continuity). • Recognise the antiquity of various societies of the wider world (Significance).	
Overview of Topic Societies in the wider world were defined by those in power to be either 'civilised' or 'uncivilised'. 'Civilisation' always implicitly involves a comparison: the existence of 'civilised' people implies that there are uncivilised people who are inferior because they are not civilised. As an example, the conceptual idea of Africa as a continent without civilisation or significant historical achievements was principally a by-product of the rise of racist scholarship in Europe. It was essentially a creation of Western thought and a Eurocentric framework of explanation. Pseudo-scientific postulations depicted African people as genetically inferior. Lacking an understanding of African ways of life, Europeans saw African culture as backwards, lagging in the march towards progress that other cultures had supposedly already made. Thus, unable to appreciate the complexities of the various cultures in Africa, Western thought simply concluded that the African continent was still in the dark ages, uncivilised and unresponsive to progress. At a given time, Western thought also concluded that people from the Americas and Asia were also uncivilised. The western world later claimed the hegemony of knowledge production and further anointed Greek civilisation as supreme. It was claimed by Westerners that western civilisation is predicated on Greek civilisation. However, Africans are prohibited from making similar claims about Egyptian civilisation. The question is: why? Hence the thematic approach we have adopted in this term will help us unpack such an important question.	

This term asserts the place of Africa in the discussion of civilisations. Learners will engage critically with the idea of 'civilisation' and what it means for some to be considered 'civilised' and others 'uncivilised' in history. They will be introduced to thematic studies of ancient civilisations that once existed, drawn from various continents. Particular attention will be paid to (a) the Nile Valley civilisation in Egypt, (b) Asian civilisations, (c) South America and (d) Greece. In this section THREE case studies must be studied. (1) Egypt is a compulsory standalone case study; (2) There is a choice between China and Greece as the second compulsory case study, alternating every five years; and (3) The third compulsory case study is a choice between India and South America, alternating every five years.

Focus
The teacher should introduce:

African Civilisation: The New Kingdom in Egypt (1560-1087 BCE) – COMPULSORY

- The role of the environment in the development of civilisation, e.g. the Nile Valley Civilisation.
- Government and the centralised state; political consolidation, diplomacy, economic buoyance and prosperity.
- Egyptian influence in the world; consolidation of power in Nubia/Kush, Libya, Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia and Asia Minor.
- Hatshepsut (1478-1437 BCE) – a regent and pharaoh – a woman ruler who made a significant impact on Egyptian society, particularly in architecture.
- Class and social stratification in Egypt.
- Philosophy, Arts, Science, Architecture and Technology.
- Religion: Reign of Tutankhamen during the New Kingdom - attempt to worship Amun over Atem leading to widespread resistance that proved disruptive to the New Kingdom.
- The reigns of Ramses I and Ramses II – a king of kings and deified in his lifetime and Egypt reached the peak of its power.
- Death of Ramses II, widespread disorder and periodic civil wars in the New Kingdom, leading to its decline, for example, incursion by Libyans and other Mediterranean peoples; Nubia, Palestine and Asia Minor declared their independence as Egypt came under a succession of dynasties of foreign origin – hence continuation of the flow of ideas from other regions.
- Battle of ideas over whether Egypt was part of Africa or not because of the flow of ideas from other regions. Where do these ideas originate? Interrogating history in terms of why and how Africa has been painted as a 'dark continent' and therefore the claim that Egypt is not part of an African civilisation (7 hours).

Alternating choice between China and Greece (every 3 years):

China – A world power in the 14th and 15th centuries (1368 – 1644)

- the Ming dynasty: government, society and social stratification;
- travel and trade: ship building, navigation (compass), Chinese mariners mapping the world, trade and influence along the Asian sea routes including the silk route; treasure fleet expeditions of Zheng He from 1405 to 1433;
- scientific and cultural achievements of the Ming dynasty;
- philosophy, religion, arts, culture and science; and
- China looks inwards after 1433.
- What are the reasons that later led to the reasoning that Chinese civilisation was inferior to Western civilisation? Who propagated these arguments and why? (5 hours).

***Euro-Mediterranean World**: Greeks*

- Historical methodology/ historiography/ inquiry (what form of debates here?)
- Feudal society and emergence of Greek civilisation.
- Changes in feudalism: emerging social stratification.
- Greece's relationship with Northern Africa (Egypt and the Mediterranean world);
- Philosophy, art, science and technology; and
- Influence of Greece's civilisation in Europe.
- What are the reasons that later led to the reasoning that Greek civilisation was the basis of the "superior" Western civilisation? Who propagated these arguments and why? (5 hours).

Alternating between South America and India (every 3 years):

South American Civilisations*: Incas, Aztecs or Mayas (choose one of these civilisations)*

- Historical methodology/ historiography/ inquiry (what form of debates here?)
- Government, state, class structure and social stratification.
- Agriculture and food production.
- Science, architecture, and religion.
- Mining, trade and economic production; and
- Literacy, numeracy and writing.
- Genocide committed by European colonisers against the 'uncivilised' indigenous population in South America.
- What are the reasons that later led to the reasoning that South American civilisations were inferior to Western civilisation? Who propagated these arguments and why? (5 hours).

India- The Mughal Empire (1526 to 1858)

- Historical methodology/ historiography/ inquiry (what form of debates here?)
- Government, society and social stratification;
- Trade in the Indian Ocean and Islamic World;
- Astronomy, science and technology (seamless celestial globe);
- Architecture in the 16th and 17th centuries: the Taj Mahal;
- Philosophy, arts and religions; and
- Britain and the end of the Mughal Empire.
- What are the reasons that later led to the reasoning that Indian civilisation was inferior to Western civilisation? Who propagated these arguments and why? (5 hours).

Assessment for learning
Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Explain the concepts Oral testimonies and Oral traditions.
- Debate: In groups, learners should debate on whether Egypt should be considered as part of Africa or not?
- Discuss orally: How different civilisations across continents challenge the notion of Western civilisation as superior.
- In TWO groups, role play the notion of 'western civilisation' vs Africa as a 'dark continent'.
- Do source analysis: use sources on class and social stratification in Egypt, and write a paragraph of SIX lines to show how these divisions were influenced by economic development and prosperity.
- Conduct source analysis: work with and analyse different archaeological material, photographs, maps, translation of archival material, etc. for evidence of civilisation in (a) Egypt, (b) Asian Civilisation, (c) South America and (d) Greece.

- Write an essay: Explain to what extent development of Egypt in Philosophy, Arts, Science, Architecture and Technology by the 16th century challenged the notion of a 'dark continent'.
- Write an essay: Indian civilisation was inferior to Western civilisation. Do you agree with this statement? Use relevant evidence (examples) to support your argument.

Grade 10: Term 1

Topic 2: Ancient Ethiopia before 1600 C.E.: Politics, Religion and International Connectedness

Key Questions	**Suggested contact time:** **20 Hours**
• How connected was ancient Ethiopia to the Mediterranean world before the 1600s? • Why did ancient Ethiopia make connections with Spain and Portugal? • What was the role of religion in defining the relationship between ancient Ethiopia and the Iberian world? **(NB. These key questions are not suggested exam questions,** they serve as guidelines to navigate through the content)	

How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?

The learner should:

- Understand the beginning and consolidation of the ancient Ethiopian empire before 1600 (Time and Chronology).
- Understand how trade, politics, religion, and architecture, the arts, etc. influenced the rise and consolidation of the ancient Ethiopian empire (Cause and Effect),
- Evaluate the validity of myths and historical records such as architectural evidence, and documents in explaining the rise and consolidation of the ancient Ethiopian empire (Multi-perspectivity).
- Recognise the significance of various factors (e.g. politics, economics, religion, human agency, etc.) in bringing about change (Change and Continuity).
- Recognise the lasting significance of the role played by the monarchy in political leadership in ancient Ethiopian society (Significance).

Overview of topic

It is often assumed that Africa was a dark and backward continent that was isolated, primitive, and undeveloped, with no real connections with the outside world until it was "discovered" by European explorers who went on to bring enlightenment, Christianity, and progress. The case of old Ethiopia, also known as the Kingdom of Aksum, disproves this myth of the dark continent and serves as one example of Africa's commercial ambitions and the interconnectedness of the continent with Europe and other parts of the world. This was a significant power in the ancient world, and its territorial extent varied over time. Compared to modern Ethiopia, ancient Ethiopia was larger, encompassing parts of present-day Sudan, Eritrea, Djibouti, and Somalia. However, its borders fluctuated throughout history due to various factors like trade, conquests, and cultural exchange.

Ethiopia occupies a strategic location in the Horn of Africa which made it a focal point for trade between Africa, Asia, and the Mediterranean World. Ancient Ethiopia also had close diplomatic ties with ancient Egypt, with evidence of Egyptian influence in Ethiopian art, architecture, and religion. It controlled the Red Sea trade routes, connecting India, Arabia, and the Mediterranean. Ethiopia also had trade links with the Greeks and the Romans in Europe. Evidence of these trade links was found in Roman coins found in Axumite archaeological sites. Ethiopia also had trade and diplomatic ties with the Arabian Peninsula, with Arab merchants visiting Aksum. Ethiopian rulers sent diplomatic missions to

neighbouring kingdoms and empires, such as Egypt, Nubia, and Rome. The country also exported goods like ivory, gold, ebony, and spices, while goods like wine, olive oil, and textiles were imported into the kingdom. Aksum had a powerful merchant fleet that sailed the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean.

Ethiopians travelled to different parts of the world, including Spain, seeking religious allies. Surrounded by Islam and living in a state of uneasy tension with their Islamic neighbours, Ethiopians were anxious to protect themselves against Muslim domination. The Ethiopian king also sent letters to Portugal requesting military aid and at the beginning of the 16th century Portuguese mercenaries under the command of Christopher Da Gama arrived. With these mercenaries came the Jesuits, that is the Roman Catholics, whose main priority was to convert Ethiopians who were members of the Orthodox Christian Church (considered heretical) to Roman Catholicism. It was indeed a bizarre case of Christians wanting to convert Christians which resulted in a devastating five-year civil war, at the end of which the Jesuits were defeated and expelled from Ethiopia, but the people remained hugely divided. Then came the new monarch, Fasilides who established the city of Gondar as the permanent capital of the Ethiopian Empire, with his huge castle as the focal point.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- historical methodology/ historiography/ inquiry (what form of debates do the learners think there were here?) interrogating the myths and legends as oral traditions and historical evidence (5 hours).
- What forms of granular historical documents and archaeological evidence (as opposed to myths and legends) are there to help us to talk about the history of Ethiopia (2 hours)
- the study of maps of ancient Ethiopia (so that this is not confused with modern- day Ethiopia) and maps of the ancient Iberian World) (2 hours)
- the study of trade links was important and these were soon forged. Ancient Ethiopia's interconnectedness with the Mediterranean region and the Iberian World began, characterised by connections between the Ethiopian monarchy and Europe (Greece, Rome, Spain and Portugal) in the context of the Crusades – trade, commerce, politics and religion (trade in the Mediterranean Sea and Red Sea) (3 hours)
- newfound alliances were made with the Portuguese – mercenaries and the Jesuits – and there were attempts to convert Ethiopian Orthodox Christians. Note the defeat and expulsion of the Portuguese from Ethiopia (3 hours)
- Ethiopian civil war (1627-1632, a 5-years war), King Fasilides and the politics of turning Orthodox Christianity into the kingdom's faith (3 hours)
- Comment on the use of symbolism in the restoration of a centralised Ethiopian monarchy – establishment of the city of Gondar and its architecture; the flourishing of the arts; churches (2 hours)
- relationship between the ruling elites and the ordinary people (commoners, slaves, soldiers, etc.) (2 hours)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Identify oral testimonies and traditions used in the (re)construction of the history of ancient Ethiopia.
- Engage in oral discussions: In groups or pairs, discuss whether oral traditions (e.g. the biblical myth of descent from King Solomon, or the legend of Prester John) can be regarded as historical evidence.

- Conduct a debate: TWO groups of learners should debate whether the Ethiopian civil war was influenced by political rather than religious beliefs.
- Engage in source analysis and interpretation: work with and analyse different archaeological material, photographs, maps, translation of archival material, etc. for evidence of ancient Ethiopia's interconnectedness with the outside world, and the country's architectural complexity before contact with Europeans in the 1500s.
- Write a paragraph: Write a paragraph on why a civil war took place in Ethiopia between 1627 and 1632.
- Write an essay: Religious differences led to the Ethiopian civil war in the 1620s. To what extent do you agree with this statement? Support your answer with relevant evidence and examples.

Formal assessment

Controlled by a test

Grade 10: Term 2	
Topic 3: The rise and fall/decline of Ancient African Empires in history (up to 1500CE) **CASE STUDY: Mali Empire**	
Key Question: • What role did trade, culture and religion play in the rise of the Malian Empire? • What are the key characteristics of the Empire? • What led to the fall of the Malian Empire?	**Suggested contact time:** **32 Hours**
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? **The learner should:** • Understand the beginning and the ending of the Mali Empire (Time and Chronology). • Understand how through control over trade routes the Mande were able to expand and establish the Mali kingdom into an empire (Cause and Effect). • Understand how African indigenous religion and Islam were practised and how Islam became a major religion in the Mali Empire (Multi-perspectivity). • Recognise the role of culture and education in the development of Timbuktu and Jenne as centres of learning (Change and Continuity). • Recognise the lasting impact of the Atlantic slave trade in the fall of the Malian empire (Significance)	

Overview of topic

The purpose of this topic is to explore how and why African empires like Ghana, Mali and Songhai rose and fell. Mali is used as a case study. The major drivers of the rise and fall of these empires was the trade in gold, slaves and other commodities that linked west and north Africa.

The Mande (Malinke/Mandingo) who were scattered throughout the Sudan-Sahel zone were instrumental in the formation of the Mali empire. Under the Soninke, the search for gold led to the consolidation of the town of Jenne, which reached its zenith in the 15th century. It was founded by Soninke traders well before the arrival of the Arabs. The development of this city was not due to trans-Saharan trade conducted by the Arabs from the 9th and 10th centuries onwards. In fact, the old settlement of Jenne-Jeno goes back to the third century before the Christian era. It was created by farming peoples along with herdsmen and iron-workers.

In the Mali Empire the Islamisation of its rulers occurred at the end of the 13th century (1200) under the descendants of Sundiata. Although it is debatable whether Sundiata Keita was converted to Islam, the Malinke oral tradition insists that he was a believer in indigenous African religion, which means he may have attempted to integrate the two religions. It is really not until we get to Mansa Musa, a grandson/nephew of Sundiata, that it is clear that the state is under a Muslim ruler. Mansa Musa is the best known of the emperors of Mali largely because of his pilgrimage to Mecca in 1235 and the widespread fame of his visit to Cairo, where he gave away so much gold that the market for the precious metal was depressed for a long time. The pilgrimage had lasting consequences for the subsequent history of western Sudan. Egypt, the Maghrib, Portugal and merchant cities of Italy all took an increasing interest in Mali. Mansa Musa did much to make the rest of the world think of the empire as an El Dorado. Impressed no doubt by the majestic palaces he saw in Cairo, Mansa Musa returned home with a famous architect, Ishak-al Tuedjin, who built the great mosque of Gao, of which only a few remains of the foundations and a great part of the *mihrab* survive. In Timbuktu, the architect built another

great mosque and a royal palace. But his finest work was certainly the famous audience chamber at Niani, on which he lavished all the resources of his art.

Because of trade which involved the movement or migration of people and goods across the Sahara Desert between north and west Africa, cities with a cosmopolitan character such as Timbuktu emerged. The two regions were connected through trade that was mutually beneficial to both. There was tremendous movement from north to south and from south to north, and hence there was cultural exchange and the flowering of ideas. Timbuktu (and Jenne to the south) became centres of intellectual life. This is the area where multiple scholars in various branches of learning (Islamic sciences, grammar, poetry, mathematics, medicine and astronomy) were located, thus attracting scholars from various parts of the Islamic world. The advent of the trans-Atlantic slave trade brought this cultural flowering to an abrupt end and the fall of the empire.

Focus
The teacher should introduce the following topics:

- Pre-Islamic Mali (**6 hours**):
- The social systems, economic life, culture and belief systems of the Mande in ancient times
- The expansion of the Mande and the formation of the Mali Kingdom
- The trade between sub-Saharan west and north Africa
- The introduction of Islam in Mali (**8 hours**)
- Islamisation of Mali and the broader region
- From a kingdom to an empire: The roles of Sundiata Keita and Mansa Musa
- The rise of Jenne and Timbuktu as centres of intellectual life

The Atlantic slave trade and the fall of the Mali empire (**2 hours**).

- The written archive. Discuss early forms of writing up to the present, identifying indigenous written African sources and comparing them with Arabic sources to understand Islamisation and the colonisation of Mali (addressing the issue of how different versions of history arise or are constructed) (**3 hours**)
- Archaeology, e.g. use of Material Culture, Radio-carbon dating, dendrochronology and other scientific methods in African history; looking at Malian architecture before and after Islamisation, etc. (**3 hours**)
- Critical analysis of oral traditions, for example, folktales, myths, legends, fables, etc. as they appear in Mali before and after Islamisation Sources should not be looked at in isolation; should be integrated, compared and contrasted in terms of what they say about the past. Learners should be able to understand why and how history is written and identify bias, propaganda ideology, etc. (**4 hours**)

Assessment for learning
Understanding is demonstrated by learners being able to:

- List examples of oral traditions about the Mali Empire and its founding rulers
- Engage in a debate whether it was oral tradition or written documentation that played a key role in the (re)construction of the history of Mali.
- Show evidence of source analysis and interpretation: e.g. epic of Sundiata, photographs, maps, translation of archival material by Ibn Battuta and Ibn Khaldun, etc. (Epic: What is an epic and what is its purpose or what is it used for? How does the epic portray Sundiata?)
- Discuss the contribution of Sundiata Keita as leader of the Mali Empire.
- Write a paragraph to explain how Islam was introduced in the Mali Kingdom.
- Write an essay on whether the formation of the Mali Kingdom was mainly based on the contribution of the Mande. To what extent do you agree with this statement? Support your answer with relevant evidence and examples.

- Discuss orally (in groups of two) whether the Atlantic slave trade led to the fall of the Mali empire.

Formal assessment
Controlled Test and Mid-Year Exam

Grade 10: Term 3	
Topic 4: Precolonial African Kingdoms and Empires in southern Africa, 1100 C.E. to 1500 C.E. (Great Zimbabwe)	
Key Questions • What was the level of development in Great Zimbabwe? • How have various researchers written and explained the rise and fall of Great Zimbabwe?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 Hours**
The learner should: • Understand the beginning of Great Zimbabwe around 1100 C.E. and its collapse and abandonment before 1500 C.E. (Time and Chronology). • Understand how trade, politics, religion and environmental factors, etc. influenced the rise and fall of Great Zimbabwe (Cause and Effect). • Assess different perspectives on the rise and decline of Great Zimbabwe as captured in scholarship (Multi-perspectivity). • Recognise the significance of various factors in bringing about change in Great Zimbabwe (Change and Continuity). • Understand the complexities of ancient African societies and the legacy, for example, architecture, left by these ancient societies before the arrival of the European colonialists (Significance).	

Overview of topic
This term provides a framework for the formation of centralised African political systems between 1100 C.E. and 1500 C.E., using Great Zimbabwe as a case study. Learners need to understand that the architectural complexity characteristic of Great Zimbabwe was not unique to this site; there were other early sites such as Thulamela and Mapungubwe in South Africa which resemble Great Zimbabwe. Over and above discussing about the importance of trade and control over trade routes in the rise of African kingdoms and empires, learners should explore the debates and contestations over Great Zimbabwe and look at how different people have written about this kingdom from the late nineteenth century to the present. Learners need to understand the issue of bias and the role that prejudice has played in how different people (explorers, antiquarians, professional archaeologists and others) have interpreted the Great Zimbabwean society and how politics has shaped such interpretations.

Focus
The teacher should introduce:

- The causes of the rise of Great Zimbabwe (4 hours).
- Ancient trade networks linking the southern African interior to the Indian Ocean (3 hours).
- Environmental factors that brought about the rise and fall of Great Zimbabwe (2 hours).
- The emergence of class-based systems/social stratification in Great Zimbabwe (4 hours).
- The different interpretations of how and why Great Zimbabwe was established and by whom it was built (historiography) (5 hours).

- The fall of Great Zimbabwe (3 hours).

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated when the learner can:

- Engage in a debate on the topic of contestations over the history of Great Zimbabwe Was it a 'pure precolonial African kingdom' or the product of a trade centre?
- Oral discussion: How have different people interpreted the Great Zimbabwean society and how have politics shaped such interpretations?
- Source analysis and interpretation: e.g. examine texts by explorers such as Carl Mauch, and archaeologists such as Randall-MacIver and Caton-Thompson. Make a study of photographs, maps, translation of archival material, etc.
- Paragraph writing: Explain why Great Zimbabwe had such active trade links to the Indian Ocean.
- Essay writing: Evaluate the different interpretations of why Great Zimbabwe was established. Discuss the debate on how it was built and by whom.
- Oral discussion: In pairs, discuss the environmental factors that contributed to the emergence and decline of Great Zimbabwe

Formal assessment

Essay or Research Project

Grade 10: Term 3	
Topic 5: Ethnic fluidity in the deep past, and the creation of 'tribes' following European colonisation of southern African societies since 1750	
Key Questions: • How diverse were precolonial African societies prior the European colonisation? • Did diverse African societies organise themselves along tribal/ethnic lines? • How was tribalism given impetus by the European colonialists?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 Hours**
The learner should: • Understand the cultural, social and political diversity of African societies, kingdoms and empires before European colonisation in 1750 CE (Time and Chronology). • Understand how European colonisation conceptualised African societies as tribal communities and why Africans came to see themselves as 'tribespeople' (Cause and Effect). • Evaluate different perspectives on whether tribalism has always been a defining feature of African societies as captured in scholarship (multi-perspectivity). • Recognise the contradictory responses of Africans to their identification by European colonialists as 'tribespeople' (Change and Continuity). • Debate whether or not the continuing salience and dangers of tribalism are still relevant today (Significance).	

Overview of topic

In this term, a framework for the formation of African pre-colonial political systems is discussed. The main question that learners have to grapple with relates to the complexity of identities in African societies including small, decentralised chiefdoms and larger, more centralised kingdoms, in the period prior to colonialism. Learners need to understand that African societies were dynamic and constantly changing as a result of mobility. Furthermore, groups of people who were displaced by epidemics and wars sought refuge under strong rulers (including women rulers) and this created the impetus for the emergence of cultural fluidity, diverse and multicultural kingdoms and empires consisting of people with overlapping identities. The notion that African societies have been constituted into static 'tribes' since time immemorial, as conceived by European colonialists and missionaries, and that tribalism or ethnicity was a defining feature of these societies, is far too simplistic and is untenable. In this term such misconceptions are examined closely and are debunked.

The outcome of this topic is to make sure that learners understand that "tribe" or "tribalism" is not a phenomenon that had defined Africans as a people from time immemorial, but rather as a social and political construct. It came to define African societies from the colonial and apartheid periods to the present, meaning, tribalism has not always been a defining marker of African identities in southern Africa. These societies were characterised by multiple, overlapping identities and porous ethnic boundaries. The tribal divisions among African societies were created and crystallised by the European colonial administrators, who were aided by the Christian missionaries. These missionaries facilitated tribalism during the process of reducing African languages into writing. At the same time, when Africans engaged in

migrancy and entered alienating and harsh environments of colonial towns, they tended to gather around people who came from their regions and spoke languages similar to theirs (moral ethnicity) for protection and solidarity. Tribalism continues to bedevil us today because some Africans continue to define themselves through its lens while others continue to reject such narrow definitions of who they are. Regardless of what colonialism has done to the phenomenon, for many people ethnic identities have been embraced as a matter of daily life and lived experiences. We study the concept and problem of tribalism to progressively fight against and overcome it in present-day South Africa and Africa at large.

Focus
The teacher should introduce:

- Theorising tribalism or ethnicity (looking at how different scholars historicise and theorise the concepts). (2 hours)
- Social, cultural and political systems of the Sotho-Tswana (e.g. Pedi kingdom) and interactions with other societies (e.g. 'Transvaal Ndebele'); decentralised Xhosa polities (divisions of class, rank, royals versus commoners, outsiders versus insiders, etc.) (3 hours)
- Discuss the matter of fluidity of identities prior to the arrival of European colonisers when multi-cultural, multi-clan, multi-ethnic polities were by no means culturally homogenous; there was porousness of ethnic boundaries (3 hours)
- Migration patterns – why societies settle in certain places and leave others (various interpretations of migration patterns) (2 hours)
- European conception of Africans as "tribes" ("tribe" being a European construct); the history of seeing Africans through the lens of a "tribe"; linking Africans' access to land and other scarce resources to "tribe" (3 hours)
- why we should combat tribalism and ethnic hostility in present-day South Africa and Africa at large (2 hours)

Assessment for learning
Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Historicise the term/concept, tribe/tribalism in African history and why it has only been used in relation to Africans and not to Europeans or white people.
- Write a paragraph on how Africans came to be conceptualised as "tribespeople".
- Hold an oral discussion in pairs: What role do oral testimonies and traditions play in understanding where different groups such as the Sotho, Pedi and Tswana in southern Africa come from?
- Debate: Are there similarities between the social, cultural and political systems of the Sotho, Pedi and Tswana polities?
- Have a structured conversation: How do tribalism and ethnic hostilities pose a threat to national development and social cohesion?
- Analyse and interpret the various sources: e.g. texts by missionaries, colonial officials, explorers, etc.; photographs, maps, translation of archival material, etc.
- Paragraph writing: Write a paragraph on the causes of similar/differing migration patterns amongst the Sotho, Tswana and Pedi polities.
- Essay writing: Critically discuss cultural/ethnic fluidity amongst the Sotho, Pedi and Tswana polities in the southern African region as a natural process.

Formal assessment
Source based Questions and Essays
Standardised Test

Grade 10: Term 4	
Topic 6: Achievements of African People since Ancient Times	
Key Question • How has African ingenuity been demonstrated • What contributions have Africans and people of African descent made to humanity throughout the world? **(NB:** These key questions above are not suggested exam questions, they serve merely as guidelines to navigate through the content)	**Suggested contact time:** **32 Hours**
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? **The learner should:** • Understand that Africans and people of African descent contributed to the development of humanity throughout the world from the beginning of time to the present (Time and Chronology). • Understand that through migration (forced and voluntary), Africans were able to contribute and influence the development of humanity throughout the world. (Cause and Effect). • Assess different perspectives of African contributions to humanity throughout the world (Multiperspectivity). • Recognise the significance of African experience (whether good or bad) in shaping the history of humanity throughout the world (Change and Continuity).	
Overview of topic Regardless of the unfounded claims of Scientific Racism and Eugenics, the purpose of this topic is to highlight the role and contributions that Africans and people of African descent have made to what we know today as 'world civilisation', humanity in general (not only on the African continent) but also in Europe, the Americas, Asia and other places. In the spheres of science and technology, medicine, architecture and town planning, art and music as well as in philosophy, Africans and people of African descent have contributed immensely to humanity throughout the world. Africans made important early discoveries and contributions to 'world civilisation' in medicine, surgery and the telling of time. In farming they invented new systems of irrigation and watering of crops. **Focus** The teacher should introduce discussion on: • The complex relationship between history and heritage (1 hour) • African advances in science and technology: ▪ *mathematics*: ancient Egyptians and the development of Mathematics; Ishongo people in the Congo and development of abacus (for counting). ▪ *medicine*: African knowledge of medicinal value of different types of plants and influence on modern medical practice; knowledge of surgery ▪ *mining and iron-smelting*: Africans were involved in this field long before many other peoples in other parts of the world became involved. Metallurgy began in Africa and then spread to other parts of the world.	

    - The ancient Kushites of Sudan had a calendar based on the study of the stars. The Dogon of Mali were also renowned astronomers who studied the stars scientifically (4 hours)
- Advances in art and literature: the African ancestry of Alexander Pushkin (1799-1837), a Russian poet, novelist, dramatist, and short-story writer. The inspiration of African Art on Pablo Picasso's work is also well known (cubism e.g. 'three musicians') (2 hours)
- Sport: People of African descent have played and continue to play a prominent role in the development of different sporting codes e.g. athletics, football, cricket, basketball, boxing, etc. (2 hours)
- Music: It was perhaps in the realm of music and culture that Africans and people of African descent have had the most profound influence on the world. African civilisation has had (and continues to make) a huge impact on world music through jazz. Africans captured in West Africa and taken to North America and South America in the time of the transatlantic slave trade took their musical traditions with them to the regions where they were enslaved. (2 hours)
- Architecture and town planning is another sphere of influence where Africans have made a signal contribution. Ancient Egyptian architecture was influential on the building style of the Greeks and the Romans. There are well-established cities in West Africa with temples and palaces, tree-lined avenues, intersecting streets and beautiful, large gardens. Benin City (Nigeria) and Kumasi (the capital of Asante) are examples of such well-established urban areas. (3 hours)
- The philosophy of humanism, ubuntu/ botho is also of African origin: This is a humanist philosophy that emphasises that we are human beings through the humanity of others – umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu, translated as 'I am because you are'. As humans we are linked to a wider universe and the spiritual world. The philosophy of Ubuntu challenges the ideals of individualism, greed and unhealthy competition, obscene self-enrichment and those destructive forms of human association that have brought the planet to the brink of extinction. (2 hours)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by the learner being able to:

- Draw upon oral testimonies and traditions (including izibongo, performance, etc.) that speak to the contributions made by Africans and people of African descent to humanity throughout the world.
- Debate in the classroom: why have Africans' contributions to humanity (e.g. in the sphere of science and technology) been downplayed or disregarded by the global North?
- Make source analysis and interpretation (e.g. archaeological artefacts/materials, architecture, photographs, maps, archival material, including their translations and interpretation in African languages, etc.)
- Write a paragraph: to show how Africans invented jazz music; musical instruments and African ingenuity.
- Essay writing: Africans and people of African descent have contributed immensely in the world of arts, science and technology. Do you agree? Support your argument with relevant evidence (examples).

Formal assessment

Final examination

3.2 Content for Grade 11

Overall key questions:

- **How did European expansion, colonisation and imperialism impact on Africa? / How was Africa impacted by European colonisation and imperialism?**
- **Were African initiatives in statecraft influenced by European expansion and colonisation?**

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Grade 11: Term 1</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Topic 1: The Atlantic World: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 15th to 18th centuries (Focus on the Spanish and Portuguese)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key Question

How did the Spanish and Portuguese explorations impact on the wider world during the 15th to 18th centuries?</td><td>Suggested contact time:
20 hours</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?
The learner should:
Understand that the Spanish and Portuguese had an impact on the wider world during the period from the 15th to the 18th centuries (Time and Chronology).
Understand the impact of social, political, environmental and health (diseases and pathogens, etc.) in the colonisation of South America (Cause and Effect).
Assess different perspectives of Portuguese and Spanish expansion and colonisation of various parts of the wider world (Multi-perspectivity).
Recognise that a new class structure was created that privileged Europeans while the indigenous people were decimated and remained unaccounted for (Change and Continuity).
Recognise that Portuguese and Spanish colonisation has had a lasting impact on the indigenous peoples of South America and the African continent (Significance).</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Overview of topic:
This topic looks at the Atlantic World and explores how and why Europe was able to colonise and dominate large parts of the world in a period of less than two centuries. The concept ‘the Atlantic World’ refers to the interconnected regions and cultures in and around the Atlantic Ocean region, from the 1400s to the 1800s. Geographically, the Atlantic World encompasses Western Europe, west Africa, the Americas (including the Caribbean), and the Atlantic Islands. The Atlantic World was also involved in cultural exchange, that is, the transfer of ideas, languages, religions, and customs between these regions. In the economic sphere, the transatlantic slave trade was at the centre of a triangular trade process and the exchange of slaves from Africa. Furthermore, goods like sugar, cotton and tobacco from the Americas, and textiles, rum and guns from Europe were also traded. The Atlantic World entailed the emergence and interaction of empires, colonies, and states across the Atlantic Ocean region.

Focusing specifically on the Spanish and the Portuguese, this topic looks at the technological advances, especially those in navigation and shipbuilding that gave Europe a head-start in the Atlantic World. The study of this region explores the involvement of European countries in mercantile trade (in commodities such as silver, gold, sugar, and most importantly, human cargo, i.e. African slaves). It also looks at the support given to explorers and mercantilists by the European governments, the monarchies and the Church in the early processes of colonisation and unpacks the consequences of all this on the poor</td></tr>
</table>

and lower classes in Europe as well as on the colonised societies. It explores ideas of racial superiority, the racialisation of slavery and the balance of power in the world. Further, it looks at the diseases, guns, germs and pathogens (affecting plants, animals and humans) that the Europeans brought to the colonies and the devastating impact that these had on indigenous populations.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Brief historical context about early explorers, mapping and development of technology (navigation) (2 hours).
- Reasons why Europeans left their areas of origin in search of riches in other parts of the world; mercantile trade (e.g. sugar) and the role of the monarchy and the Church (Historiographical debates) (3 hours).
- How the poor and lower-class Europeans, mestizos/mulattoes gained upward social mobility (racialised class mobility) which developed over time (2 hours).
- The impact of the Spanish explorations into the Americas; mercantile trade, conquest, slavery, the Catholic Church, racism and genocide; Cortes invades Mexico; Columbus invades Hispaniola; the Pizarros invade Inca Peru (guns) (3 hours).
- The impact of the Portuguese explorations into the wider world: Americas, Africa and the East. Mercantile trade, genocide, slavery and the Atlantic slave trade, race, racism, land dispossession, etc (3 hours)
- The impact of diseases, germs and pathogens on indigenous populations (2 hours)
- Resistance of the indigenous people and slaves to Spanish and Portuguese colonisation (2 hours) [TOTAL 17 hours, leaving 3 hours for assessment]

Assessment for learning

Understanding is demonstrated by the learner being able to:

- Explain terms/concepts such as colonisation, navigation, mercantile trade, explorers etc.
- Conduct a class debate: Europeans left their areas of origin to venture into other parts of the world due to push, and not pull factors.
- Take part in the oral discussion on the Atlantic slave trade and its impact on South America.
- Have an oral discussion: identify similarities and differences between the Spanish and Portuguese explorations.
- Engage in source analysis and interpretation (e.g. photographs, maps, translation of archival material by Spanish and Portuguese explorers, merchants, slave traders and slave owners, slaves' narratives, biographies and autobiographies, etc.).
- Organise role play and performance – (e.g. drama and learners' plays) based on land dispossession and conquest.
- Write an essay: Portuguese expansion to the Americas, Africa and the East had a devastating and not positive impact on the affected indigenous communities. Do you agree with this statement? Discuss.

Formal assessment

- Paragraph writing
- Essay writing

Grade 11: Term 1	
Topic 2: The Atlantic World: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 16th to 19th centuries (Focus on the Dutch and English)	
Key Question: How did the Dutch and English voyages of 'discovery' impact on the wider world in the period between the 16th and 19th centuries? • How did the Dutch and the British become the dominant world powers? (mechanisms of control and promotion of markets e.g. tobacco, sugar, alcohol and timber) • What was the impact of the Dutch and British colonisation on the indigenous people and how did they respond? • How did the slaves contend with their conditions of enslavement in both the Cape and the Americas?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 hours**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand that the Dutch and the English had an impact on the wider world in the period from the 16th to the 19th centuries (Time and Chronology). • Understand the social, political, environmental and health impact that the Dutch and English voyages of 'discovery' had on Africa and the Americas (Cause and Effect). • Assess different perspectives of Dutch and English expansion and colonisation of various parts of the wider world. (Multiperspectivity) • Recognise that a new racialised class structure was created that privileged European colonisers and disadvantaged the indigenous people and slaves. (Change and Continuity) • Recognise that Dutch and English colonisation has had a lasting impact on the colonised peoples in Africa and the Americas. (Significance)	
Overview of topic This is a continuation of the discussion on how and why Europe was able to colonise and dominate large parts of the world in less than 200 years. The topic commences with a broad overview of technological advances in Holland and Britain and their imitation of the Spanish and Portuguese, especially in navigation and shipbuilding; their involvement in piracy, pillaging and robbery of Spanish and Portuguese ships, and the support that the explorers received from their governments/monarchies. The involvement of Holland and Britain in mercantile trade (in commodities such as silver, gold, timber, sugar and African slaves) must be covered. The topic also looks at the consequences of the explorations in terms of displacement, land dispossession and genocide of the indigenous people; ideas of racial superiority; the racialisation of slavery and on the balance of power in the world. The focus is on the key role that slavery played in the accumulation of capital by both Holland and Britain, two of the most prominent European slave-trading countries deeply implicated in the trans-Atlantic slave trade. The Atlantic Ocean was the site of one of the most dramatic movements of people in human history, namely the slave trade, which brought at least 12 million Africans to the Americas between the 16th and 19th centuries. Holland played a key part not only as slave traders but also in colonising parts of North America, especially the mid-	

Atlantic colonies of New Amsterdam, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, as well as parts of Africa (the Cape of Good Hope). In the constant confrontation between different European nations over territories in the new world, the Dutch were eventually displaced by the English from the ethnically diverse mid-Atlantic colonies, who renamed New Amsterdam as New York. Similarly, the English displaced Holland from the Cape of Good Hope and inherited the system of labour that had devastating consequences in the spread of new epidemic diseases and social displacement for the indigenous people and the slaves who were brought there forcibly.

In North America, after futile attempts to enslave local native Americans who either succumbed to Old World diseases (such as smallpox, yellow fever, etc.) or resisted capture, European slave traders turned to the African continent. African slave labour became the backbone of the plantation economy in the Caribbean and the North American mainland, particularly in the more tropical southern colonies of British Colonial America where sugarcane, cotton and tobacco became the main plantation crops. However, white colonists living in towns also relied on slave labour to a limited degree. Slave ownership was a way of life from the 16th century through to the early 19th century. The history of the slave ship is at the centre of the Atlantic history.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Reasons why the expansion of the Dutch and British on a global scale was possible; mercantile trade; support by monarchies; early explorers, mapping and development of navigation technology.
- Dutch explorations to the wider world: Americas, Africa (refreshment station at the Cape) and also to the East.
- English explorations into North America and Africa (ousting of the Dutch from the Cape and North America) and trade routes to the East.
- The use of white indentured servants in British mainland North American colonies (comparison of indentured labour and slavery).
- The trans-Atlantic slave trade, the Dutch and English colonisation of North America, the establishment of plantation economies and its impact on Africa.
- The impact of contact between people of Europe (Dutch and English) and the Africans, Native Americans.
- Genocide: how war, land dispossession and new diseases brought by Europeans decimated and virtually destroyed the native Americans in the Americas and the Khoisan at the Cape.
- Slave experiences in the Atlantic World: from capture in West and Central Africa, through the Middle Passage to the plantation, small towns and cities in the New World; gendered experiences on plantations.
- The story of sugar linking Africa, Europe, Asia and the Americas.
- Justifications for the colonisation of America: Would increase the possibilities for trading; would also increase naval and military resources, such as timber. Colonies would help to defend Great Britain against the Spanish and French, by providing bases from which England could attack their shipping. Colonies in America would provide a destination for England's surplus population and give restive young people a better chance to make something of themselves. And finally, America would provide a religious refuge for those fleeing from the Catholic powers in Spain and France, especially the Protestants.

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by the learner being able to:

- Explain terms/concepts such as 'voyages of discovery', 'the Middle Passage', etc.
- Evaluate the use and reliability of oral testimonies and traditions captured in written collections of slave narratives, e.g. Henry Louis Gates's, Jr.'s *Classic Slave Narratives*; biographies and autobiographies of former slaves.

- Hold a debate on the topic: The transatlantic slave trade had a devastating impact on Africa but some have nevertheless argued that it helped to develop the Cape of Good Hope and North America. Do you agree? Discuss critically.
- Participate in an oral discussion on the various reasons why indigenous populations became decimated at the Cape and in the North Americas. How similar or different were the patterns in each case?
- Engage in a source analysis and interpretation (e.g. photographs, maps, translation of archival material by Dutch and English explorers, merchants, slave traders and slave owners; letters or diaries of slave owners, slaves' narratives, e.g. Solomon Northup's *12 Years a Slave*, *Roots* and other documentaries).
- Participate in a role play/ performance (e.g. drama and learners' plays) based on land dispossession.
- Paragraph writing: Why did the Dutch explorers land at the Cape?
- essay: The indigenous communities … Colonisation of the Americas and Africa was meant to benefit the indigenous communities and not the colonisers. Do you agree? Motivate your answer with relevant evidence. Focus either on the Cape Colony or the Americas

Formal assessment

- Paragraph writing on selected topics studies in the term.
- Project on the sugar industry and the relevance of colonisation in its development.

Grade 11: Term 2	
Topic 3: Slavery, Slave Resistance and the Haitian Revolution	
Key Questions: How and why did Haiti become the first nation in the world to enforce a provision of personal democratic freedom for all at a time when North America was deepening its slavery roots? How did this struggle for freedom, human and social rights in Haiti influence the anti-slavery movement in the US and anti-colonial struggles in the Caribbean and on the African continent?	**Suggested contact time:** **32 hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?
The learner should:

- Understand the relationship between the French Revolution and the Haitian Revolution between 1789 and 1804. (Time and Chronology)
- Understand the impact of the Haitian Revolution on American slave resistance, the US government and American slave owners. (Cause and Effect)
- Assess different perspectives on the foundations of democracy, freedom and human rights. (Multiperspectivity)
- Recognise that while Haiti emerged from the Haitian Revolution as the first independent country to be led by former slaves and has influenced resistance and decolonisation in Africa, France continued to maintain its dominance in world affairs. (Change and Continuity)
- Recognise that French colonisation has had a lasting impact on the colonised peoples in Africa and the African diaspora. (Significance)

Overview of topic

Haiti, originally the French colony of Saint-Domingue in the Caribbean, and not the United States of America or France, was where the assertion of human rights reached its defining climax in the Age of Revolution. This island nation was the pinnacle of the Atlantic slave system and the richest of the plantation colonies of the Americas that was based on a radical refusal of sovereignty or autonomy to the majority.

The focus of this topic is on the Haitian Revolution (1791-1804) as the most radical (and therefore one of the most important) assertions of the right to enjoy basic human rights in the study of human history. This is even more remarkable than the American and French revolutions, with which it was closely intertwined. The Haitian Revolution posed a set of absolutely central political questions. Thus, if we want to gain a fuller understanding of modern political history, we must grapple with the implications of the Haitian Revolution for core concepts on the basic tenets of modern politics. The French Revolution and the American Revolution laid some of the foundations of modern democracy by emphasising ideas of liberty, equality, fraternity and individual freedoms, but excluded Africans on the grounds that they were slaves and therefore not fully human. The Haitian Revolution advanced a universal conception of freedom that demanded that liberty and equality had to include the emancipation of Black slaves. Haiti was punished by heavy fines for advancing the cause of the slaves once it had won its freedom.

It is important to realise that these enslaved people resisted the conditions of slavery and carved out spaces of autonomy within the plantation by cultivating small plots of land and bringing such products to the local market. They thus created spaces of cultural and intellectual freedom, crafting political visions that would ultimately find voice in the revolution. They made their voices heard and insisted that they had the absolute right to be

free. They claimed the right to govern themselves according to a new set of principles. The Haitian revolutionaries advanced the principles of the Enlightenment and universalism in unexpected ways by insisting on the self-evident (but, at that time, largely denied) principle that no one should be a slave. And they did so at the very heart of the world's economic system, turning the most profitable colony in the world into an independent nation founded on the rejection of the system of slavery that had dominated the societies in the Americas that surrounded Haiti. This topic allows for discussion of the slaves' day-by-day, ongoing forms of resistance, for example escaping, burning crops, feigning sickness, working slowly, etc. and the escalating mortality rate.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- An explanation of the terms/concepts: of the French Revolution, Haitian Revolution, Atlantic slave system, freedom, democracy, etc.
- The background of the French Revolution (brief overview).
- The causes and course of the Haitian Revolution (1791-1804) (political economy of racism and human rights).
- The roots of slavery in the Caribbean.
- Toussaint L'Ouverture and the profound influence that the presence of a large number of African-born slaves had on the revolution (African political thought).
- The gendered experiences of slavery
- The participation of African women in military combat and political debate
- The relationship/comparison between the ideals of the Haitian Revolution and French Revolution (1789)
- The impact of Haitian Revolution on the United States of America and France
- The response of France and the United States to the Haitian Revolution
- The aftermath of the Haitian Revolution on the anti-slavery movement and anti-colonial struggles throughout the world

ASSESSMENT: Working with a variety of sources (Source-based questions)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by the learner being able to:

- Explain the terms/concepts: revolution, democracy, freedom, human rights, liberty, equality, fraternity and individual freedom.
- Identify and analyse oral testimonies and traditions on slave conditions – collected in the archives and anthologies on slavery in the Caribbean and mainland north America.
- Conduct an oral discussion identify similarities and differences between the French and Haitian revolutions.
- Debate: Genuine liberty and equality were realised through the Haitian and not the French Revolution. Do you agree? Critically discuss.
- Source analysis and interpretation (e.g., Haitian constitution, photographs, maps, archival materials reflecting different standpoints – e.g., French slave owners, slaves' narratives, biographies and autobiographies, documentaries, etc.)
- Role play and performance (e.g., drama and learners' plays) based on the comparison between liberty and equality in France and Haiti
- Paragraph writing: on the leadership of Toussaint L'Ouverture
- Essay writing: Explain to what extent you agree that the Haitian Revolution made a lasting impact on the anti-slavery movement. Use relevant evidence to support your line of argument.

Formal assessment

Mid-year examination

Grade 11: Term 3	
Topic 4: Political Centralisation and African kingdoms in southern Africa before the nineteenth century	
Key Questions: Compare and contrast the multiple factors which influenced the formation of centralised states by various African societies. How have different historians accounted for the formation of bigger, more centralised polities in southern Africa during the late 1700s and early 1800s?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?

The learner should:

- Understand how the larger and more centralised political systems emerged in the southern African region in the late 1700s and early 1800s and how they fell in the late 1800s (Time and Chronology).
- Recognise the importance of internal and external factors which impacted political centralisation and the emergence of larger and more centralised African societies in southern Africa (Cause and Effect).
- Assess different interpretations of how political centralisation in southern Africa took place, including the role of rulers such as King Shaka and the Maroteng monarchs, and how British imperialism ended African sovereignty (Multiperspectivity).
- Recognise that with the change from smaller, scattered polities to larger and more centralised kingdoms, political structures became more hierarchical and coercive, and in some instances lost elements of democracy that had previously characterised smaller, decentralised polities (Change and Continuity).
- Recognise the role of the standing army, technology and innovation in sustaining larger and more centralised political units/kingdoms/states (Significance).

Overview of topic:

The southern African region saw the emergence of the larger and more centralised political system in the late eighteenth and early nineteenth century. This important development was the result of the interaction of growing population, climatic change, long distance trade and mounting pressures emanating from areas of European control and settlement further south.

The Bapedi Kingdom is a good example of this process. This kingdom emerged in the north-eastern part of today's Limpopo Province under the leadership of the Maroteng – a group that moved to the area from today's North-West Province in about 1650. Over time the Bapedi people built their power base. The rulers insisted that all the other chiefdoms in the area should take their chief wife or principal wife (the chief's wife who would bear the heir to the throne) from the Maroteng chiefdom and consolidate power through royal marriages. They accumulated large amounts of magadi/ilobolo (bridewealth) and if all went smoothly, the next chief of the subordinate group would be related to, and hopefully sympathetic to the Maroteng. The Maroteng also constructed a system of Batseta, according to which the affairs of each subordinate chiefdom were monitored by a specific group at the Maroteng capital (a form of ambassadorship and cultural diplomacy).

The Bapedi Kingdom also developed a system in which all male youth were formed into regiments after going through a process of initiation. These regiments, called mephato,

were formed within the individual subordinate chiefdoms and after spending a few months together these youth returned to their families, only gathering as regiments when called upon to do so by the chief. The Bapedi Kingdom was at the height of its power under the reign of King Thulare I in the late eighteenth century (1780s-1820). Kgoši Thulare was a king of Bapedi in ancient Sekhukhuneland in today's northeastern Limpopo Province. He is considered one of the most important figures in Bapedi history and is remembered for his military conquests and his role in unifying the kingdom.

However, this period (late eighteenth and early nineteenth century) also witnessed the rise of a considerably more centralised and authoritarian political system in KwaZulu-Natal, namely the amaZulu Kingdom. Under the leadership of Shaka KaSenzangakhona and partly as a result of new military technology and techniques he developed (shield, stabbing spear, drilling, etc.), the amaZulu chiefdom established its dominance over a vast area and a considerable population and became a kingdom. The state of amaZulu that emerged was set apart from earlier political systems by several important innovations. The most significant of these was the creation of cross-cultural standing regiments or age regiments (amabutho). In Shaka's kingdom, young men of like age from the many different chiefdoms under his authority were gathered in regiments housed in special barracks (amakhanda) in a series of military towns in the centre of the kingdom. These regiments did not exist on a temporary or localised basis as had been the case in the Pedi Kingdom. Young men left their villages for years to live in these regimental towns, where they fell directly under the King's authority rather than being part of their own homestead heads or local chiefs. They were only allowed to marry in their forties when the regiments were disbanded.

During the era of British imperialism, both Bapedi under King Sekhukhune II and AmaZulu under King Cetshwayo were able to mount stiff resistance against colonial invasion. The British wanted to establish a single federation of white settler territories throughout southern Africa but because of the centralised nature of both the Bapedi and amaZulu states, their plans were scuppered by their defeat at the hands of the Zulu armies at Isandhlwana on 22 January 1879. In British society, there was a huge outcry about the loss the British suffered at Isandhlwana. Around the same time (1879) Bapedi armies put up fierce resistance against British colonial armies, and they were only defeated after the British used their Swazi mercenaries in the Anglo-Pedi War. In the end, African resistance to colonialism was broken and they lost their land and political sovereignty. The aftermath of these wars is interesting in that the migrant labour system was built on the armies established by African polities in the era before colonialism who were now being directed to mining towns as migrant workers.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Terms/concepts such as chief, chiefdom, king, kingdom, tribute, regiments (mephato/amabutho), amakhanda (military barracks), colonialism, sovereignty, etc. (1 hour)
- The emergence of late pre-colonial African states, focusing on factors that contributed to consolidation and establishment of larger, more centralised political units called kingdoms (3 hours).
- The various mechanisms used by the Maroteng and AmaZulu rulers to consolidate their power and establish their authority over subordinate chiefdoms to establish formidable kingdoms (6 hours).
- The erosion of more democratic features such as the imbizo (public gathering) and the rise of authoritarianism within the larger and more centralised political units (e.g., amaZulu Kingdom) (3 hours).
- The encounters between African kingdoms with British imperialism, African resistance (Impi yase Sandhlwana and the Anglo-Pedi War), the victory at Isandhlwana and subsequent defeat at Ulundi, the defeat of the Pedi and loss of land and sovereignty, including the onset of migrancy (4 hours).

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Explain the terms/concepts: chief, chiefdom, king, kingdom, tribute, regiments (mephato/amabutho), amakhanda (military barracks), colonialism, sovereignty, etc.
- Identify and analyse oral traditions on Bapedi and AmaZulu kingdoms collected in the archives (e.g., Berlin Lutheran Missionary records, Dr N.J. van Warmelo Manuscript Collection at the National Archives and the James Stuart Archive.
- Engage in an oral discussion: identify and discuss factors which contributed to the consolidation and establishment of larger, more centralised kingdoms.
- Write a paragraph: In what way/s did the development of larger and politically centralised states or kingdoms tend to erode democracy in those societies?
- Present a role play/performance (e.g., drama and learners' plays): on the workings of the system of regiments (amabutho/mephato) in consolidating the power and authority of the ruling lineages.
- Hold a debate on whether the British victory at Ulundi in 1879 was brought about by ecological factors such as drought, that affected food production and food security in AmaZulu Kingdom.
- Write an essay: Compare and contrast the process of consolidation and establishment of larger and centralised kingdoms of Bapedi and amaZulu.

Formal Assessment

Paragraph writing

Project/Essay on larger, centralised kingdoms

Grade 11: Term 4	
Topic 5: The Scramble for Africa	
Key Question What impact did colonisation and the Scramble for Africa have on African societies?	**Suggested contact time:** **32 hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?

The learner should:

- Understand that the Scramble for Africa had a profound and lasting impact on African societies (Time and Chronology).
- Recognise the importance of the Berlin Conference in formalising the conquest of the African continent and reshaping its political boundaries (Cause and Effect).
- Assess different interpretations of the Scramble for Africa (Multiperspectivity).
- Recognise the effects of the Scramble for Africa in terms of the violence and genocide perpetrated by European colonisers upon the colonised Africans; as well as understanding the strategies used by the colonisers to separate groups of people who belonged together and to force these different groupings into the same colonial entities. (Change and Continuity).
- Recognise the lasting impact of the Scramble for Africa on the African continent (Significance).

Overview of topic:

The generation following 1880 witnessed one of the most significant historical moments of modern times. During this period, Africa, a continent of over 28 million square kilometres, was partitioned, conquered and occupied by the industrialised nations of Europe. This invasive process is called imperialism. While some European nations such as Portugal, Holland and Britain had already colonised parts of Africa by 1880, what is most remarkable about this period is the coordinated manner, speed and comparative ease – from the European point of view – with which they carved up and conquered the African continent. Nothing like it had happened on this scale before. Why was it called Scramble for Africa?

The 'Scramble for Africa' is a term that historians use to describe the expansion of European empires into Africa during the Age of Imperialism. It is referred to as a 'scramble' due to how the European nations competed with one another in the race to capture territory and expand their empires. What gave rise to such a phenomenon? Why was Africa partitioned politically and systematically occupied in this particular period? And why were Africans unable to keep their rivals at bay? Learners will not only learn about what the 'scramble' was all about- but also about the various historiographical debates advanced by historians on why and how it happened.

Several theories have been advanced to explain why the European nations partitioned Africa; these are economic, Scientific Racism/Eugenics, diplomatic and African dimension theories. An even more interesting aspect of the Scramble for Africa is to embark on a study of the effects this has had on African societies, effects which have had a lasting legacy that is still visible today. Africans, of course, were not bystanders in the scramble; they resisted this encroachment by the Europeans, which in many instances led to war, brutal repression and genocide.

Focus

The teacher should introduce discussion on:

- The beginning of the Scramble for Africa (1870s) and the Berlin Conference, 1884-1885 (in broad overview)

- The Battle of Adwa in Ethiopia as an early of example resistance against the Scramble for Africa
- The artificiality of political boundaries created by the partitioning of the continent: dividing up the people who culturally belonged together (for example the British High Commission territories of Lesotho, Swaziland and Botswana versus South Africa; the Portuguese and the question of the Shangaan/Tsonga) both of which forced apart groups who naturally belong together e.g. Shangaan/Tsonga in Mozambique and Shangaan/Tsonga in South Africa.
- Encourage case studies on the consequences of the Scramble for Africa:
  - Belgian Congo genocide; and
  - Namibian/German West African genocide

ASSESSMENT: Working with a variety of sources (source-based questions)

Assessment for learning

Understanding is demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Explain terms/concepts such as imperialism, colonialism, genocide, etc.
- Identify and discuss oral testimonies and traditions – of communities divided by colonial boundaries
- Introduce an oral discussion on the impact of the artificial nature of the boundaries created by the Scramble for Africa
- Participate in a debate, e.g.: In the literature (the historiography), how have historians interrogated the causes and effects of the Scramble for Africa?
- Conduct role-play: the Battle of Adwa, with Ethiopian soldiers on the one hand, and Italian colonial forces and their African collaborators on the other.
- Have an oral discussion: How did Europeans justify their colonisation of Africa?
- Take part in source analysis and interpretation – using photographs, maps, archival materials and museums in Europe (e.g. British Museum in London, the Musée de Quai Branly in Paris, Belgium and other African museums elsewhere that capture this cultural dimension), as well as the documentaries reflecting different standpoints.
- Paragraph writing on relevant issues e.g. The injustices of the Berlin Conference, (1884-5)
- Write an essay headed: ‘A critical discussion on the consequences of the Scramble for Africa on African countries’.

Formal assessment

Final examination

3.3 Content for Grade 12

Overall key question:

- **What are the significant factors in a study of the anti-colonial struggles and the coming of democracy in South Africa during the 20th century?**

Grade 12: Term 1	
Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the Late 19th and 20th Centuries	
Key Question: How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th centuries?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 hours**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand that the mineral revolution and industrialisation of the late 19th century were crucial in the rise of British imperialism and the colonisation of South Africa, which in turn laid the seeds of African nationalism and Afrikaner nationalism (Time and Chronology). • Recognise that industrialisation, mining capital and escalating British imperialism led to the emergence of Afrikaner and African nationalisms and also workers' consciousness (Cause and Effect). • Assess different interpretations of the impact of British imperialism and industrialisation, e.g. Marxist, Liberal, and Afrikaner nationalist schools of thought and African perspectives (Multiperspectivity). • Recognise that imperialism and capitalism changed the nature of economic development in South Africa in which race and nationalism became primary factors. (Change and Continuity). • Recognise the lasting impact of capitalism in the racially-based economic development of South Africa (Significance).	
Overview of topic: The mineral revolution in South Africa and the industrial development that followed led to a surge of British imperialism and the wars of resistance, notably the Anglo-Zulu War of 1879, the Anglo-Pedi War (1879), and the first Anglo-Boer War (1881). By this time, Africans had lost their independence and also their traditional land and were obliged to become squatters and seek work as migrant labourers in the mines. The military defeat and impoverishment of these polities culminated in the strengthening of capitalism and profit-seeking international finance, which triggered the Anglo-Boer War/South African War (1899-1902). After the war, the British and Boers banded together to reach a political settlement which accommodated Afrikaner nationalism. The outcome was the formation of the Union of South Africa in 1910, and South Africa became a British dominion, meaning that the British were still in control of South Africa. The strict exclusion of Africans from this political settlement led to the formation of African political organisations in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. It also stimulated the influence of communism in South Africa after the establishment of the USSR in the wake of the 1917 Bolshevik Revolution. Parallel to these processes, British imperialism led to the crystallisation of Afrikaner nationalism, African nationalism and workers' movements. The ascendant mining capital and white minority government enacted the so-called 'civilised labour' laws, racially-based legislation that privileged white workers and discriminated against African labourers. This was very evident during the Great Depression in the early 1930s and the way the 'poor white problem' was resolved by enforcing job reservation at state-owned companies such as ISCOR and ESKOM. The education system, including universities and colleges were also developed along racial lines to support racially-based capitalism and industrial development of both the primary and secondary sectors.	

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Definitions of concepts/terms such as capitalism, international finance capital, Pan-Africanism, African Nationalism (inclusive), Afrikaner Nationalism (exclusive), (1 hour).
- Industrialisation, international capital and economic development in South Africa leading to the formation of the Union of South Africa (inequality, poverty, education, migrant labour) (2 hours).
- Pan Africanism (in a broader sense – including George Padmore from the Caribbean) and African nationalism and political organisations before and up to 1912 (late 19th century and early 20th century) (2 hours).
- Trade union movements (white craft unions, white trade unions and black trade unions) in the late 19th and early 20th century (1 hour).
- Afrikaner Nationalism: includes the Afrikaner Broederbond and exclusive Afrikaans language movement, the Federasie van Afrikaanse Kultuurvereniginge (FAK) and the Dutch Reformed Church) (2 hours)
- Communism: The formation of the Soviet Union (USSR) and its role in the formation of workers' republics' and opposition to British imperialism (1 hour).
- Migrant labour and gender (e.g. black women's protest against passes in 1913; the 1936 Women's Charter spearheaded by Charlotte Maxeke) (2 hours).
- The 1913 and 1922 white mineworkers' revolts on the Rand (2 hours).
- The 1920 African mineworkers' revolt (2 hours).
- The formation of the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICU) and the role of Clements Kadalie, 1921 (1 hour).
- The establishment of state-owned enterprises (South African Railways and Harbour (SARH), South African Post Office, the Electricity Supply Commission (Eskom), the Iron and Steel Corporation (ISCOR), etc.) and job reservation (2 hours).
- The Great Depression and the 'poor white' problem (2 hours).

ASSESSMENT: Working with a variety of sources (Source-based questions)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Define terms/concepts such as mineral revolution, industrialisation, capitalism, imperialism, communism, Afrikaner nationalism and African nationalism
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of archival sources. Note where archival documents are held, e.g those from the Chamber of Mines, Anglo-American, the Afrikaner Broederbond Archives (at the Voortrekker Monument); archives of trade unions
- Assess the value of contemporary newspapers; and biographies of mining magnates and workers (both white and black). Assess the usefulness of sources in the National Archives, Tshwane and its regional depots
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of oral testimonies and oral traditions (workers' archives)
- Engage in debate – on the role of industrial capitalism and international finance in South Africa; whether it had positive or negative effects.
- Paragraph writing: Outline the reasons for the workers' revolts; give examples of those organised by black workers and those by white workers between 1913 and 1922; assess the role of communism in these revolts.
- Oral discussion: Explain how the labour policies in the South African industries in the early 20th century privileged white workers and discriminated against black workers, giving examples of 'civilised labour' policy and legislation.
- Role play and performance (e.g. drama and learners' plays) and documentaries – for example the role of Clements Kadalie, the leader of the ICU.

- Oral discussion: Explain how the ICU sought to address economic inequalities in the workforce in the 1920s.
- Write an essay: Critically discuss the contribution of the mineral revolution and industrialisation to the birth of African nationalism, Afrikaner nationalism and Communism in South Africa.

Formal assessment

Paragraph writing

Source-based and essay

Grade 12: Term 1	
Topic 2: The National Question in South Africa: The formation of the African National Congress, the National Party, the Communist Party of South Africa and other organisations	
Key Questions: • What were the main responses of the Afrikaners, the black people in general and Africans in particular to British imperialism, subjugation, white domination and the creation of the exclusively white state in South Africa between the early 1900s and 1948? • Who qualified as a South African citizen before 1994 and how has South African citizenship shifted between 1910 and 1994?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?
The learner should:

- Understand the origins of the national question in South Africa in the late 19th and early 20th century, and its persistence up until the formation of a unitary state in 1994 (Time and Chronology).
- Recognise that both economic and political marginalisation of the Afrikaner minority and the black majority were causes of the controversy over the national question in South Africa (Cause and Effect).
- Assess different interpretations of the national question in South Africa, e.g. Liberal, Marxist, Afrikaner nationalist, Africanist, African nationalist perspectives, etc. (Multiperspectivity).
- Recognise that despite the political changes achieved in 1994, economic and social inequalities still persist to the present day (Change and Continuity).
- Recognise the lasting impact of the national question in South Africa as the debates continue to the present day (Significance).

Overview of topic:

By the end of the nineteenth century Britain was a dominant world power whose empire extended to many parts of the globe, including southern Africa, where South Africa was emerging as the driving force of the British economy following the mining revolution. It was not surprising, therefore, that the British annexed both the Transvaal and the Orange Free State (the former Boer Republics) and subjugated independent African polities, including the Zulu Kingdom in the latter part of the 19th century. The British and the Boers (Afrikaner identity evolved over time) signed the Treaty of Vereeniging to end the Second Anglo-Boer War (South African War) on 31 May 1902. At the core of this peace treaty was an agreement that the British and Afrikaners would cooperate and create an exclusively white nation-state in 1910. They concretised their cooperation through the exclusively white National Convention in 1907. However, the cooperation entrenched British domination in the emerging early 20th-century economy, something that aggrieved the Boers. The peculiarity of the segregationist and apartheid systems in South Africa between 1910 and 1994 is that both the oppressor and the oppressed co-existed in the same geographical space. This gave rise to fierce political and academic debates that centred on South African nationhood and the relations between racial

oppression and class exploitation. The white English-speaking liberals, Afrikaner nationalists and the African people responded differently to the rise of a British-dominated capitalist system in South Africa.

For the liberals, a single, white-dominated national economy served as the basis for South African nationhood. Despite the exclusion of more than 80% of the population (black people) from citizenship in the newly created nation-state, the white liberals considered the national question as resolved in South African politics from 1910 onwards. They clung to the mid-Victorian liberal tenets of civilisation and assimilation through which they hoped to bring black people into nationhood by 'instalments on the basis of them meeting so-called white standards'. While the liberal school of South African historiography (as in the works of historian William Macmillan) held the view that white people were a culturally superior race to black people, they continued to advocate 'the extension of the franchise rights to black people and called for the removal of 'illegal inequalities' affecting them. However, the franchise for which they campaigned was a qualified rather than a universal one.

The Afrikaners felt marginalised in the emerging economic system and formed the National Party in 1914. As a result of their exclusion based on race and class, the black people in general, and Africans in particular, convened the South African Black Convention in 1908 to campaign for their inclusion in the envisaged nation-state in May 1910. This campaign did not bear fruit and thus the Africans came together and formed the South African Native National Congress (SANNC) in January 1912. The Indian people organised themselves into the Natal Indian Congress (NIC), formed in 1895, which later changed into the South African Indian Congress after the formation of the Transvaal Indian Congress in 1903. The leading political organisation to emerge among the Coloured people, namely the African Peoples Organisation (APO), was established in 1902, and in 1904 Dr Abdullah Abdurahman was elected as the leader of this organisation. The persistent class contradictions within the South African economy resulted in the formation of the Communist Party of South Africa in 1921. However, in its early years, the CPSA did not engage in the national question in its early years until it adopted the 'Native Republic Thesis' in 1928 after it had shifted its focus from white membership. The national question in South Africa was underscored by heated debates that continued up until the breakthrough of the 1994 elections. The section should elaborate on the rise of apartheid in South Africa, and the difference between segregation and apartheid (if there was any).

The section also explores Robert Sobukwe's and the Pan Africanist Congress (PAC)'s imagination of a future South Africa or an alternative to the ANC's version of post-apartheid South Africa. It ends with the rise and significance of Steve Biko and the Black Consciousness Movement (BCM) in the 1970s and political organisations such as the Azanian Peoples' Organisation (AZAPO).

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- The Peace Treaty of Vereeniging (31 May 1902) and the Conventions of 1907 and 1908 (overview, implications and contradictions) (1 hour)
- The implementation of segregationist policies from 1902 and thereafter (1 hour)
- The rise of nationalism in South Africa and the formation of the SANNC (later renamed ANC), National Party, Natal and Transvaal Indian Congresses and the APO (3 hours)
- Class contradictions and the formation of the Communist Party of South Africa (including its adoption of the Native Republic Thesis) (1 hour)
- The rise of apartheid in South Africa (2 hours)
- The formation of the Bantustans as a strategy to deny the majority of South African citizenship (2 hours)
- The role of Robert Mangaliso Sobukwe in resisting racial oppression and promoting a Pan-Africanist alternative to the apartheid system; this includes the formation of the PAC (2 hours)
- The role of Stephen Bantu Biko in raising Black Consciousness as a tool of the struggle against apartheid; this includes the formation of AZAPO (2 hours)
- Various debates on the national question, e.g. why most white South Africans supported an exclusively white state that was undemocratic versus most black peoples' quest for racial inclusivism and a democratic unitary state, a debate that was only resolved in 1994 (3 hours)

ASSESSMENT: Working with a variety of sources (Source-based questions)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Define the terms/concepts such as Convention, Union (Unitary) state, Federal state, Segregation, etc.
- Evaluate the reliability/ limitations (bias) of archival sources: National Archives, ANC archives, SACP archives, NP archives, Afrikaner Broederbond archives, trade unions (e.g. Cosatu archives). Contemporary newspapers, autobiographies and biographies of political leaders (both white and black)
- Evaluate the reliability and limitations of oral testimonies and oral traditions
- Go on an excursion to the Apartheid Museum, or visit it virtually
- Source analysis or interpretation: Provide learners with a map of the homelands /Bantustans. In pairs, the learners should discuss/debate the reasons behind the establishment of the homelands.
- Debate: Have an oral discussion on the national question in South Africa: Is South Africa a unitary state or not?
- Take part in role play and performance (e.g. drama and learners' plays) and documentaries – for example on the speeches of Robert Sobukwe and Steve Biko
- Paragraph writing: e.g. Discuss the reasons for the formation of the Bantustans
- Essay writing: Critically discuss why most white South Africans supported an exclusive white state that was undemocratic whilst most black people (Africans, Indians and Coloureds) campaigned for a racially inclusive unitary state.

Formal assessment

Paragraph writing / Source-based questions / Essay
Test

Grade 12: Term 2	
Topic 3: Cold War and the Rise of Anti-colonial Struggles in Southern Africa	
Key Questions: • In what ways did the Cold War between the USSR and the USA affect South Africa? • How did the various anti-colonial movements and governments in Africa react to South Africa's involvement in the Cold War and its aftermath?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 hours**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand the origins of the Cold War in the aftermath of World War II, leading to a multipolar world (Time and Chronology). • Recognise that ideology and the arms race were the main causes of the Cold War that polarised the world into capitalist and socialist blocs (Cause and Effect) • Understand that there were different standpoints on the Cold War, for example, the USSR, China and the Western countries (Multiperspectivity). • Recognise that the establishment of the Berlin Wall in the late 1940s, together with the Cuban missile crisis in the 1960s, marked the highest point and changes in the Cold War. The reforms in the USSR known as the perestroika and glasnost in the 1980s marked continuity in the Cold War (Change and Continuity). • Recognise the lasting impact of the Cold War as marked by the dispute between NATO, and the former Warsaw Pact countries in the present (Significance).	
Overview of topic: • After the Second World War, there was a struggle between two world powers, i.e. the USSR and USA. Why was it called the 'Cold War'? This was ideological warfare between the capitalist Western countries and the socialist countries (including Cuba), which was a result of the threat of new, more deadly weapons of nuclear technology that prevented outright open warfare throughout the world. The Cold War was characterised by conflict between the two superpowers carried out through proxy wars, the manipulation of more vulnerable states through extensive military and financial aid, espionage, propaganda, rivalry over technological weapons, space and nuclear arms races, and sport. Besides periods of tense crisis in this multipolar world, the Cold War deeply affected the newly independent countries in Africa and the liberation struggles in southern Africa from the late 1940s until the early 1990s, after the dismantling of the USSR. The strength of a multipolar world became evident in 1973 when countries under the auspices of the OAU and the Non-aligned Movement (NAM) voted against Western countries at the UN and declared apartheid a crime against humanity. **Focus** • The teacher should introduce a discussion on: • World War 2 and its aftermaths: Formation of the United Nations, Atlantic Charter, African claims (broad overview) (2 hours). • The origins of the Cold War: Rise of the two superpowers (USSR and US) after the Second World War; advances in nuclear technology; arms race and South Africa; (Conferences; NATO; Warsaw Pact and nuclear weapons) (3 hours). • Cold War in Africa and international solidarity movement: worldwide anti-apartheid movements (in the USA and Britain) versus their governments; the use of sport and cultural boycotts (3 hours).	

- The USSR and international solidarity movements; use of case study: 1973 UN vote on apartheid as a crime against humanity (USA and Britain voting against, and USSR, African countries and others voting in favour) (4 hours)
- Anti-colonial struggles in southern Africa: South Africa's invasion of Angola in 1975 and the war in Quito Cuanavalle (1987-88); Involvement of USA, Cuba and Soviet Union (5 hours)
- The aftermath of the Cold War – the dissolution of the Soviet Union and ending of the Warsaw Pact and the continuation of NATO (3 hours)

Assessment for learning

- Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:
- Explain terms/concepts such as Cold War, espionage, propaganda, nuclear arms race, etc.
- Explain the reasons for the origin of the Cold War (briefly). Use of maps to demonstrate global incidents which caused mistrust between the super powers.
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of archival sources: e.g. documents from the archives, e.g. Department of Foreign Affairs (DIRCO) archives; UN archives (accessible on the world wide web/online).
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of oral testimonies accessible both in the archives and on the web/online – on how the people in southern Africa experienced the Cold War.
- Debate and oral discussion – debating about the impact of the Cold War on global history.
- Take part in an oral discussion on how the Cold War between the USSR and the USA affected the liberation struggles and the South African government. Use of a case study of economic sanctions, the sports boycott, or an example of a cultural boycott
- Perform role play and performance (e.g. drama and learners' plays) and documentaries – the impact of the Cold War on sport in apartheid South Africa.
- Paragraph writing: The anti-colonial or liberation movements in southern Africa were caught in the Cold War between the USA, the Soviet Union and Cuba. Do you agree? Elaborate using examples.
- Essay writing: Critically discuss why and how the UN voted on apartheid as a crime against humanity in 1973 and how this impacted the Cold War.

Formal assessment

Research assignment project/Source-based and essay
June Exam

Grade 12: Term 2	
Topic 4: The Era of the Liberation Struggles and the Politics of Apartheid South Africa on the African Continent	
Key Question: How did the different member states of the OAU respond to the liberation struggle in Southern Africa?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 Hours**

How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?

The learner should:

- Understand that the decision by independent African countries to support or not to support the liberation struggle in South Africa was determined by the country's alignment or misalignment with the former colonial power's ideological orientation (Time and Chronology).
- Recognise that the ideological orientation of each country informed whether to support or not support the liberation struggle in South Africa (Cause and Effect).
- Understand the different viewpoints on why some African countries supported the liberation struggle in South Africa while others did not do so (Multiperspectivity).
- Recognise that the attainment of political freedom in southern Africa altered the stance of Malawi and Cot d'Ivoire towards the liberation movements in South Africa (Change and Continuity).
- Recognise the implications of support or lack of support for the liberation struggle from the 1960s to the 1980s on relations between South Africa and other African countries today (Significance).

Overview of the topic:

As decolonisation progressed in Africa, the newly independent African countries came together and formed the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) in 1963. It was renamed the African Union (AU) in 2001. The OAU's programme of action was to continue with the anti-colonial struggle, especially regarding white minority regimes in Africa controlled by Portugal, Britain and the Republic of South Africa, including accommodation of the liberation movements in the Frontline states and support for people displaced by the white minority regimes. Learners need to contend with the fractured nature of the support of the independent African countries and OAU member states for the liberation struggle in South Africa and make a comparative analysis of this. They should be able to compile a comparative study of a pro-liberation movement state (Tanzania or Nigeria) on the one hand, and an anti-liberation movement state (Malawi or Cote d'Ivoire), on the other. In concert with global powers, African countries furthered their political, economic and ideological interests, using Angola as a theatre of the Cold War. In southern Africa, the USA and Zaire supported Holden Roberto of the FNLA; South Africa supported Jonas Savimbi of UNITA; and Cuba and the USSR supported Agostinho Neto of the MPLA.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- White minority regimes in Southern Africa (Rhodesia and South Africa) reject the idea of sharing power with the African majority and resort to political repression, leading to the reconstitution of liberation movements in exile in the Frontline states (3 hours).
- League of Nations, United Nations, OAU and the liberation of South West Africa/Namibia (4 hours).
- OAU and the struggle for liberation in South Africa: A comparative study of a pro-liberation movement state (Zambia, Tanzania and Nigeria) on the one hand, and an anti-liberation movement state (Malawi, Zaire and Cote d'Ivoire) (5 hours).
- Challenges of post-independence Africa: Challenges of economic and political development in southern Africa (SADC) (3 hours)

- Apartheid South Africa and its destabilisation of the Southern African region (3 hours).
- Harare Declaration: the role of the OAU, Non-aligned Movement (NAM) and the United Nations (3 hours).

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by the learners being able to:

- Explain terms/concepts such as decolonisation, Frontline states, pro-liberation movement states, anti-liberation movement states, post-independence Africa
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of the archival sources provided (e.g. documents from the various archives; Department of Foreign Affairs (DIRCO) archives; UN archives (accessible on the web/online); OAU archive for OAU Liberation Committee, autobiographies, biographies and memoirs of former freedom fighters, etc.
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of oral testimonies of freedom fighters' experiences in the Frontline states; accessible on the web/online and in publications
- Take part in an oral discussion: Explain the reasons why white minority regimes in southern Africa rejected the idea of sharing power with the African majority
- Participate in a debate and oral discussion – debating the reasons why Malawi and Cote d'Ivoire maintained economic and diplomatic links with apartheid South Africa while Nigeria and Tanzania supported the liberation struggle in South Africa
- Conduct role-play and performance (e.g. drama and learners' plays) and documentaries – e.g. re-enact a meeting between South Africa's BJ Vorster and Dr H Banda of Malawi
- Participate in an oral discussion: how and why the apartheid state destabilised the southern African region?
- Write a paragraph: Discuss the Harare Declaration and the respective roles of the OAU, the Non-aligned Movement and the United Nations.
- Write an essay: The OAU played an important role in the history of decolonising Africa. Do you agree? Discuss this statement critically.

Formal assessment

Research assignment project/source-based and essay

June Exam

Grade 12: Term 3	
Topic 5: The Role of Individual Leaders in History during the Apartheid Period	
Key Question: • What is the role of individual leaders in promoting, consolidating and entrenching apartheid? • What is the role of individual leaders in resisting and dismantling the apartheid system?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 Hours**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand the introduction, consolidation and resistance against apartheid from the 1950s to the early 1990s (Time and Chronology). • Recognise that the unjust policies created by the apartheid rulers prompted the leaders of the oppressed masses to mobilise resistance against those policies (Cause and Effect). • Understand the different viewpoints on the role of individual leaders in implementing and consolidating apartheid, as well as in resisting and dismantling apartheid (Multiperspectivity). • Understand the role of individual leaders in influencing the continuities and discontinuities in the apartheid system (Change and Continuity). • Recognise that individual leaders continue to play an important role in history (Significance).	

Overview of topic:

The topic focuses on the role of individuals in history which has remained a subject of deep historical interest. While individuals cannot change the objective course of history at will, the individual can at times play a major and decisive role in determining the direction and developments in history. This raises the question: what would have happened if the individuals we are studying had acted differently? It is in this regard that we focus on the role of P.W. Botha in the introduction, entrenchment and the consolidation of apartheid rule in South Africa, and the role of Oliver Reginald Tambo, in leading political and social resistance against apartheid, as well as in dismantling it.

P.W. Botha as a Minister of Defence in J.B. Vorster's government, was instrumental in the country's development of nuclear weapons such as the atomic bomb and the destabilisation of southern Africa, hence the war in Angola in 1975 which was underscored by the geopolitics of the Cold War. When the United States of America sold them out and left them in the lurch at the mercy of Angolans, Cubans and Russians, the South Africa military defence force (SADF) was obliged to make a hurried retreat.

In 1978, when P.W. Botha became prime minister, South Africa shifted from being a police state to the status of what can be designated a 'military state'. Even as a securocrat, P.W. Botha was a reformist who introduced measures that sought to reform apartheid. For example, in 1983 he introduced the Tricameral Parliament that was short-lived due to popular resistance against it. Thereafter, Botha abolished some petty-apartheid measures (such as Group Areas Act); and in 1986/7 he officially released the first group of political prisoners, including Govan Mbeki and Walter Sisulu. However, in terms of geopolitics, Botha was still involved in the war in Angola, for example at Cuito Cuanavalle. He also maintained South West Africa/Namibia as a virtual fifth province of South Africa. Botha, as the president of South Africa, could not carry on with the reforms he initiated because of failing health and in 1989 F.W. de Klerk took over the leadership of the National Party.

After the liberation movements were banned in the period following the Sharpeville Massacre (21 March 1960), O.R. Tambo moved into exile where, together with other political activists he re-established the ANC and assumed the leadership position. Tambo,

who later became the president of the ANC, was instrumental in the ANC's adoption of what the ANC called the 'Four Pillars of the Struggle for National Liberation', namely (1) the Underground Struggle; (2) International Solidarity; (3) the Armed/Military Struggle; and (4) Mass Mobilisation. Following the June 16, 1976 Soweto student uprising, violent state repression forced many young activists to skip the country to join the liberation movements in exile. Eager for military training, many of them joined the ANC's military wing Umkhonto we Sizwe (MK) and reinvigorated and radicalised the liberation struggle. Others took the educational route, establishing the Solomon Mahlangu Freedom College in Mazimbu, Tanzania. The four pillars remained the official policy and position of the ANC while in exile until its unbanning in February 1990. Tambo was instrumental in the adoption of the Harare Declaration by the UN in 1989/90. Subsequently, he returned home in 1990 because substantive political negotiations were on the horizon.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- Why is the role of individual leaders important in history? (1 hour)
- P.W. Botha as a Minister of Defence in B.J. Vorster's cabinet (1 hour)
- The role of P.W. Botha in leading the development of the country's nuclear weapons and destabilisation of the southern African region (e.g. War in Angola in 1975) (2 hours)
- P.W. Botha as prime minister/president taking the role of a securocrat. He instigated the State of Emergency (1985) and the vicious repression of popular resistance; instigated the war in Angola (3 hours)
- P.W. Botha as a reformer: formation of Tricameral Parliament. This was rejected and the establishment of the UDF was a response; the release of certain political prisoners (Govan Mbeki, Walter Sisulu, Zephaniah Mothopeng, etc.) (3 hours)
- O.R. Tambo and the ANC- in-exile (2 hours)
- O.R. Tambo and the implementation of the Four Pillars of the Struggle: underground, military struggle, mass mobilisation (1984 Vaal Uprisings) and examples of international solidarity (4 hours)
- The 1976 Soweto student uprising, political repression and exile; many youths joined ANC's military wing MK while others pursued an education path at SOMAFCO in Tanzania. Youthful energy reinvigorated the liberation movement (4 hours)
- O.R. Tambo and the dismantling of the apartheid system; the Harare Declaration and Tambo's return to South Africa in 1990 (3 hours)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Define or explain terms/concepts such as police state, military state, securocrat, Tri-cameral parliament, underground struggle, international solidarity, etc.
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of sources: archival sources: documents from the archives, e.g. Military Intelligence Archives; autobiographies and biographies of individual leaders (e.g. H.F. Verwoerd, B.J. Vorster, P.W. Botha, Chief Albert Luthuli, O.R. Tambo); UFS National Party Archives; University of Fort Hare Archives (NAHECS); Robben Island-Mayibuye Archives (UWC); UN Archives (accessible on the world wide web/online); OAU Archives (Liberation Committee Archives in Dar es Salaam); other sources in Addis Ababa)
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of oral testimonies or recordings of, or about, individual leaders available in archives, museums, online, etc. (e.g. P.W. Botha, O.R. Tambo)
- Debate: Debate the issue of whether P.W. Botha was a reformer or a securocrat and provide examples to substantiate your view.

- Oral discussion: The role of individual leaders in history (for example NP leader vs ANC leader) providing evidence for your point of view.
- Paragraph writing: How did the role of P.W. Botha as a Minister of Defence in B.J. Vorster's cabinet shape the history of South Africa? Or outline the role of the youth both internally and outside the country in the struggle against apartheid.
- Essay writing: 'OR Tambo was a hands-on ANC leader in exile'. To what extent is this statement accurate? Use relevant evidence (examples) to support your answer.

Formal assessment

Research assignment project/Source-based and essay:
Source-based and Essay

Grade 12: Term 3	
Topic 6: Freedom and Democracy in South Africa: Coming to Terms with the Past	
Key Questions: • How did South Africa emerge as a free and inclusive non-racial democracy? • How far did the early talks that began in 1985 influence substantive negotiations and the coming of democracy in South Africa? • How did the 1993 and 1996 Constitutions attempt to deal with the past?	**Suggested contact time:** **20 Hours**
How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process? **The learner should:** • Understand the political transformation in the late 1980s that ushered in the unbanning of the liberation movements, the release of all political prisoners and substantive negotiations, and the making of the 1996 Constitution. (Time and Chronology). • Recognise the role of internal and external factors in bringing about political transformation in South Africa (Cause and Effect). • Understand the different viewpoints on whether South Africa is a non-racial democracy or not (Multiperspectivity). • Recognise that South Africa has attained political freedom but economic inequalities have remained unchanged and the struggle continues for economic freedom, bearing in mind that the liberation struggle was always about both economic and political freedom (Change and Continuity). • Recognise that while there is political freedom in South Africa, economic freedom continues to be a huge challenge (Significance).	

Overview of topic:

Before the fall of the Berlin Wall in 1989 and the collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991, the process of trying to find a solution to the national question in South Africa had already begun. This was because of the fall of the South African economy in 1985. The maintenance of apartheid was no longer sustainable because the international creditors and financiers were demanding that South Africa pay back its loans with immediate effect. As a result, between 1985 and 1988, members of the political opposition within the South African government, representatives of business, the media as well as academics from Afrikaans universities started having well-publicised meetings with the ANC-in-exile (for example in Zambia and Senegal) to find a permanent solution to the political situation in South Africa. Meanwhile, the United Nations sent the Eminent Persons Group' (made up of representatives from the UN-affiliated member states) to South Africa to advise on the question of a political settlement. The economic sanctions and cultural and sports boycott against apartheid South Africa by the international community exacerbated the situation. In response, the ANC began internal discussions which led to the development of constitutional guidelines in 1986, policy statements were issued about holding substantive negotiations in 1987, and the finalisation of their constitutional guidelines document in 1988. All these predate the 1989 secret talks between the National Party and the ANC which took place in exile, in anticipation of the CODESA negotiations.

This topic focuses on the debates around the negotiation process between the ANC and

the NP government, Bantustan leaders and other participants. It will cover the stalemate in the struggle (in the context of the end of the Cold War); the compromises made on both sides; and the need for reconciliation. It will also discuss the context of violence (conflict between the ANC and Inkatha, hostel dwellers versus township residents, killings on trains, the 'third force' or low intensity warfare; and the white right wing that threatened the negotiation process. The PAC and AZAPO's boycott of negotiations and the IFP's walking out of the negotiations will be looked at; as will the eventual success of the negotiations and the holding of the first democratic elections. The topic ends with the choices made in the process of coming to terms with the past and includes investigating the drawing up of the democratic Constitution (1996) and the various chapter 9 institutions.

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

- The depression and fall of the South African economy in 1985 as a precipitant of negotiations between South Africans (media, big business, political opposition in parliament; lawyers, academics, The Eminent Persons Group, etc.), Bantustan leaders, trade unions and the ANC-in-exile (3 hours)
- Talks to find a solution: secret negotiations with the ANC-in-exile and negotiations with Mandela 1985 to 1991; the end of the Cold War, transition to democracy and the role of the International Community (Harare Declaration and the role of the OAU, the Non-aligned Movement and the United Nations); unbanning of organisations; release of political prisoners; release of Nelson Mandela; debates around negotiations; the role of the labour movement in negotiations; and the ANC giving up the armed struggle (4 hours)
- CODESA, Breakdown of negotiations: 'Whites only' referendum – De Klerk solution; violence in the 1990s and debates around the violence, including white right-wing violence (e.g., Piet 'Skiet' Rudolf); the Record of Understanding; Joe Slovo and the 'Sunset Clause' – concessions made during negotiations (3 hours)
- Multi-party negotiations process resumes; the murder of Chris Hani; Ongoing violence: attempts to derail negotiations flare up after agreements are reached; AWB invasion of World Trade Centre; St James Massacre; killing at the Heidelberg Tavern; etc. (3 hours)
- Finally … the road to democracy in 1994: violence again; unravelling of the Bantustans (e.g., fall of Oupa Gqozo and the Bhisho Massacre; the fall of Lucas Mangope, the right wing and the Bophuthatswana shootings, etc.); Inkatha Freedom Party march and the Shell House shootings; the Interim Constitution and the Bill of Rights; Freedom Front, PAC and IFP join the electoral race; the Government of National Unity; 27 April 1994 elections (3 hours)
- The Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) was a moment of reckoning; while it enabled some apartheid atrocities to be revealed, there were major problems with the process, e.g. why the apartheid officials never gave evidence; why white finance capital was never brought before the TRC considering the role it played in the apartheid state by excluding black South Africans from the economy; why the legal fraternity was never summoned for supporting and upholding racist laws; and why South Africa did not use the Nuremberg-style hearings. (3 hours)
- Analysis of the Union of South Africa Act of 1910, the 1961 Act of the Republic of South Africa and the 1996 Constitution. How each document defines what it means to be a South African. The liberation of black South Africans through the inclusive 1996 constitution and the Chapter 9 institutions also meant the humanisation, emancipation and democratisation of white South Africans whose governments had committed crimes against humanity (3 hours)

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- Define or explain terms/concepts such as: economic sanctions, cultural and sports boycott, 'third force', Truth and Reconciliation, restorative justice, amnesty democracy, commission, etc.

- Engage in oral discussion: such as Explain how the depression and fall of the South African economy in 1985 led to negotiations between South Africans (media, big business, political opposition in Parliament; lawyers, academics, etc.), Bantustan leaders, trade unions and the ANC-in-exile.
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of certain sources: archival documents from the archives, e.g., University of Fort Hare Archives; Robben Island, Mayibuye Centre; University of Free State Archives; UN Archives (accessible on web/ online); OAU archives; National Archives; TRC Final Report
- Evaluate the usefulness, reliability and limitations (bias) of oral testimonies such as collections of oral testimonies at the TRC; interviews with former political activists, NP government leaders, Bantustan leaders, SABC footage, etc.
- Paragraph writing: e.g. Give an assessment of the importance of negotiations with the ANC-in-exile
- Conduct a debate: Why did the struggle for democracy in South Africa take a violent form and why did it take such a long time to achieve?
- Take part in roleplay and performance (e.g., drama and learners' plays) and documentaries – the TRC and its role in the making of a democratic South Africa.
- Hold an oral discussion: Discuss notions of citizenship encapsulated in the Union of South Africa Act of 1910, the 1961 Act of the Republic of South Africa and the 1996 Constitution of the democratic South Africa.
- Essay writing: Explain to what extent violence delayed the multiparty negotiations to a democratic South Africa in 1994.

Formal assessment (3 hours)
Source-Based Questions and Essay
Controlled Test

SECTION 4

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Assessment is a continuous, planned process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information regarding the performance of learners. It involves four basic steps: i) generating and collecting evidence of achievement; ii) evaluating this evidence; iii) recording the findings and iv) using this information to understand and thereby assist the learner's development to improve the process of learning and teaching.

All assessment tasks should reflect adequate curriculum coverage in terms of content, concepts and skills at grade-appropriate cognitive levels and should be appropriate for learners' age and developmental level. In assessing subject knowledge, teachers will be evaluating the learner's ability to achieve the aims and demonstrate the disciplinary skills and conceptual understanding of each subject as outlined in Section 2 of the document. To enable learners to achieve and demonstrate these disciplinary skills, they will need to have a full grasp and understanding of the content and concepts outlined in Section 3 of the document.

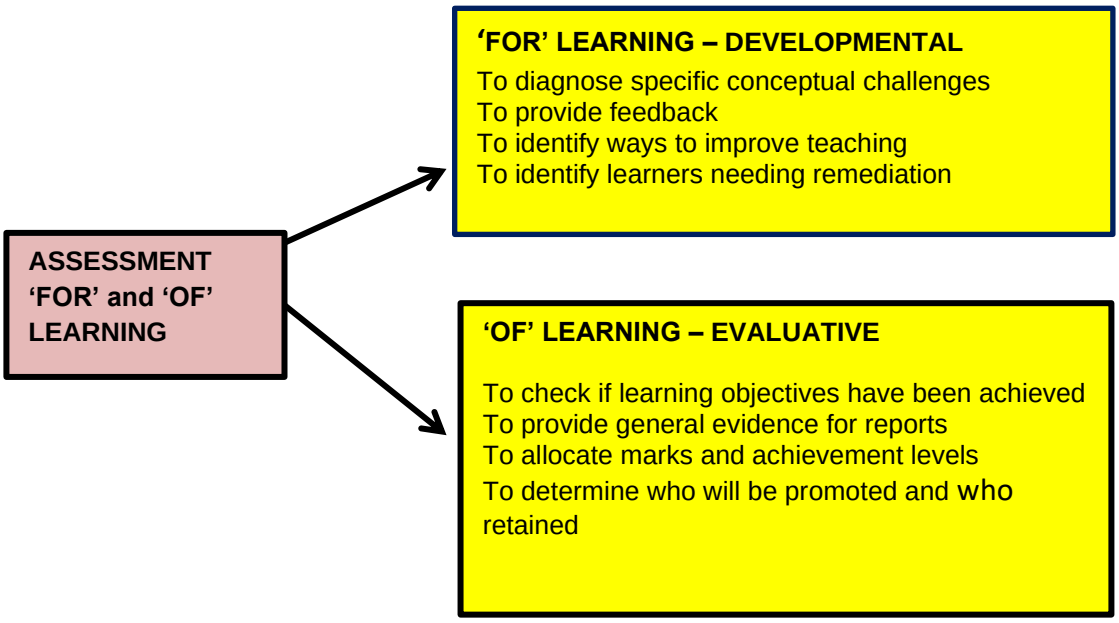
Assessment should be both informal (Assessment for Learning or AfL) and formal (Assessment of Learning or AoL). In both cases, regular feedback should be provided to learners to enhance the learning experience.

4.1.1 GOALS OF ASSESSMENTS 'FOR' AND 'OF' LEARNING IN THE NEW HISTORY CURRICULUM

1) To strengthen and streamline rather than revise fundamentally, the existing assessment practices in History.

2) To build greater developmental coherence from G4-G12 (e.g.: Key questions are used throughout the curriculum; cognitive levels are differentiated for each phase, and writing tasks increase in complexity across the phases.

3) To give teachers space for creativity, local innovations, developing engaging source-based enquires and relevant research projects, and to encourage teachers to curate new 'archives' of historical and archaeological source materials.



Assessment for learning (AfL) has the purpose of collecting information on learners' achievement regularly so that it can be used to improve their learning.

Informal assessment includes baseline assessment which establishes what knowledge learners bring to the classroom about a topic; and, diagnostic assessment which helps teachers identify concepts or content with which learners are struggling, or barriers to learning.

Informal assessment is a daily monitoring of learners' progress. This is done through observation, discussions, practical demonstrations, learner-teacher conferences, informal classroom interactions and activities, homework tasks, etc. Informal assessment may be as simple as stopping during the lesson to observe learners or to discuss with learners how learning is progressing. It should not be seen as separate from learning activities taking place in the classroom. Learners or teachers can mark written informal assessment tasks.

Self-assessment and peer assessment involve learners actively in assessment. This is important because it allows learners to learn from and reflect on their performance. The results of the informal daily assessment tasks are not recorded formally unless the teacher wishes to do so. However, they should be used to provide feedback to the learners, plan for remediation and to inform future lesson design.

Informal assessment may be structured by working through activities provided in available textbooks. However, teachers can design their own AfL tasks, using a range of credible historical source material, to enrich teaching and learning.

Evidence of learner's work, including assessment, should be kept in the learner's notebook.

Sufficient informal assessment should be administered to scaffold learning and to prepare learners for formal assessment tasks.

4.1.2 FORMAL ASSESSMENT (Assessment of Learning or AoL)

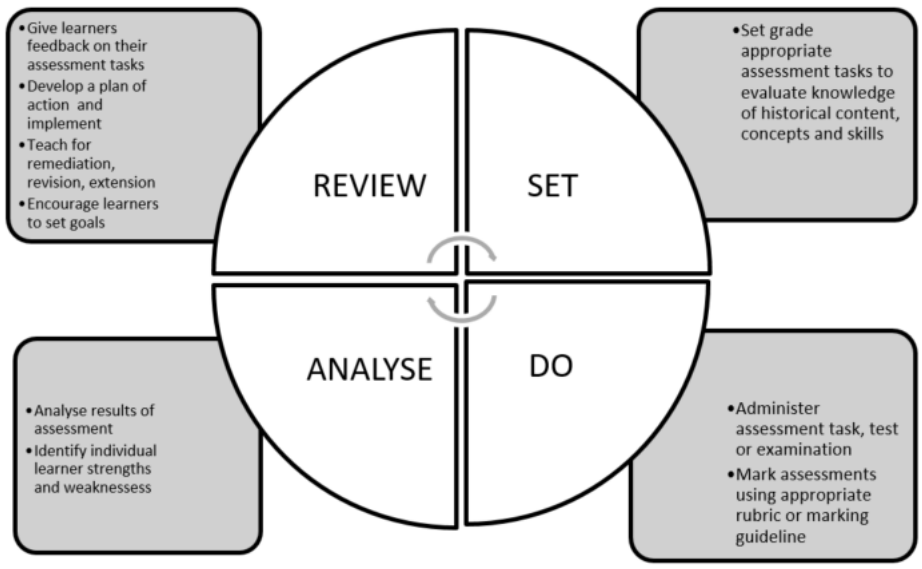
When assessment is used to record a judgement of the competence or performance of the learner it serves a summative purpose. Formal assessment provides teachers with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a grade and in a particular subject.

Formal assessment tasks form part of a year-long, formal programme of assessment in each grade and subject. All assessment tasks that make up a formal programme of assessment for the year are regarded as formal assessments. All formal assessment tasks are subject to moderation for quality assurance and to ensure that appropriate standards are maintained. Formal assessment tasks are marked and formally recorded by the teacher for promotion and progression purposes.

Formal assessment tasks include projects, source-based enquiries, writing tasks, tests and examinations.

4.1.3 THE ASSESSMENT CYCLE

The Assessment cycle involves the following stages: Set, Do, Analyse, Review.



SET

Follow these steps when designing your own assessment task:

1. Clarify the purpose of assessment (Why?)
2. Decide on the task activity or activities (Form of assessment?)
3. Decide on the content, concepts and skills to be assessed (What?)
4. Select a format for learner presentation (Clarify the method: How?)

Both formal and informal assessments must cater for a range of cognitive levels and abilities of learners. Assessment tasks should include a grade appropriate weighting of low, middle and high order questions, to evaluate the disciplinary knowledge of History.

Before handing out an assessment task to learners, teachers should ensure that they are able to answer all the questions themselves. When teacher set an assessment task, they should draw up a marking guideline of answers and/or a rubric for the assessment.

DO

Learners should be given clear instructions, which include mark allocation and time frames for the completion of assessment tasks.

Assessment tasks should be marked without delay.

ANALYSE

Teachers should analyse the results of individual learners as well as those of the whole class to identify areas of strength and weakness.

REVIEW

Learners should receive continuous, constructive feedback both informally and formally. Feedback should acknowledge strengths and identify areas of weakness for learners' developmental needs. An action plan of appropriate remediation and how learners will be supported should accompany the feedback when marked assessment tasks are returned to learners. It is important that the feedback provided to learners encourages them to do better and builds their self-confidence.

Assessment results give teachers insight into the topics or sections of work that individual learners and whole classes find challenging. Assessments should inform teachers' planning for future lessons. They should also reflect in their practice and research additional strategies to teach content, concepts or skills with which learners struggle as well as creating extension activities for learners who have demonstrated an excellent understanding.

Until learners have demonstrated their understanding, a lesson has not been effectively taught. Setting good assessment tasks can be both challenging and time consuming. Teachers are encouraged to work collaboratively with History colleagues in their own and other schools, to use carefully selected textbooks as a guide, and to share historical source materials and well-constructed assessment tasks.

4.2 Assessment in History

Assessment in History should be used to evaluate the level at which the core aims and objectives of the subject, as outlined in Chapter 2 of the document, have been attained. All tasks, projects, tests and examinations used to assess historical understanding must evaluate knowledge of disciplinary content, concepts, and thinking skills (based on the specific aims and objectives).

Objectives of School History

1. To demonstrate a chronological knowledge and understanding of the past and the forces that shape it.
2. To demonstrate an ability to use different calendars and demonstrate an understanding of ways of measuring time.
3. To demonstrate a critical understanding of how sources and concepts are used to construct historically valid enquiries about the past.
4. To undertake a historical enquiry and be able to present the outcomes of the enquiry in logical and well-structured written and oral forms.
5. To explain why events in the past are often interpreted and represented differently and why explanations or interpretations shift over time.
6. To argue different points in debates about events or processes in the past on the basis of available evidence.
7. To demonstrate an appreciation that there are multiple ways of relating to the past, such as cognitive, emotional, moral, political, material, aesthetic.

4.2.1 Questions and Questioning in History Assessment

History is a process of enquiry based on the interpretation and analysis of evidence from the past. Different types of questions are used in History assessment.

A) Closed and Open Questions

Closed questions are those with a limited number of correct answers. These might begin with 'who', 'when', 'where' or require yes/no answers. This type of question will test recall and understanding, they are useful for revision and help learners develop the foundational knowledge used in later grades for constructing a line of arguments. As such, they have a useful place in informal History assessment.

Open questions usually have multiple possible answers. In History, they often begin with 'how?', 'why?' or 'what?'. In answering these types of questions learners are required to give views, opinions, beliefs or judgements and provide information as evidence to support their responses. Open questions can be used to sustain classroom discussion and debate; they promote higher-

order thinking and help learners to develop their historical thinking skills.

- **Key Questions**

Key questions are overarching enquiry questions which give any lesson or topic unity and coherence, driving and focusing the investigation. When constructing assessment tasks, teachers may use the key questions given in the curriculum or construct alternative key questions. Good key questions challenge learners to investigate a topic (rather than simply learn a narrative) and help to deepen our understanding of the complex past.

When constructing key questions for assessment purposes, historical concepts should be taken into consideration and used to frame the question. In this curriculum these concepts are:

- Time and chronology
- Significance
- Cause and Consequence
- Continuity and Change
- Multi-perspectivity (interpretations)

Example of Grade 9: Term 1

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Grade 9: Term 1</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Topic: Pseudo-science, Racism and the Entrenchment of Social Inequalities during the Nineteenth Century</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key Questions:
Why and how was pseudo-science used to entrench racial segregation and social and political inequalities during the nineteenth century?

How have technology and recent scientific discoveries refuted pseudo-scientific racism?</td><td>Suggested Contact Time:
15 Hours</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process?
The learner should:
• understand the history of classifications that led to pseudo-scientific racism (Time and Chronology)
• understand that scientists are part of society and how science can be used to shape ideas and prejudices in society (Cause and Effect)
• appreciate that there are different ways of classification (Multiperspectivity)
• consider how ideas of race were used differently (Change and Continuity)
• understand the significance of technological advances in refuting pseudo-scientific racism (Significance)</td></tr>
</table>

B) Learners Questions

Learning to ask good questions is a valuable skill to acquire in History. Learners should be given opportunities to construct and ask their own questions about a topic. This can be used as a valuable activity in assessment for learning.

4.2.2 Cognitive Levels in History

Informal and formal assessment in History may take a variety of forms, as outlined in section 4.2.4; however, all assessment tasks should cater for a range of cognitive levels and abilities of learners, as shown in the Figure below.

4.2.2.1 The Weighting of Cognitive Levels for Assessment in History

All formal assessment tasks in History should be constructed using questions set at the grade appropriate weighting of cognitive levels as indicated.in percentage.

WEIGHTING OF COGNITIVE LEVELS: Gr 4 - Gr 12

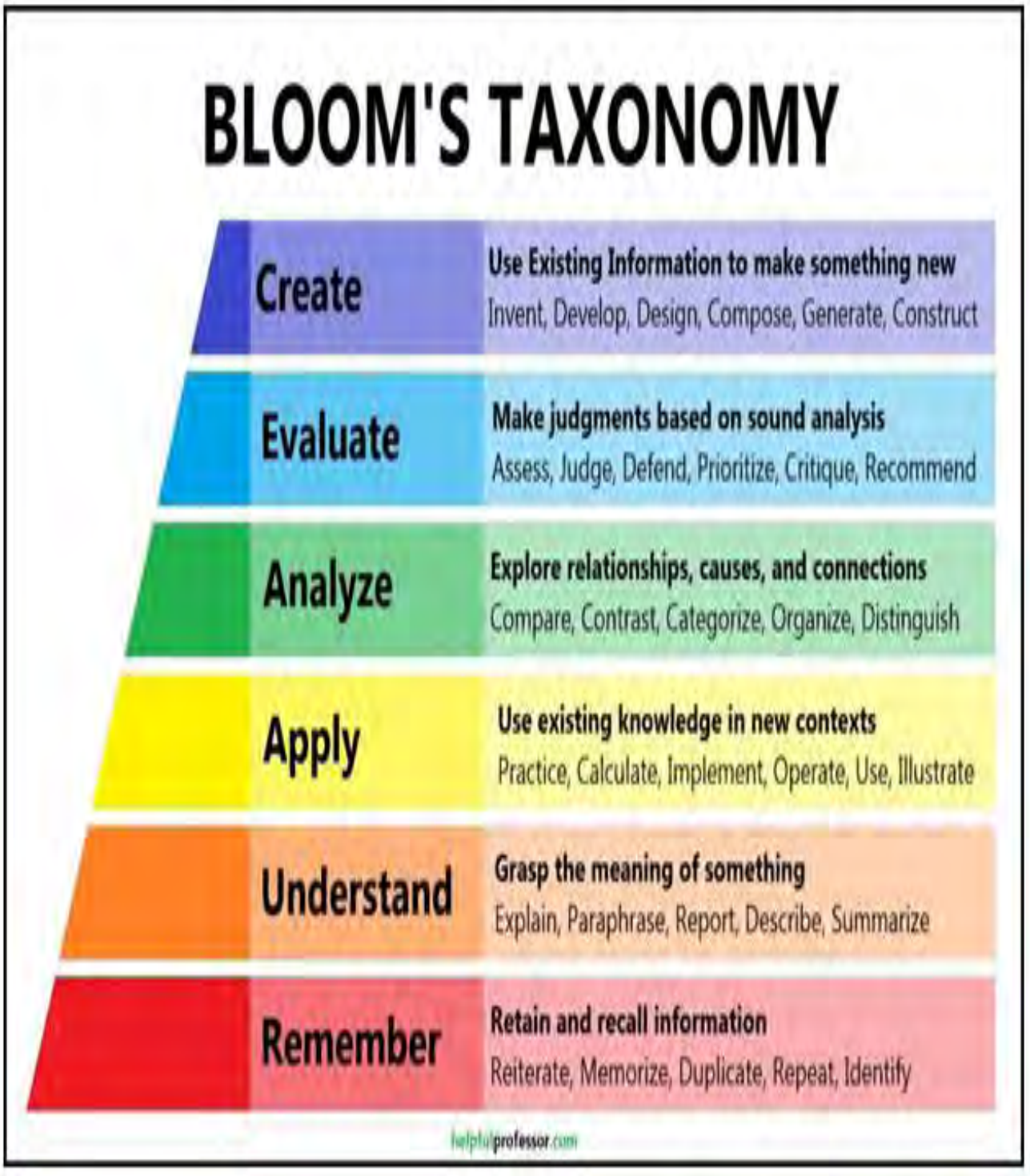
	LEVEL 1	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3
Grade 4	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 5	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 6	**40 %**	**40 %**	**20 %**
Grade 7	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 8	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 9	**35 %**	**40 %**	**25 %**
Grade 10	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**
Grade 11	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**
Grade 12	**30 %**	**40 %**	**30 %**

Figure A: The cognitive level in terms of Bloom's taxonomy and verbs, their application to History and suggested questions that can be asked in History assessment at different levels

Cognitive Level	Bloom's Category	Verbs	Application to History: Learners are able to	Questions that can be asked at different cognitive levels
L1	Comprehension Understanding Knowledge	Define Identify List Name State Select Quote Describe Discuss Illustrate	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the key features and characteristics of the period studied Understand and recognise the range of sources of information available for studying the past Extract information from source material to answer a question Extract information about the origins and context of a source	Questions that demonstrate knowledge What can you tell us about …? Recount information about … Using your own knowledge … Questions that demonstrate comprehension of provenance (origins) Who wrote/created this source? When was this source written/created? Where was it found/published/distributed? Questions that demonstrate comprehension/understanding Describe in your own words in what ways...explain your answer, What does the author tell us about …? What information does the author provide about …? Questions that demonstrate understanding of chronology In what order did the events of … happen?

Cognitive Level	Bloom's Category	Verbs	Application to History: Learners are able to	Questions that can be asked at different cognitive levels
L2	Analysis Application	Explain Choose Show Complete Predict Construct Use Analyse Compare Contrast Investigate Criticise Conclude Interpret	Interpret historical source material to explain its meaning in context Analyse historical events and periods studied using procedural historical concepts such as cause and consequence, multi-perspectivity, significance, change and continuity, time and chronology Interpret information from a number of sources including written, oral, landscape, material culture. Make inferences on the basis of information contained in source material. Apply prior knowledge to make meaning of historical source material	Explain the connection between… What language or words does the author use to persuade the audience? Describe the different points of view given in Discuss the different causes and/or effects of …? Classify information relating to the topic into different categories (e.g.: social, political, economic causes) What does the author / creator infer about …. Explain how the sources disagree of the matter of…? Identify and explain the authors perspective on … With reference to its origin, purpose and content, analyse the value and limitations of Examine the role of… Point of view of author, interpret and explain Identify and explain similarities and differences between events Identify and explain similarities and differences between sources How does the source prove/ support/ show that … Analyse the reasons for … What is the significance, implication, meaning …

				What conclusion can be drawn from the source about …
Cognitive Level	**Blooms Category**	**Verbs**	**Application to History: Learners are able to**	**Suggested question prompts**
L3	Creation Evaluation Synthesis	Evaluate Appraise Support Compare Defend Estimate Predict Argue Interpret Contrast	Evaluate and use historical sources to answer questions and make substantiated judgements about past events and processes, in the context of historical events studied. Evaluate the usefulness of sources for answering questions about the past including their reliability, stereotyping and subjectivity Recognise that there is often more than one perspective of a historical event Explain why there were and are different interpretations of historical events and processes Participate in constructive and focused debate through the careful evaluation of historical evidence Organise evidence to substantiate an argument, to create an original, coherent and balanced piece of writing	Explain reasons why the interpretations might differ? With reference to their origin and purpose of the source, assess the value and/or limitations of … With reference to the author's perspective, what might be limitations to the source's accuracy regarding … Evaluate the sources' usefulness for answering a given question considering their provenance (origins), purpose and limitations Evaluate the significance of … on … Use source materials from multiple sources to create a representation of the events … Assess the reasons why …? Evaluate the contribution made by x to y? Assess the impact of … Evaluate the importance of Account for the differences regarding …. In the two sources Using information gathered from relevant sources and your knowledge, write a paragraph explaining /evaluating /critiquing… Evaluate the relative significance of ….



4.2.3 Forms of Assessment for History

Teachers should use a variety of informal and formal assessment tasks to evaluate learning. These tasks should be designed to demonstrate competency in historical content, concepts and skills and assess understanding of the core aims and objectives of the History curriculum.

Types of Assessment of Learning (AoL) in History Curriculum

Phase	Source-Based	Written Tasks	Project
Intermediate Phase	Source-based questions	Sentences Paragraphs	Gr 4 Gr 6
Senior Phase	Source-based questions	Sentences Paragraphs Narrative Essays	Gr 9
FET	Source-based questions	Sentences Paragraphs Narrative Essays Discursive Essays	Gr 10 Gr 11 Gr 12

4.2.3.1 Tasks: Informal Assessment (AfL)

Every History lesson should engage learners in reading, writing and discussion about the historical topic and questions being studied. In addition to textbook tasks, informal assessment tasks (AfL) which might be included in History lessons include:

- Reading and extracting information from textbooks and other sources
- Writing summary notes under headings
- Organising information into categories (for example causes and consequences, similarities and differences, perspectives of different people about an event)
- Constructing questions about the topic using information from textbooks and other source material (these could be used for revision or quick quizzes)
- Putting dates into chronological order to create a timeline
- Creating a flow diagram or story board of events
- Asking and answering open and closed questions (who, what, when, where, why, how) using information in textbooks and historical source materials
- Using information in historical sources to answer questions at different cognitive levels (for example extracts, list, name, identify, analyse, interpret, compare, contrast, evaluate, critique, synthesise, and create). Answers could be presented in written, oral, dramatic or visual form.
- Creating a word wall or glossary with definitions of historical terminology
- Studying images (photographs, posters, paintings) to identify symbols and explain their meaning in context.
- Studying objects, landscapes, and material culture to answer questions about the past.
- Participating in structured, prepared discussion, debate or dramatic presentation about a topic, which involves extracting information from textbooks and other source material.

4.2.3.2 Source-Based Enquiries: Formal Assessment and Informal Assessment

Source-based enquiries can be constructed using a wide range of primary and secondary source material, these include oral, written, visual as well as objects and material culture.

Working with sources across the curriculum

In the **Intermediate Phase** the aim of working with historical sources is to enable learners to

- Identify a range of different sources materials that can be used to find about the past
- Ask historical questions about the source material
- Extract information from source material
- Interpret information from source material
- Interpret information presented in different types of sources
- Use source material to construct stories
- Use information to answer questions about the past

In **Senior Phase** learners will also

- Interpret and analyse the information given in a variety of historical sources
- Understand and explain why there is usually more than one perspective or interpretation of an historical event or process recorded in historical accounts of past events
- Identify and explain different perspectives and interpretations about past events
- Organise information from source material to answer key questions

In **FET** learners will also

- Infer meaning from a variety of sources when answering questions
- Evaluate the reliability and usefulness of different source material for answering key questions
- Synthesise information, debates or interpretations from a range of sources
- Select and organise information from a variety of historical source materials which can be used to answer questions about the past
- Support a line of argument to construct an original piece of historical writing.

When constructing source-based enquiries teachers must ensure that the following aspects are adhered to:

- Group historical source material around a key question.
- The key question should be interesting, historically relevant and framed by the historical concepts indicated in Chapter 2.
- Provide a contextualisation for all source material.
  Contextualisation includes author or creator of the source, the title and place of publication or website and the date of publication or when the website was accessed. If the source is an object, contextual information should include where it was found and from what material it is made. Contextualisation should be guided by the questions 'who, what, why, when, for whom?

- NB: Learners need to use the contextual information to answer questions about the usefulness of a source to answer the key question, and to evaluate its reliability as a source of evidence.
- All source material should be correctly referenced (i.e. the book, online site (URL), newspaper etc. where the sources was accessed)
- People in photographs and cartoons should be identified and labelled
- All text and images must be clearly visible
- No sources should be combined into a composite source.

When used for Informal Assessment (AfL), the key question in a source-based enquiry could be answered in written, oral, dramatic or visual forms; however, when used for formal assessment, the final question in a source-based enquiry should require learners to answer the key question in paragraph form.

4.2.3.3 Writing Tasks: Paragraph and Essay writing (Informal or Formal Assessment)

One of the key objectives of the curriculum is to be able to present the outcomes of historical enquiry in logical and well-structured written (and oral) forms.

In the FET Phase learners should further develop their writing skills and they should be helped to practise them. By FET learners should have developed the skill of using historical evidence to write sentences in answer to questions and writing longer pieces, such as paragraphs, which involves teaching learners to *select* the information they want to include (i.e. choose what is relevant), and to *arrange* the information in a logical order. In FET learners should be taught to answer argumentative or discursive questions in essay form. This requires that they learn how to *connect* information (to present a reasonable sequence of dates, details, 'facts') and use it as evidence to establish and support an effective line of argument.

Writing frames and strategies such as 'PEEL' can be useful for scaffolding the learning of

paragraph writing and connecting paragraphs to develop a line of argument.

The 'PEEL' method of paragraph writing is as follows:

- Point/Topic sentence
- Explanation
- Evidence
- Linking sentence (either/or back to the question or in longer pieces of writing, to the next paragraph)

In formal assessments, paragraph questions should be allocated 8 marks. Paragraph writing evaluates a range of skills at different cognitive levels including selection, extraction, organisation, evaluation and creation. Paragraphs must be written in full sentences and paragraph form.

LEVEL 1	• Uses evidence in an elementary manner • Uses evidence partially or cannot write a paragraph	**MARKS:0-2**
LEVEL 2	• Evidence is mostly relevant and relates to a great extent on the topic • Uses evidence in a very basic manner to write a paragraph	**MARKS:3-5**
LEVEL 3	• Uses relevant evidence • Uses evidence very effectively in an organised paragraph that shows an understanding of the topic	**MARKS:6-8**

NB: In addition to the rubric, the memorandum (marking guidelines) for formal assessment tasks should include a model answer to a paragraph question.

Essay Writing (Narrative and Argumentative)

When constructing essay questions teachers should use the topic focus suggested by the key questions and suggestions for the integration of content with historical concepts that are made for every topic. Writing an essay could be the end result of an enquiry-based lesson sequence in which learners have studied a topic and analysed a variety of historical source material relating to a key question.

Essays must have a formal structure that includes

- An introduction, which contextualises the question, and establishes a line of argument in answer to the question;
- a main body, organised into paragraphs which develops an argument. Each paragraph represents an idea. The line of argument must form a thread throughout the essay;
- a conclusion which aligns with introduction and body and concludes the line of argument. Credit will be given for this structure

- When answering essay questions, learners should explain or evaluate the validity of a statement if required to do so.
- Through essays, teachers should assess learners' ability to demonstrate and communicate a thorough knowledge and understanding of the topic. Learners should use relevant information and interpretations to answer the question.
- Learners should:
    - plan and structure an essay
    - use evidence to support an argument
    - develop and sustain a well-balanced and thoroughly substantiated line of argument; and
    - write logically and coherently, either chronologically or thematically depending on the essay question.

Marking Argumentative Essay Questions

- Teachers must be aware that the content of the answer will be indicated as a synopsis in the marking guidelines; however,
- learners may incorporate additional relevant content to answer the essay question to that given in the marking guideline, and
- learners may develop a line of argument, with a relevant introduction and/or conclusion other than those included in a specific essay marking guideline for a specific essay.

Global assessment of essays[5]

	LEVEL 7	**LEVEL 6**	**LEVEL 5**	**LEVEL 4**	**LEVEL 3**	**LEVEL 2**	**LEVEL1**
PRESENTATION **CONTENT**	Well-planned and structured essay. Good synthesis of information. Developed an original, well balanced and independent line of argument with the use of	Well-planned and structured essay. Relevant line of argument. Evidence used to defend the argument.	Well-planned and structured essay. Developed a clear argument. Conclusions drawn from evidence. Independent conclusion. Evidence used to support the	Planned and constructed an argument. Evidence used to support argument. Conclusions reached based on evidence.	Shows some evidence of a planned and constructed argument. Attempts to sustain a line of argument. Conclusions not clearly supported by	Attempts to structure an answer. Largely descriptive, or some attempt at developing and argument.	Little or no attempt to structure the essay.

[5] Typesetter and layout designer will have to design a horizontal table.

	evidence, sustained and defended the argument throughout.		conclusion.		evidence.		
LEVEL 7 Question has been fully answered. Content selection accurate and fully relevant to line with argument.	47 - 50	43 - 46					
LEVEL 6 Question has been answered. Content selection accurate and relevant to the line of argument.	43 - 46	40 - 42	38 – 39				
LEVEL 5 Question answered to a great extent.	38 - 39	36 - 37	34 – 35	30 – 33			

Content adequately covered, mostly accurate and relevant.							
LEVEL 4 Question is recognisable in answer. Some inaccuracies, omissions or irrelevant content selection.			30 – 33	28 – 29	26 – 27		
LEVEL 3 Content selection does relate to the question, but does not answer it, or does not always relate to the question. Many inaccuracies in content and omissions in coverage.				26 – 27	24 – 25	20 - 23	
LEVEL 2 Question inadequately addressed.					20 – 23	18 - 19	15 – 17

Sparse and/or inaccurate content.							
LEVEL 1* Question inadequately addressed or not at all. Mostly inadequate, inaccurate or irrelevant content.						15 - 17	0 – 13

Guidelines for allocating a mark for Level 1*:

• Question not addressed at all/totally irrelevant content; no attempt to structure the essay = 0

• Content selection includes basic and generally irrelevant information; no attempt to structure the essay = 1– 6

• Question inadequately addressed and vague; little attempt to structure the essay = 7–13

Marking of Narrative Essay Questions

In the Senior Phase and in Grade 10 mid-year exams learners must write narrative essay of approximately 1-1½ sides (c.400-500 words) in answer to questions beginning '**describe' or 'discuss'.**

Gr 7 = 10 **Gr 8 = 15** **Gr 9 = 20**	**5-7**	**3-4**	**2**	**0-1**
Gr 10 = 25	**7-8**	**4-6**	**3**	**0-2**
	LEVEL 4	**LEVEL 3**	**LEVEL 2**	**LEVEL 1**
CRITERIA 1 **STRUCTURE**			Has an introduction, body of paragraphs, and a conclusion	Is missing an introduction, conclusion or a body of paragraph
CRITERIA 2 **SELECTION**	Only relevant and accurate information has been selected for inclusion	Mostly relevant and accurate information has been included. Occasionally irrelevant or inaccurate information has been included	Some relevant and accurate information has been included. Some irrelevant or inaccurate information is included	Little to no relevant and accurate information has been included. Much irrelevant or inaccurate information has been included
CRITERIA 3 **ARRANGEMENT**	All information arranged in logical chronological or thematic order	Information has been arranged in logical (chronological or thematic) order to a large extent	Some information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order	Little or no information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order

CRITERIA 4 **USE OF HISTORICAL terminology and CONCEPTS**		To a large extent historical terms and concepts have been used accurately	To some extent historical terms and concepts have been used accurately	Few or no historical terms and concepts have been used, or have been used inaccurately

4.2.4 Research Projects

Research projects are undertaken by learners in the GET and FET. They are an opportunity for the learners to **develop and practice the skills of historical enquiry,** beginning with the framing of research questions. They then move on to finding and analysing relevant source material (textual, material culture, images, digital, landscape, oral etc.), prior to structuring a coherent response to the research question in the final presentation.

Suggestions for GET research projects

Gr 4 (Bio-poem), Gr 6 (Ancient Egypt), Gr 9 (History of Education-oral history project).

Grade 4:

Topic 1: Personal History

Grade 6:

Topic 3: Egypt

Grade 9:

Topic 2: The implementation of segregationist policies in South Africa: Education from the 19th century to the late 20th century

Suggestions for FET research projects

The research project in FET could focus on different aspects of **Historical Culture** through the exploration of **heritage** sites, events or people of local interest. Research questions could be constructed to explore issues of changing or **contemporary forms in which past events are represented** e.g. memorials, but also film, music, art. Research projects are also an opportunity to research more complex issues in contemporary South Africa which are legacies of the past.

Teachers may also take as their focus an **appropriate content topic** in Section 3 for a more in-depth study. Research projects should not, however, be used as an alternative to teaching in class.

Alternatively, the research projects could take as their focus an appropriate content topic in Chapter 3 of the document for a more in-depth study. For example,

Grade 10:

Topic 2: Achievements of African People since Ancient Times

Topic 3: Ancient Ethiopia before 1600 C.E. and the use of myths and legends in History as a discipline.

Grade 11:

Topic 2: Europe comes into contact with the wider world in the period from the 16th to 19th centuries.

Topic 3: Slavery, Slave resistance and the Haitian Revolution.

Grade 12

Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the late 19th and 20th centuries

Topic 2: The National Question in South Africa: The Formation of the National Party, the African National Congress and Communist Party of South Africa in the early 20th century.

4.2.5 Tests and Examinations

Tests and examinations should cover a substantial amount of content. Refer to the Programme of Assessment and examination guidelines. Tests and examinations must be completed under strictly controlled and supervised conditions. Each test and examination must cater for a grade appropriate range of cognitive levels.

4.2.6 Scaffolding Assessment Tasks

The quality of learners' work depends on the care with which their tasks and questions are set. They should be given precise and detailed instructions to tell them what they must do and where they can find the information they need. It is often a good idea to break down big questions into a number of smaller sub-questions and procedural steps (scaffolding). Clear timeframes and due dates should be given for projects.

4.2.7 Plagiarism

Plagiarism (using someone else's work and pretending it is one's own) is a particular problem, whether it involves someone else doing the work, copying another learner's work, or cutting and pasting from the Internet. It is essential that learners be taught to indicate their sources whenever they quote something or find different or controversial information. They should be shown how to compile their references. Likewise, teachers need to set learners an example by always giving the references for information and sources they use in their teaching materials and show learners how materials in textbooks have been referenced. To avoid plagiarism teachers should change their assessment tasks, including research projects, annually.

4.3 ASSESSMENT GUIDELINES AND EXAMINATION FRAMEWORK

The programme of assessment is designed to spread formal assessment tasks in a school throughout the term.

GRADE	TERM	FORM OF ASSESSMENT	TYPE OF QUESTION	TERM CONTENT	MARKS
4	1	Task - Creative Response	Design a poster and include pictures from the maternal and paternal families. (20 marks) Write a short poem or totem (5 marks)	Term 1	25 Marks
	2	Mid-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 1	10 Marks
			Source-based questions (10 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 2	15 Marks
					25 Marks
	3	Project	Research to find out where your family or relatives come from. (25 marks).	Term 3	25 Marks
	4	End-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 3	10 Marks
			Source-based questions (10 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 4	15 Marks
					25 Marks
5	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (25 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 1	30 Marks
	2	Mid-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 1	10 Marks
			Source-based questions (15 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 2	20 Marks
					30 Marks
	3	Project	Research and write a short piece about the history of one type of food, how it is eaten, and the events when it is normally cooked	Term 3	30 Marks
	4	End-year examination	Source-based questions (10 marks)	Term 3	10 Marks
			Source-based questions (15 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 4	20 Marks
					30 Marks
	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 1	40 Marks

6			and Paragraph writing (5 marks)		
	2	Mid-year examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 1	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (20 and Paragraph writing (5 marks).	Term 2	25 Marks
					40 Marks
	3	Project	Research the role of the Nile River.	Term 3	40 Marks
	4	End-year examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 3	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 4	25 Marks
					40 Marks

GRADE	TERM	FORM OF ASSESSMENT	TYPE OF QUESTION	TERM CONTENT	MARKS
7	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (45) marks) and paragraph writing (5) marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 1	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (30) marks) and Paragraph writing (5) marks)	Term 2	35 Marks
					50 Marks
	3	Task - Research and Role Play	Research on two periods (20 marks each period) Role Play – a character of one leader from the categories (10 marks)	Term 3	50 Marks
	4	End--Year Examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 3	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (10 marks)	Term 4	35 Marks
					50 Marks
	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (44) marks) and paragraph writing (6 marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 1	35 Marks
			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (15 marks)	Term 2	40 Marks
					75 Marks
	3	Task - Creative Response	Design a poster about the living and working conditions created by the indentured and migrant labour system. Write an essay to explain the above (50 Marks).	Term 3	50 Marks

8	4	End - year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 3	35 Marks
			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (15 marks)	Term 4	40 Marks
					75 Marks
9	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (44) marks) and paragraph writing (6) marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 1	35 Marks
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Essay writing (20 marks)	Term 2	40 Marks
					75 Marks
	3	Project	Research on Gender and Human Rights	Term 3	50 Marks
	4	End -year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 3	35 marks
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Essay writing (20 marks)	Term 4	40 marks
					75 Marks

Grade 10

In the mid-year examination, the learners are expected to write a narrative essay in the exams. However, at the end-of-year examination the learners will be required to write an argumentative essay.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	2	Standardised Test	100	60%	20
2	3	Heritage Assignment	50	40%	20
	4	Mid-year Exam	100	60%	20
3	5	Source-Based or Essay	50	40%	10
	6	Standardised Test	100	60%	20
	SBA Mark				100 (40%)
4		End-of-year examinations (One Paper)			150 (60%)

Grade 11

All the essay questions are argumentative.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10

	2	Standardised Test	100	60%	20
2	3	Research	50	40%	20
	4	Mid-year Examinations	200	60%	20
3	5	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	6	Standardised Test	100	60%	20
	SBA Mark				100 (40%)
4		End-of-year examinations (Paper 1 and 2)			300 (60%)

Grade 12

All the essay questions are argumentative.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based and Essay	100	25%	10
	2	Standardised Test	100	75%	10
2	3	Research	100	25%	20
	4	June Examinations	300	75%	20
3	5	Source-based and Essay	100	25%	10
	6	Preparatory Examinations	300	75%	30
	SBA Mark				100 (25%)
4		End-of-year examinations (Paper 1 and 2)			300 (75%)

Grade 12

MID-YEAR AND END-OF-YEAR EXAMINATIONS	
Examination	**Marks**
Grade 12: **Two papers mid-year:** Two papers of 3 hours and two topics from each paper to be covered by June; four questions set in each paper: Two essays and two source-based questions; learners answer three questions, one essay, one source-based question and one from either essay or source-based on each paper.	300

Two papers at the end of the year: The Grade 12 exam has two papers of three hours each. The mark allocation will be 150 for each of the question papers. • Questions are set on all sections. Both question papers consisted of 6 questions each, SECTION A and SECTION B. • SECTION A consists of THREE (3) source-based questions. Candidates are required to answer at least ONE SOURCE-BASED question (compulsory theme) in each question paper. • SECTION B consists of THREE (3) essay questions. Candidates are required to answer at least ONE ESSAY question (compulsory theme) in each question paper. • In total, candidates were required to answer THREE questions, which were as follows: ✓ ONE (1) source-based question (compulsory theme) and ONE (1) essay question (compulsory theme). The third question can be either a source-based question or an essay question. ✓ Topic 2: The National Question in South Africa: The Formation of the National Party, the African National Congress and the Communist Party of South Africa in the Early 20th Century **[COMPULSORY]** ✓ Topic 4: The Era of the Liberation Struggles and the Politics of Apartheid South Africa on the African Continent **[COMPULSORY]**	300

4.4 MODERATION OF ASSESSMENT

Moderation refers to the process that ensures that the assessment tasks are fair, valid and reliable. Moderation should be conducted internally at school and/or externally at district, provincial and national levels. Given that the promotion of learners in the FET includes the SBA (which contributes 25%); the moderation process should be intensified to ensure that:

- learners are not disadvantaged by invalid and unreliable assessment tasks
- quality assessment is given and high but achievable standards are maintained.

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Section 2	Page Number	Issue	Challenge	Recommendation
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Section 4	Page Number	Issue	Challenge	Recommendation

Summary of Recommendations & Comments:

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