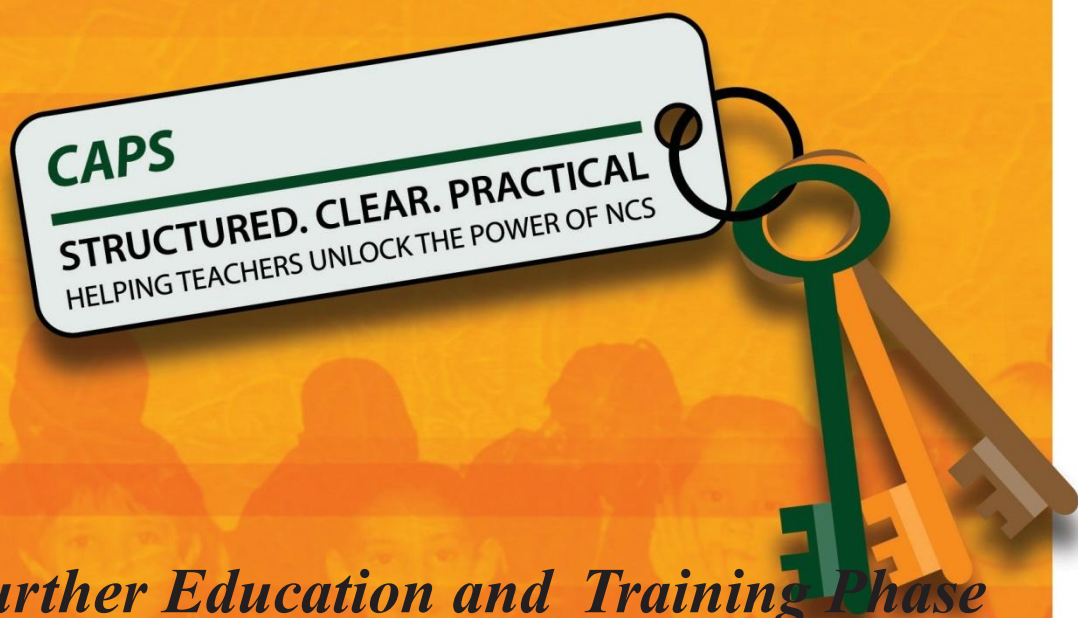


National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

*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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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	6 (1) (2) (2)	6 (1) (2) (2)	7
<input type="checkbox"/> Beginning Knowledge	(1)	(1)	(2) (2) (2) (1)
<input type="checkbox"/> Creative Arts			
<input type="checkbox"/> Physical Education			
<input type="checkbox"/> Personal and Social Well-being			
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	4
<input type="checkbox"/> Creative Arts	(1,5) (1) (1,5)
<input type="checkbox"/> Physical Education	
<input type="checkbox"/> Personal and Social Well-being	
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 <u>Annexure B, Tables B1-B8</u> 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.

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.

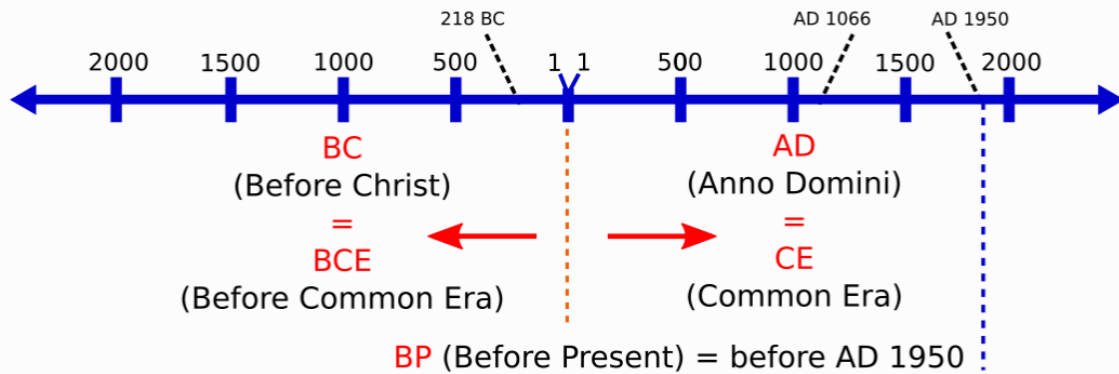
In ancient Egypt, the first day of the year coincided with the appearance of Sirius on the eastern horizon just before sunrise and the flooding of the Nile at Memphis. The Zulu people also used the moon and stars to keep track of time. The season of cultivation was announced by the *isilimela*, the star 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).

BC - BCE and AD - CE Terms



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.

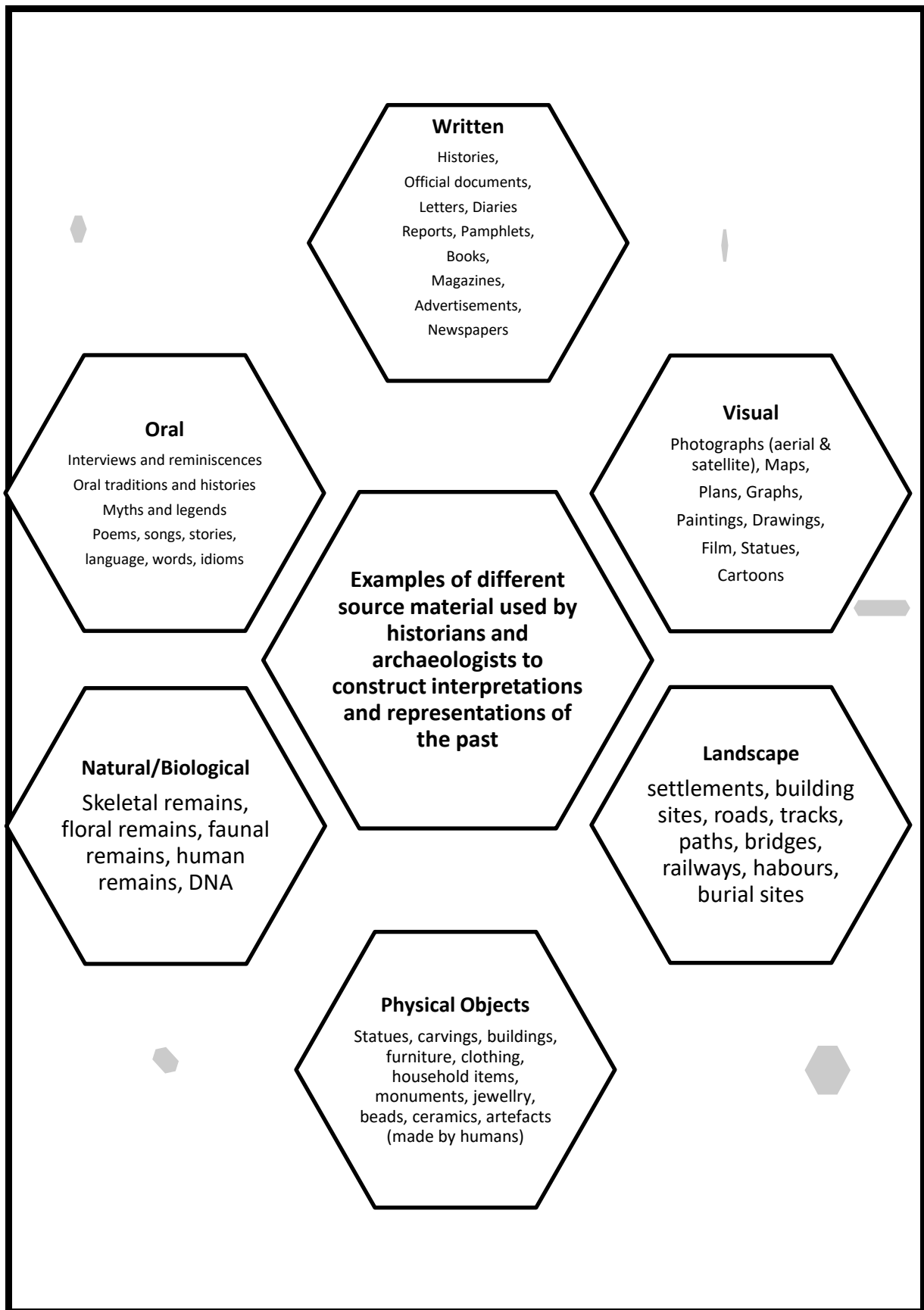
Interpretations of the past are arrived at after sifting through all the available evidence. However, these interpretations may differ because the record is incomplete, or the historian has a particular viewpoint or focus that they want to develop (for example, economic or environmental history, the 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.



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 historiography), 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.

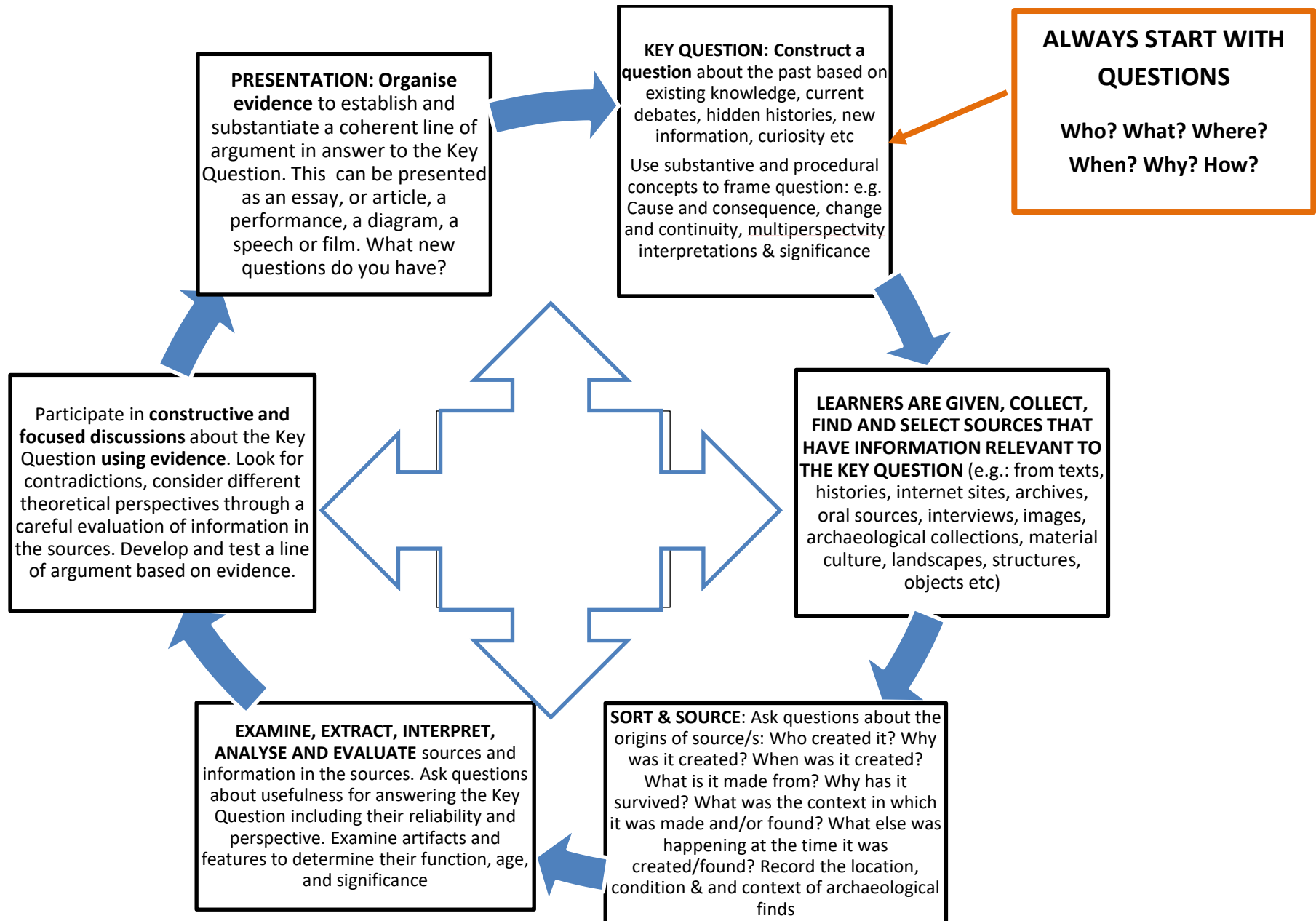
Studying history at school involves hearing and reading stories about the past, but it also involves learning about how those stories were constructed and how they have changed over time. Through explicit teaching, history learners will develop the thinking tools to evaluate all historical source material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



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:

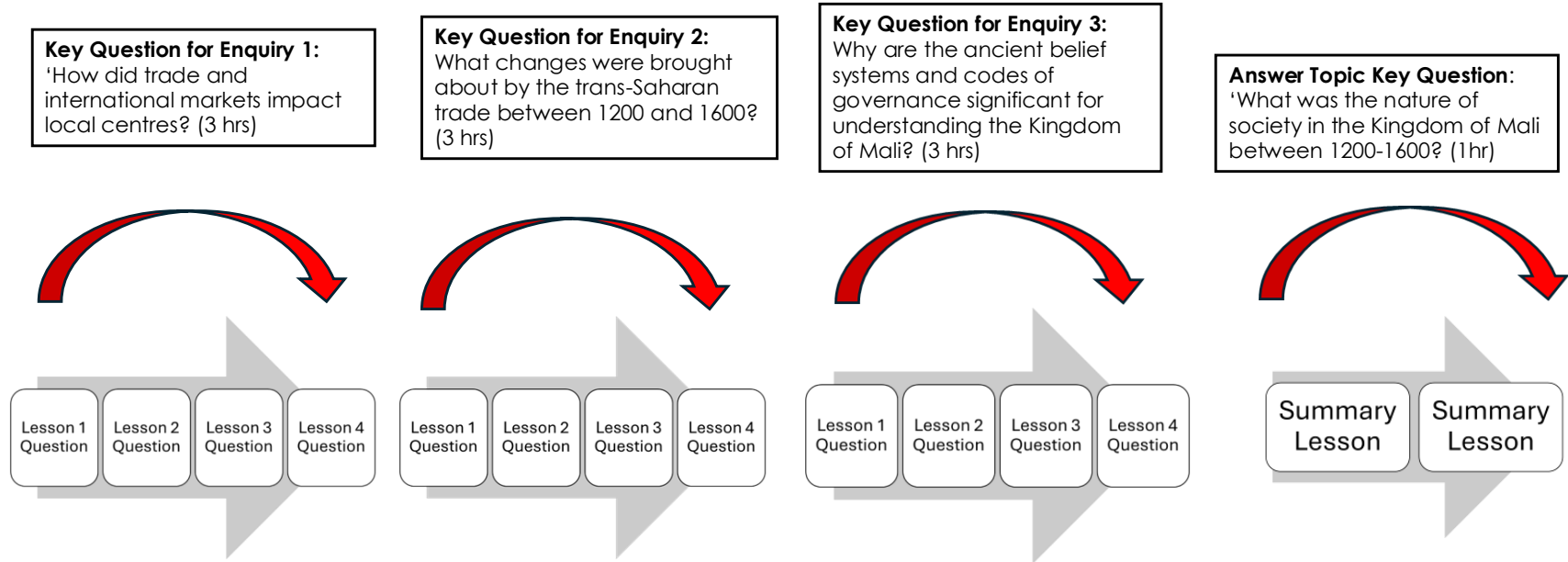
- 1) 'How did trade and international markets impact local centres?' (3 hours)
- 2) What changes were brought about by the trans-Saharan trade in the period from 1200 to about 1600? (3 hours)
- 3) Why are the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (in that particular society) significant for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

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
<p>How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?</p> <p>Learners will be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 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 19 th and 20 th century?	Suggested contact time: 5 weeks (20 hours)
How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process? The learner should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 <u>race</u> and nationalism became primary factors. (Change and Continuity) • Recognise the lasting impact of capitalism in the <u>racially-based</u> 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	
<p>Key Questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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? 	<p>Suggested contact time: 20 Hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?</p> <p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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). 	
<p>Overview of Topic</p> <p>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.</p>	

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

- 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)

**Suggested contact time:
20 Hours**

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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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 <i>mihrab</i> survive. In Timbuktu, the architect built another</p>	

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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 <p>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.</p> <p>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</p>	

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	
<p>Key Question</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How has African ingenuity been demonstrated • What contributions have Africans and people of African descent made to humanity throughout the world? <p>(NB: These key questions above are not suggested exam questions, they serve merely as guidelines to navigate through the content)</p>	<p>Suggested contact time: 32 Hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?</p> <p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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). 	
<p>Overview of topic</p> <p>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.</p>	
<p>Focus</p> <p>The teacher should introduce discussion on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The complex relationship between history and heritage (1 hour) • African advances in science and technology: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>mathematics</i>: ancient Egyptians and the development of Mathematics; Ishongo people in the Congo and development of abacus (for counting). ▪ <i>medicine</i>: African knowledge of medicinal value of different types of plants and influence on modern medical practice; knowledge of surgery ▪ <i>mining and iron-smelting</i>: 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?

Grade 11: Term 1	
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)	
Key Question How did the Spanish and Portuguese explorations impact on the wider world during the 15 th to 18 th centuries?	Suggested contact time: 20 hours
How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process? The learner should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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). 	
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	

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)	
<p>Key Question:</p> <p>How did the Dutch and English voyages of 'discovery' impact on the wider world in the period between the 16th and 19th centuries?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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? 	<p>Suggested contact time: 20 hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?</p> <p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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) 	
<p>Overview of topic</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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-</p>	

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	
<p>Key Questions:</p> <p>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?</p> <p>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?</p>	<p>Suggested contact time: 32 hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?</p> <p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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) 	
<p>Overview of topic</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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</p>	

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	
<p>Key Questions:</p> <p>Compare and contrast the multiple factors which influenced the formation of centralised states by various African societies.</p> <p>How have different historians accounted for the formation of bigger, more centralised polities in southern Africa during the late 1700s and early 1800s?</p>	<p>Suggested contact time: 20 hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?</p> <p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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). 	
<p>Overview of topic:</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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).</p> <p>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,</p>	

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?	
<p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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). 	
<p>Overview of topic:</p> <p>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?</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>Focus</p> <p>The teacher should introduce discussion on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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	
<p>Key Question:</p> <p>How did imperialism and industrialisation affect South Africa in the late 19th and 20th centuries?</p>	<p>Suggested contact time: 20 hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process?</p> <p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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). 	
<p>Overview of topic:</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p>	

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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <p>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</p>	

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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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 Cote 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 FNL; South Africa supported Jonas Savimbi of UNITA; and Cuba and the USSR supported Agostinho Neto of the MPLA.	
Focus The teacher should introduce: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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	
<p>Key Question:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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? 	<p>Suggested contact time: 20 Hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and the historical enquiry process? The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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). 	
<p>Overview of topic:</p> <p>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> <p>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.</p> <p>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.</p> <p>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,</p>	

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 SOMAFSCO 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <p>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.</p> <p>This topic focuses on the debates around the negotiation process between the ANC and</p>	

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.

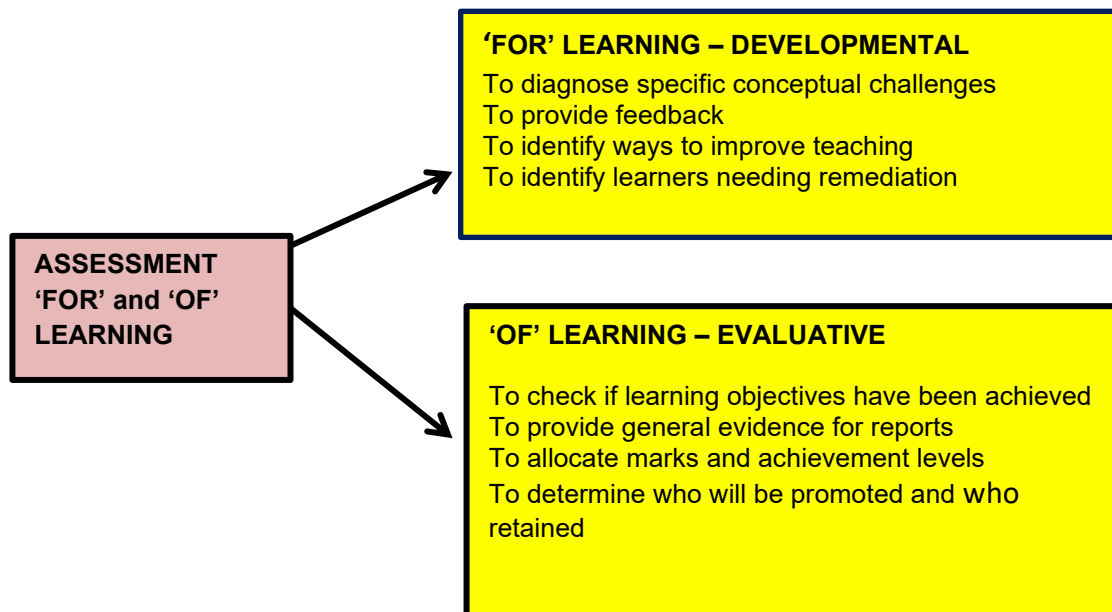
All assessment tasks should reflect adequate curriculum coverage in terms of content, concepts and skills at grade-appropriate cognitive levels and should be appropriate for learners' age and developmental level. In assessing subject knowledge, teachers will be evaluating the learner's ability to achieve 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)

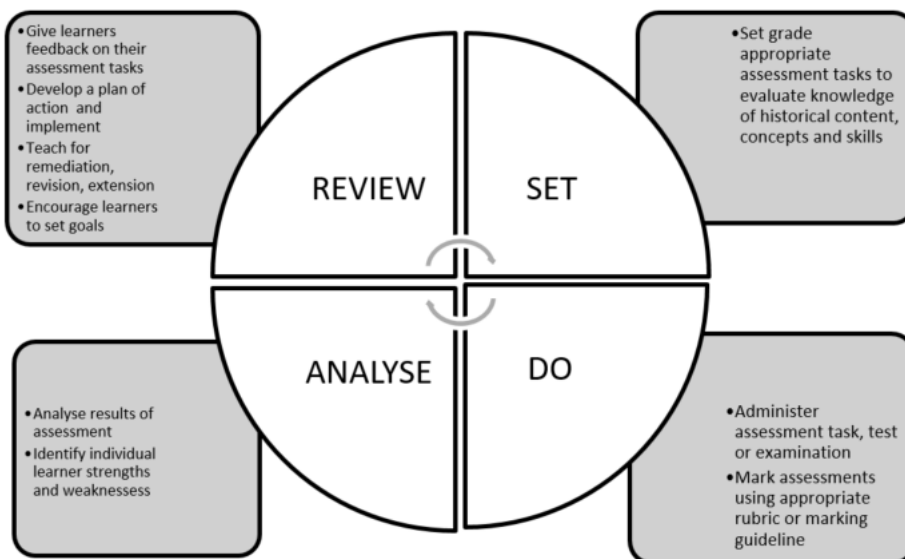
When assessment is used to record a judgement of the competence or performance of the learner it serves a summative purpose. Formal assessment provides teachers with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a grade and in a particular subject.

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

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 historical enquiry process? The learner should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 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) 	

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

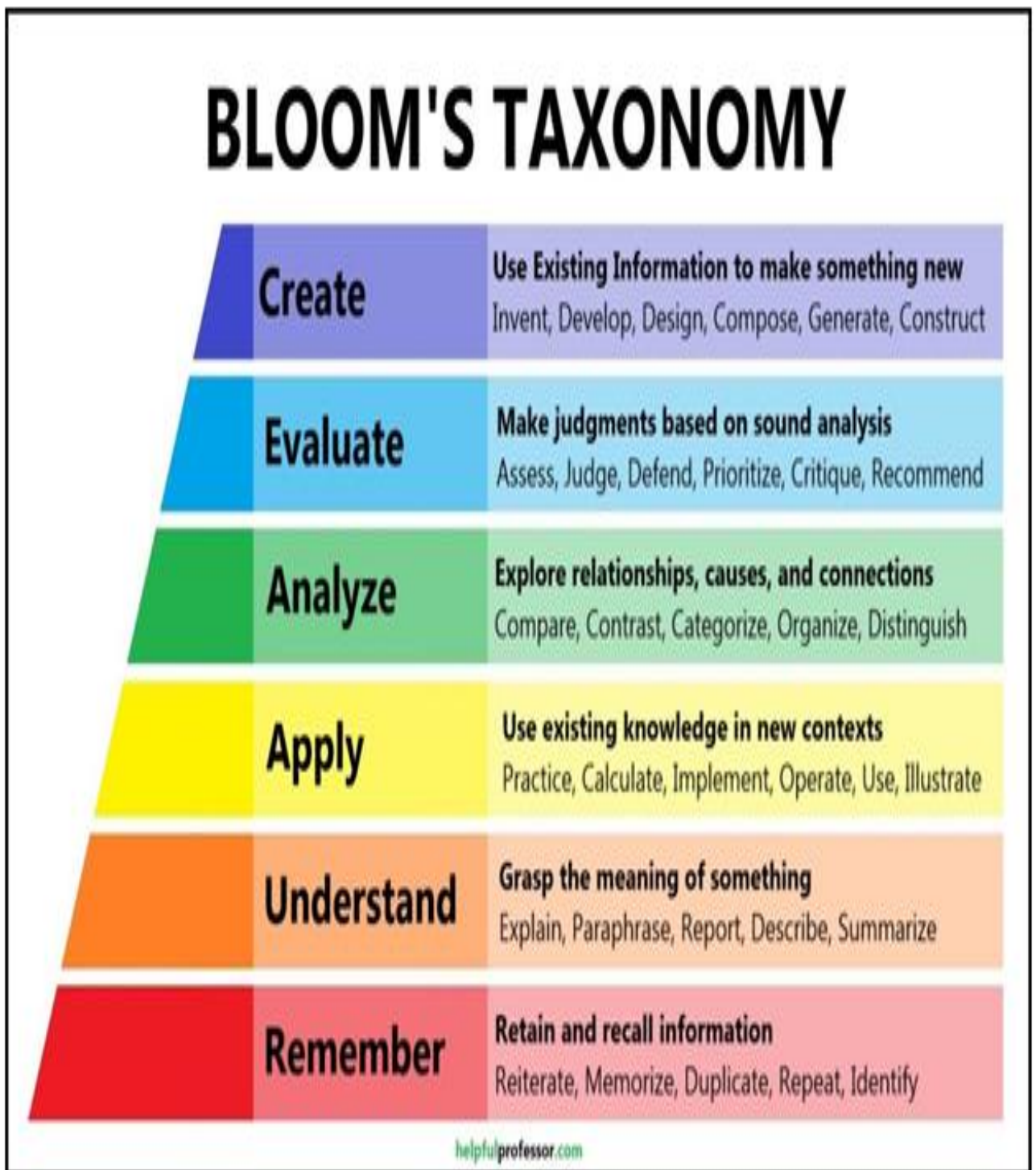
	LEVEL 1	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 3
Grade 4	40 %	40 %	20 %
Grade 5	40 %	40 %	20 %
Grade 6	40 %	40 %	20 %
Grade 7	35 %	40 %	25 %
Grade 8	35 %	40 %	25 %
Grade 9	35 %	40 %	25 %
Grade 10	30 %	40 %	30 %
Grade 11	30 %	40 %	30 %
Grade 12	30 %	40 %	30 %

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	Define	Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the key features and characteristics of the period studied	Questions that demonstrate knowledge
	Understanding	Identify		What can you tell us about ...?
	Knowledge	List	Understand and recognise the range of sources of information available for studying the past	Recount information about ...
		Name		Using your own knowledge ...
		State		Questions that demonstrate comprehension of provenance (origins)
		Select	Extract information from source material to answer a question	Who wrote/created this source?
		Quote	Extract information about the origins and context of a source	When was this source written/created?
		Describe		Where was it found/published/distributed?
		Discuss		Questions that demonstrate comprehension/understanding
		Illustrate		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 ...

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	<p>Evaluate and use historical sources to answer questions and make substantiated judgements about past events and processes, in the context of historical events studied.</p> <p>Evaluate the usefulness of sources for answering questions about the past including their reliability, stereotyping and subjectivity</p> <p>Recognise that there is often more than one perspective of a historical event</p> <p>Explain why there were and are different interpretations of historical events and processes</p> <p>Participate in constructive and focused debate through the careful evaluation of historical evidence</p> <p>Organise evidence to substantiate an argument, to create an original, coherent and balanced piece of writing</p>	<p>What conclusion can be drawn from the source about ...</p> <p>Explain reasons why the interpretations might differ?</p> <p>With reference to their origin and purpose of the source, assess the value and/or limitations of ...</p> <p>With reference to the author's perspective, what might be limitations to the source's accuracy regarding ...</p> <p>Evaluate the sources' usefulness for answering a given question considering their provenance (origins), purpose and limitations</p> <p>Evaluate the significance of ... on ...</p> <p>Use source materials from multiple sources to create a representation of the events ...</p> <p>Assess the reasons why ...?</p> <p>Evaluate the contribution made by x to y?</p> <p>Assess the impact of ...</p> <p>Evaluate the importance of</p> <p>Account for the differences regarding In the two sources</p> <p>Using information gathered from relevant sources and your knowledge, write a paragraph explaining /evaluating /critiquing...</p> <p>Evaluate the relative significance of</p>



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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Uses evidence in an elementary manner ● Uses evidence partially or cannot write a paragraph 	MARKS:0-2
LEVEL 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● 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 essays⁵

	LEVEL 7	LEVEL 6	LEVEL 5	LEVEL 4	LEVEL 3	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 1
PRESENTATION	Well-planned and structured essay. Good synthesis of information.	Well-planned and structured essay. Relevant line of argument.	Well-planned and structured essay. Developed a clear argument.	Planned and constructed an argument. Evidence used to support argument.	Shows some evidence of a planned and constructed argument.	Attempts to structure an answer. Largely descriptive, or some attempt at developing and argument.	Little or no attempt to structure the essay.
CONTENT	Developed an original, well balanced and independent line of argument with the use of	Evidence used to defend the argument.	Conclusions drawn from evidence. Independent conclusion. Evidence used to support the	Conclusions reached based on evidence.	Attempts to sustain a line of argument. Conclusions not clearly supported by		

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	5-7	3-4	2	0-1
Gr 8 = 15 Gr 9 = 20				
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

<p>CRITERIA 4</p> <p>USE OF HISTORICAL terminology and CONCEPTS</p>		<p>To a large extent historical terms and concepts have been used accurately</p>	<p>To some extent historical terms and concepts have been used accurately</p>	<p>Few or no historical terms and concepts have been used, or have been used inaccurately</p>
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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
	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
				Source-based questions (10 marks)	
	4	End-year examination	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
	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
	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
	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	
	3	Project	Research on Gender and Human Rights	Term 3	50 Marks	
					75 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

<p>Two papers at the end of the year:</p> <p>The Grade 12 exam has two papers of three hours each. The mark allocation will be 150 for each of the question papers.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 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: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ 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
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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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