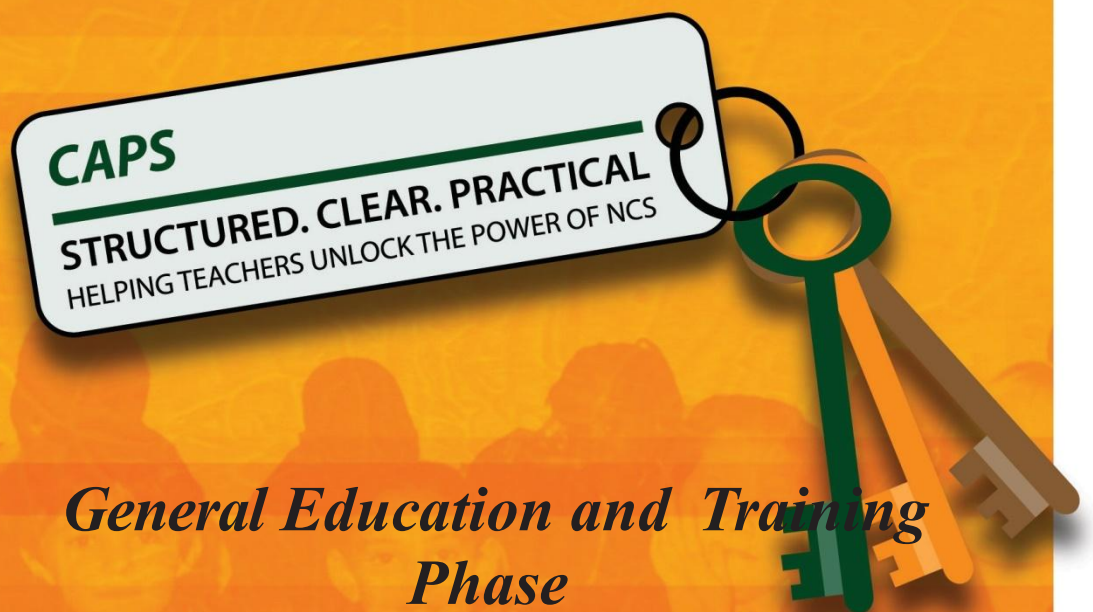


National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

*Curriculum and Assessment
Policy Statement*



*General Education and Training
Phase
Grades 7-9*



basic education

Department:
Basic Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

**CURRICULUM AND ASSESSMENT POLICY STATEMENT
GRADES 7-9**

HISTORY

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FOREWORD

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- (a) Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) for all approved subjects listed in this document;
- (b) National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and
- (c) National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12.

MS SIVIWE GWARUBE, MP

MINISTER OF BASIC EDUCATION

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SECTION 1

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

1.1 Background

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

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

1.2 Overview

- (a) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) represents a policy statement for learning and teaching in South African schools and comprises the following:
- (i) *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for each approved school subject;*
 - (ii) *The policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and*
 - (iii) *The policy document, National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (January 2012).*
- (b) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) replaces the two current national curricula statements, namely the
- (i) *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9, Government Gazette No. 23406 of 31 May 2002, and*
 - (ii) *National Curriculum Statement Grades 10-12 Government Gazettes, No. 25545 of 6 October 2003 and No. 27594 of 17 May 2005.*
- (c) The national curriculum statements contemplated in subparagraphs b(i) and (ii) comprise the following policy documents which will be incrementally repealed by the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (January 2012) during the period 2012-2014:
- (i) *The Learning Area/Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12;*
 - (ii) *The policy document, National Policy on assessment and qualifications for schools in the General Education and Training Band d, promulgated in Government Notice No. 124 in Government Gazette No. 29626 of 12 February 2007;*
 - (iii) *The policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), promulgated in Government Gazette No.27819 of 20 July 2005;*

- (iv) *The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding learners with special needs, published in Government Gazette, No.29466 of 11 December 2006, is incorporated in the policy document, National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12; and*
- (v) *The policy document, An addendum to the policy document, the National Senior Certificate: A qualification at Level 4 on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), regarding the National Protocol for Assessment (Grades R-12), promulgated in Government Notice No.1267 in Government Gazette No. 29467 of 11 December 2006.*
- (d) The policy document, *National policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12*, and the sections on the Curriculum and Assessment Policy as contemplated in Chapters 2, 3 and 4 of this document constitute the norms and standards of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12. It will therefore, in terms of section 6A of the South African Schools Act, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996,) form the basis for the Minister of Basic Education to determine minimum outcomes and standards, as well as the processes and procedures for the assessment of learner achievement to be applicable to public and independent schools.

1.3 General aims of the South African Curriculum

- (a) *The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12* gives expression to knowledge, skills and values worth learning in South African schools. This curriculum aims to ensure that children acquire and apply knowledge and skills in ways that are meaningful to their own lives. In this regard, the curriculum promotes knowledge in local contexts, while being sensitive to global imperatives.
- (b) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 serves the purposes of:
- equipping learners, irrespective of their socio-economic background, race, gender, physical ability or intellectual ability, with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfillment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country;
 - providing access to higher education;
 - facilitating the transition of learners from education institutions to the workplace;
 - and providing employers with a sufficient profile of a learner's competences.
- (c) The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is based on the following principles:
- Social transformation: ensuring that the educational imbalances of the past are redressed, and that educational opportunities are provided for all sections of the population;
 - Active and critical learning: encouraging an active and critical approach to learning, rather than rote and uncritical learning of given truths;
 - High knowledge and high skills: the minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade are specified and set high, achievable standards in all subjects;
 - Progression: content and context of each grade shows progression from simple to complex;

- Human rights, inclusivity, environmental and social justice: infusing the principles and practices of social and environmental justice and human rights as defined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 is sensitive to issues of diversity such as poverty, inequality, race, gender, language, age, disability and other factors;
- Valuing indigenous knowledge systems: acknowledging the rich history and heritage of this country as important contributors to nurturing the values contained in the Constitution; and Credibility, quality and efficiency: providing an education that is comparable in quality, breadth and depth to those of other countries.

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

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

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

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

1.4 Time Allocation

1.4.1 Foundation Phase

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

SUBJECT	GRADE R (HOURS)	RADES 1-2 (HOURS)	GRADE 3 (HOURS)
Home Language	10	8/7	8/7
First Additional Language		2/3	¾
Mathematics	7	7	7
Life Skills	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
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	12 (3x4h)

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

SECTION 2

The essence of the new History Curriculum

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

newspaper articles.

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

What is History and what is School History?

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

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

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

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

Specific Aims of School History

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

Objectives of School History

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

Why archaeology?

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

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

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

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

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

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

Why teach the archaeological past?

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

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

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

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

Why make use of Oral History?

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

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

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

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

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

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

What is Oral History?

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

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

- Oral testimony is an eyewitness or first-hand account of an event or situation which occurred during the lifetime of the person interviewed. The informant tells a story about themselves, about what he or she has seen, heard, or done in the past.
- Oral tradition refers to stories or narratives which have been handed down by word of mouth from one generation to the next and, unlike oral testimonies, are no longer contemporary. There are many different examples – folktales, genealogies ('who begot whom' in the Old Testament), chiefly genealogies, praise songs of past heroes, etc.

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

What makes Oral History different?

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

Types of Oral Interviews

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

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

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

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

- **Structured interview**

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

- **Semi-structured interview**

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

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

Conceptual Constructs in History Education

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

1. Historical thinking

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

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

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

Concepts in History

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

Substantive concepts relate to the events (the 'what') of the past. They are used by historians to bind together events within a period, such as the 'Industrial Revolution' the 'Apartheid era' and the 'Cold War'. They also include concepts used to explain historical processes, such as 'nationalism', 'revolution' and 'colonisation'. The meaning and significance of concepts may be interpreted differently depending on their context.

Procedural concepts are meta-concepts which guide and shape the practice of history (the 'how'). They help us construct enquiry questions, and also assist in selecting, organising and evaluating information from and about the past to construct histories. Procedural concepts only become meaningful when we use them to ask questions about the past.

This School History curriculum identifies five core, procedural concepts

a) Time and Chronology

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

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

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

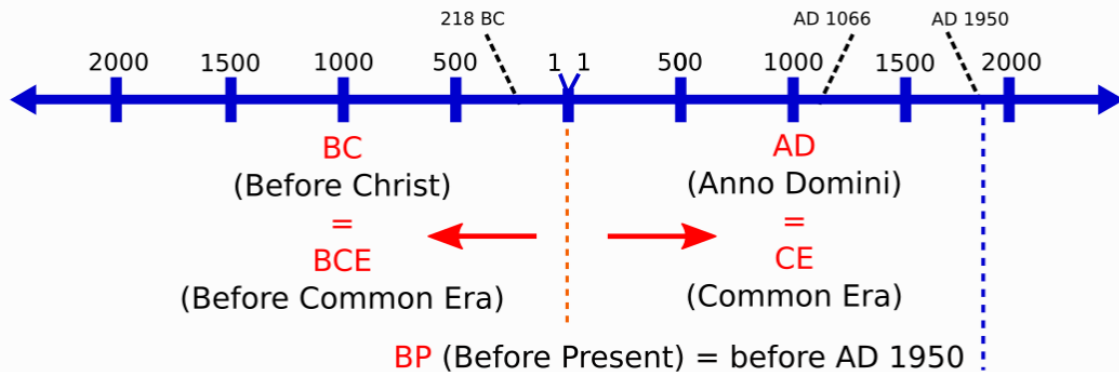
In ancient Egypt, the first day of the year coincided with the appearance of Sirius on the eastern horizon just before sunrise and the flooding of the Nile at Memphis. The Zulu people also used the moon and stars to keep track of time. The season of cultivation was announced by the *isilimela*, the star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

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

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

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

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? (Gr.6)

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

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

c) Cause and Effect

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

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

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

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

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

d) Continuity and Change

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

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

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

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

FET: How did nature and governance of kingdoms change as they become more centralised? (Gr 11)

e) The concept of using ‘multi-perspectivity and interpretations’

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

Working with multi-perspectivity involves:

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

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

IP: Why do names of places and landmarks often have a story linked to them – a local legend or hero – that might be remembered differently by different groups of people? (Gr 4)

SP: How have the roles played by different historical personalities/characters in this period been remembered? (Gr 7)

FET: How have different scholars critiqued claims that ‘tribalism’ is a defining feature of African societies? (Gr 10)

2. Historical Culture

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

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

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

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

Examples of enquiry questions which explore Historical Culture:

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

SP: Why has June 16 become the public holiday, Youth Day' since 1994? (Gr 9)

FET: Evaluate the usefulness and reliability of oral testimonies and traditions captured in written collections of slave narratives for answering questions about the living and working conditions of enslaved people, e.g., Henry Louis Gates Jnr's *Classic Slave Narratives: Biographies and Autobiographies of Former Slaves* (1987). (G11)

3. Historical Consciousness

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

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

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

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

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

Examples of Historical Consciousness in the Curriculum

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

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

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

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

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

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

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

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

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

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

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

Example of a Key Question that develops Historical Consciousness:

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

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

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

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

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

Historical Sources and Evidence

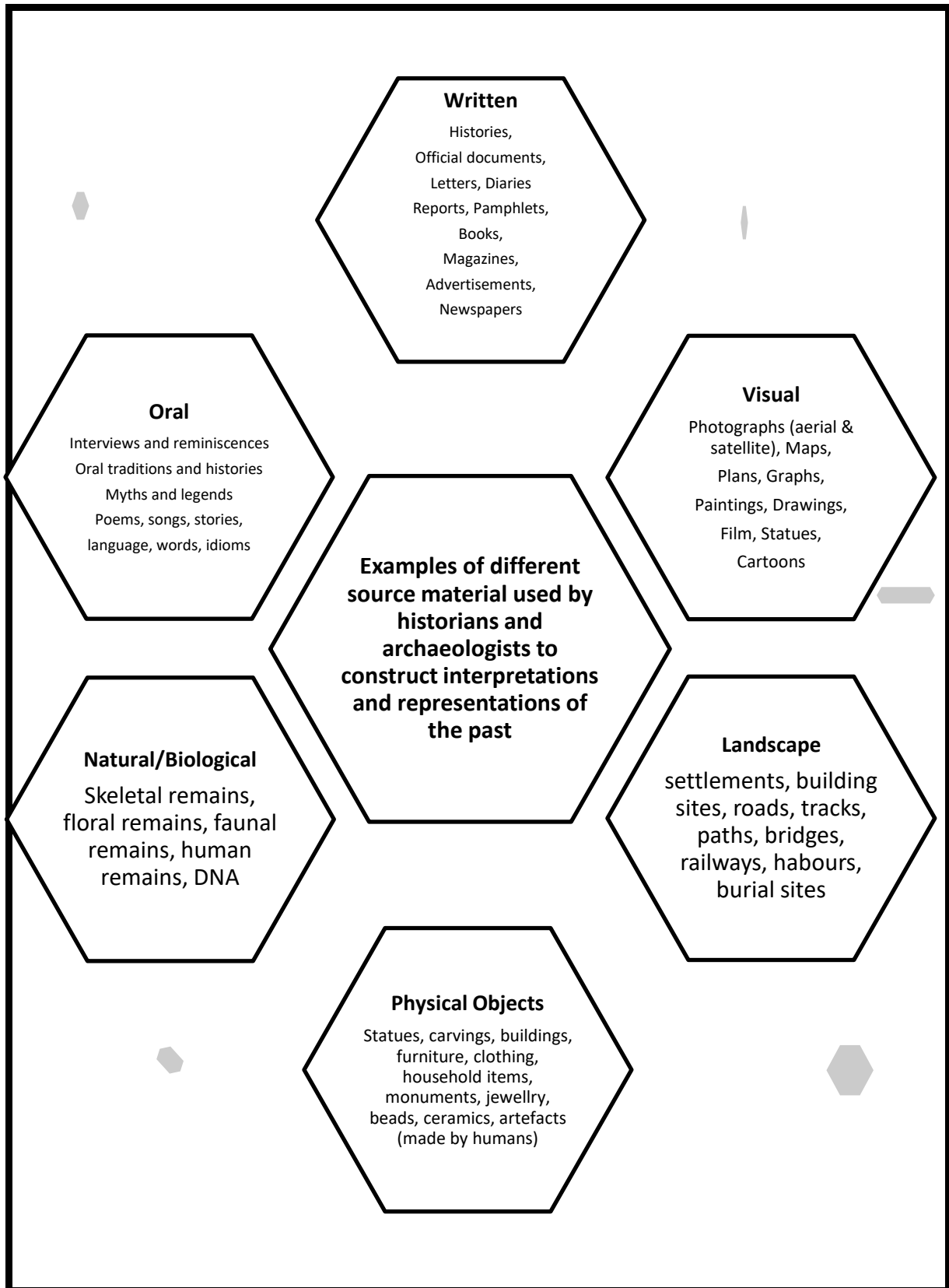
History is not merely ‘the past’. History is a version of the past constructed through a process of asking questions about the past and interpreting and evaluating traces or fragments which survive from the past. In school History, we usually refer to these traces or fragments of the past as ‘sources’.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

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

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

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

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



The Process of Enquiry

'History is a process of enquiry'. Central to the process of constructing histories is to ask questions about the past. To answer these questions, historians study what other historians have already written (as featured in the 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 So What? of the past.

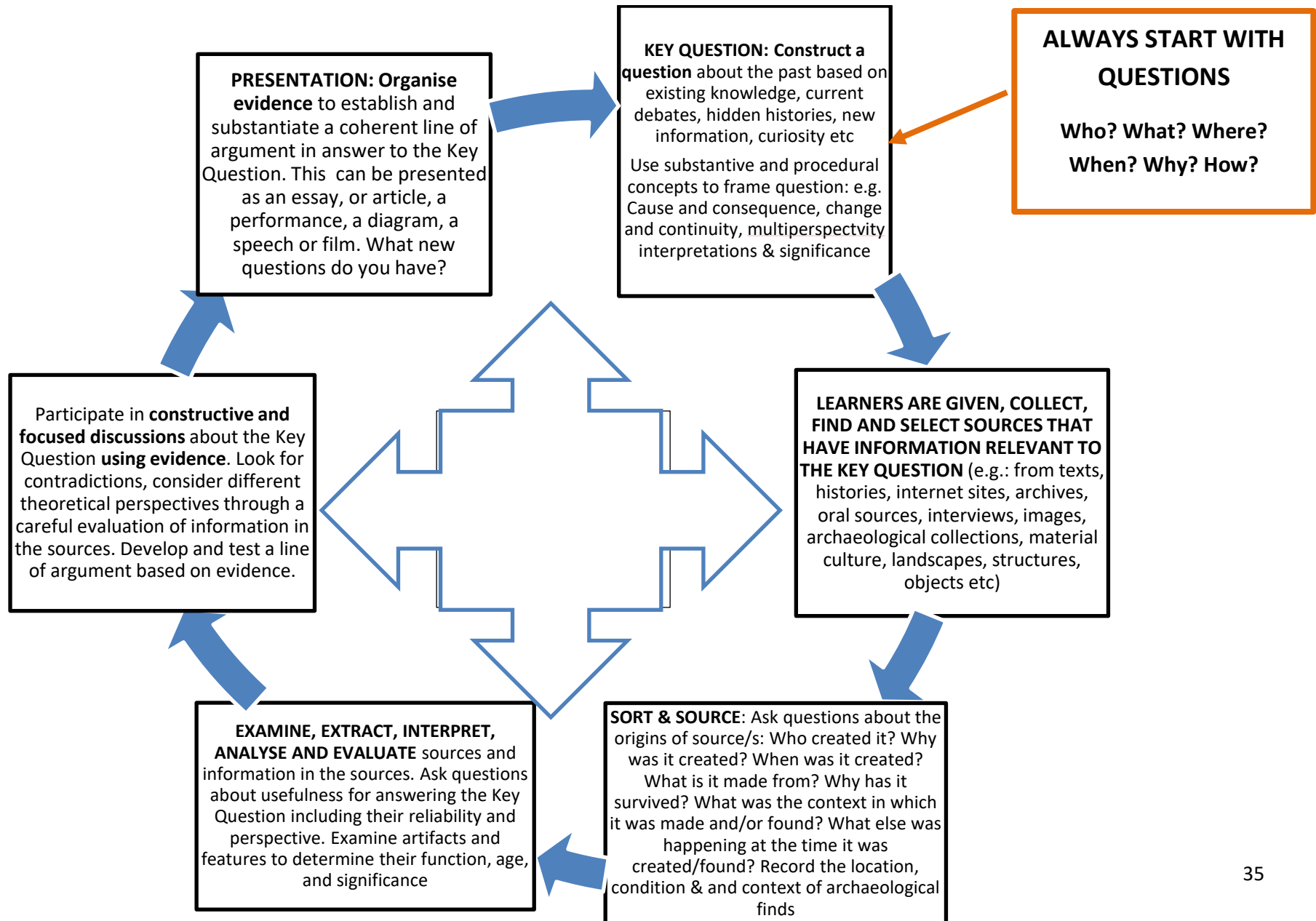
Studying history at school involves hearing and reading stories about the past, but it also involves learning about how those stories were constructed and how they have changed over time. Through explicit teaching, history learners will develop thinking tools to evaluate all historical source material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

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

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

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

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



How content, concepts and enquiry work together in the curriculum

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

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

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

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

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

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

Integration of historical content with concepts in an enquiry process

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

For example:

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

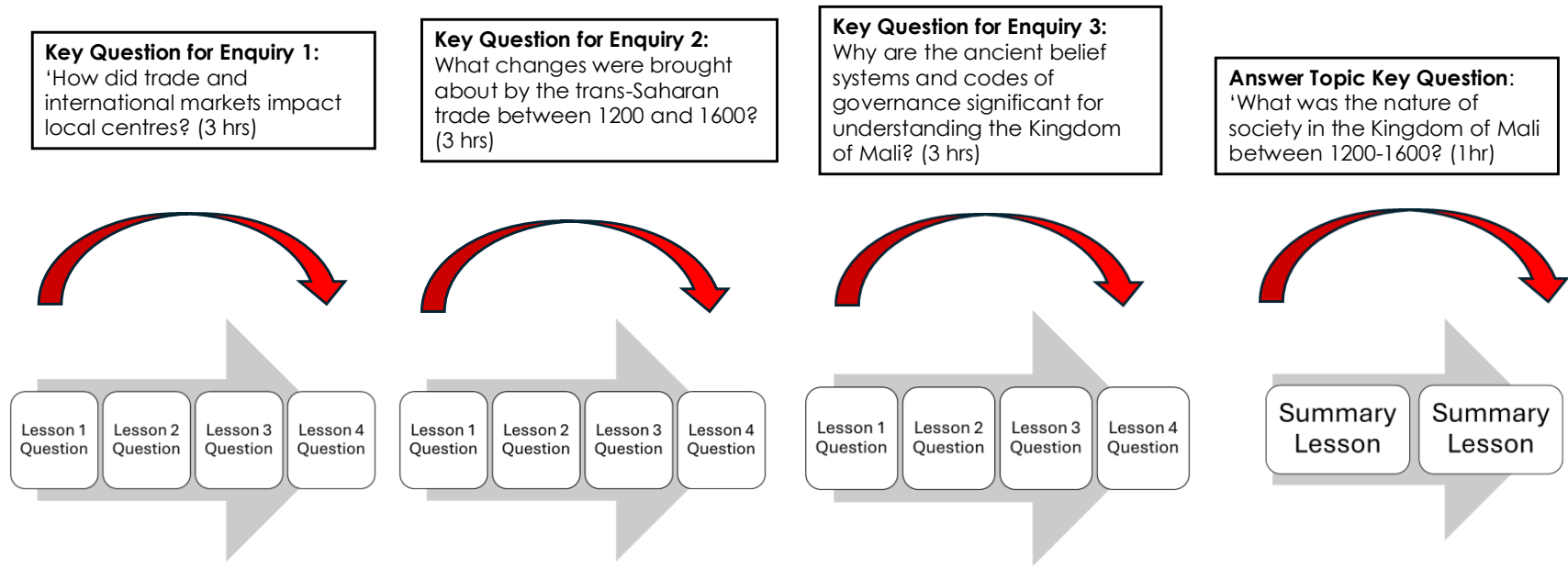
- 1) 'How did trade and international markets impact local centres?' (3 hours)
- 2) What changes were brought about by the trans-Saharan trade in the period from 1200 to about 1600? (3 hours)
- 3) Why are the ancient belief systems and codes of governance (in that particular society) significant for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

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

See for example below:

Grade 6: Term 4	
Topic: : The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu c. 1200- 1600	
Key Question: What was the nature of society in the Kingdom of Mali?	Suggested contact time: 10 hours
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? Learners will be able to: <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 (<u>Multiperspectivity</u>) • 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?

Learning Activities

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

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

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

Working with History after school

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

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

2.5 OVERVIEW OF TOPICS

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

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

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

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

SECTION 3

Grade 7: Term 1	
Topic: International Trade between the Southern African Interior and the Eurasian World (800 – 1600 CE?)	
Key Question: How do we know that southern Africa was connected to global trade networks between 800-1600CE	Suggested Contact Time: 15 hours
How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process: Learners will be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● recognise the nature and kind of evidence for international trade or exchange networks (sources of evidence) ● recognise the significance of sea trade (significance) ● describe changes in the trade centres, routes, goods and local societies over time (change and continuity) ● consider the impact of international trade – what stays the same and what changes in African societies (cause and effect) 	
Overview of topic The Indian Ocean has for centuries enabled a thriving trade between Southeast Asia and the African east coast. It was one of many intercontinental trade routes in global history. Sailors, migrants, and traders relied on the Indian Ocean monsoon winds and traditional sailing vessels known as dhows to travel between coastal cities, ports, and islands. Navigation required a range of maritime skills and instruments that emerged within Chinese and Islamic societies at the time. Archaeological evidence for trade items in southern Africa, along with early documents, provides insight into who was trading and what was being traded between 800 CE and 1600 CE. This evidence shows an extensive exchange of various trade goods within African societies along the coast and into the interior. There was also an unintended introduction of new animals and plants. Over time, the Indian Ocean trade led to the emergence of the Swahili language and culture along the East African coast, as well as other forms of social change. The Shashe-Limpopo basin provides evidence of changes in social structure over this period with the emergence of trading interior societies such as Mapungubwe and Great Zimbabwe. This shows us that Africa was connected with other societies over long distances across the world. The oceans were not barriers but highways of trade and exchange, demonstrating that Africa was not isolated but connected to the rest of the world.	
Focus The teacher should introduce: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● timelines - revise Before Common Era (BCE), Common Era (CE) and Before Present (BP) and place this topic in time. ● the main global sea and land trade routes before 1600CE on a map: Silk Road, Mediterranean Sea, Trans-Saharan Trade Route, Pacific Trade Routes, Indian Ocean Sea Route. Discuss what goods were traded, how they were traded and who was controlling each route. (3 hours)	

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

(3 hour)

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

(5 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

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

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

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

Grade 7: Term 2	
Topic: Precolonial economies of the semi-arid societies from up to the early 1600s	
Key Question: How did sheep and cattle become an important part of the semi-arid societies of southern Africa by 1600 CE?	Suggested contact time: 10 hours
How does this topic integrate concepts and historical enquiry processes:	
The learner will be able to:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognise the ways in which different sources of evidence such as folklore, place names, oral traditions and testimony, archaeology and early Europeans records, portray/ convey history of Khoekhoe and San people (sources of evidence) • Recognise the economies and culture of the semi-arid areas changed with the emergence of livestock herding (change and continuity) • Understand the importance of socio-cultural legacies of San and Khoekhoe cultures in southern African (significance) • Explain how and why some early trade interactions between indigenous people and Europeans were beneficial while others were conflictual (cause and effect) 	
Overview of Topic	
<p>This term focuses on the economic developments in the precolonial societies of the western semi-arid regions of southern Africa from about 2500 years ago to the 1600s. This region is largely in today's Northern Cape, Western Cape as well as part of the North-West, and Eastern Cape provinces. The major change of this period was the incorporation of livestock herding alongside the hunter-gather way of life of the region from 500BCE to 800 CE. In the pre-cattle indigenous cultures, animals such as the eland, praying mantis and others emerged as spiritually important. Over time, sheep and cattle would also become important symbols of culture in southern Africa. Trade networks across the region also provided people with items which they themselves did not make or those which they desired to trade in exchange for their own surplus goods. Some of the items traded with other Africans were copper, iron, ceramic pots, salt, beads and livestock. Between 800CE and 1600CE cattle herding developed as a strong economic pillar of the semi-arid regions. In the late 1400s, indigenous societies began to trade their cattle with European merchant ships along the Cape shores. The trade between indigenous people and the merchant ships between 1480s and early 1600s would result in some benefits but also serious conflicts.</p>	
Focus:	
The teacher should introduce:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Historical overview of San/Bushmen societies of southern Africa: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Explain that there were thousands of years of indigenous social life and culture in southern Africa before cattle, sheep and goats were introduced into the region ○ Establish that diverse San/ Bushmen/ abaThwa societies occupied much of southern Africa for the past 20 000 - 40 000 years including their living descendants today across the country (some still culturally identifiable today e.g clans, lineages and communities in the KwaZulu-Natal Drakensberg areas, Upington, Kimberley, Botswana, Namibia, Lesotho etc) ○ South Africa's national motto which is written in /Xam language and a brief history of /Xam people ○ Scientific and Cultural legacies 	

- Rock art: Depictions of social and economic life, the importance of animals for example, the eland to some San communities and how animal depictions showed a special relationship with certain animals (eland, praying mantis, etc)
- Artistic expression: showing the importance cultural symbols also captured through language, idiom, folklore, mythologies, ornaments/ adornments
- Scientific developments and legacies (technologies and techniques, medicinal, environment and nature)
- Economic production early indigenous societies San/Bushmen before sheep and cattle: Food harvesting, hunting, production, preparation and storage techniques across diverse environmental landscapes

(2 hours)

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

(4 hours)

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

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to

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

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

Mid-year exam to cover Term 1 and 2

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

<p>Key Question:</p> <p>What changes did the colonisation of the Cape bring between the 1650s and 1800s?</p>	<p>suggested contact time:</p> <p>15 hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process:</p> <p>Learners will be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● understand that independent African societies entered into a radically transformational period of political organisation with the arrival of Europeans in the 1600s (time and chronology) ● recognise the processes and events that played a role in causing conflict and transformation of both indigenous and colonial society in this period (cause and effect) ● use biographies/ life histories to understand the lives people in this period (sources of evidence) ● recognise the roles played by different historical personalities/ characters in this period (multi-perspectivity) 	
<p>Overview of Topic:</p> <p>This section focuses on colonisation of the Cape from the 1650s to the 1800s. In this period, independent indigenous societies began to be transformed politically and economically by the growing European presence and settlement in the Cape.</p> <p>New forms of cooperation and conflict emerge in this period when the Dutch East India Company colonised the Cape. New forms of labour, servitude and exploitation emerged which resulted in major destruction of indigenous social structures and the emergence of new classes and identities. This era showed fierce resistance by the San and Khoi against the Dutch in a 100 years' war.</p> <p>Enslaved people from Africa and Asia were brought into the Cape to serve as labour in the growing Dutch settlement. In 1806 the British took over the administration of the Cape Colony and began a campaign to dispossess amaXhosa leading to numerous wars of resistance. In 1820 struggling British immigrants arrived in the Eastern Cape seeking a new life from hardships in Europe. Their arrival further intensified war in the region.</p> <p>Focus</p> <p>The teacher should introduce:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Era of Cape Settlement Growth and Early Khoikhoi and Slave Resistance: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Settlement by the Dutch East India Company led by Jan van Riebeeck and development of refreshment station (planting of wheat, wine etc) ○ Impact and responses of indigenous people e.g Doman, Krotoa, Autshumato etc ○ Introduction of slavery system to the Cape with forcible movement of enslaved people from other parts of Africa and Asia ○ Early wars of Khoi, San and slave resistance in the Cape ○ Destruction of indigenous societies by disease, dispossession and genocide <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Deliberate hunting of San men, abduction of children and forcible labour of women ○ Rise of new society of cultural infusions including early Afrikaans language by enslaved and indigenous people ○ Study the life of an enslaved person in the early Cape colony 	

(4 hours)

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

(4 hours)

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

(4 hours)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

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

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

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

Grade 7: Term 4	
Topic: African Towns and Cities in the Southern African Interior c.1700-1820s	
Key Question: What was the nature of early African cities in the interior of South Africa, c.1700-1800s?	Suggested contact time: 10 hours
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? Learners will be able to: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● recognise different kinds of evidence for early African cities in the interior of South Africa (evidence), ● appreciate that sources of evidence can answer different questions about the past (sources and evidence) ● comprehend the scale of the developments in the interior of South Africa before the arrival of the Europeans (significance) ● recognise the different factors that may have brought these early cities to an end. (cause and effect) 	
<p>Overview of Topic:</p> <p>Many large African farming settlements existed in the southern African interior between the 1700 and early 1800s, at around the same time that the Dutch settlement was growing in the Cape. This history demonstrates that there was no basis for the myth of the empty land that loomed large in the colonial and apartheid histories of South Africa. These included, among others, towns and cities in Johannesburg (Kweneng, Klipriviersberg), Mpumalanga (Bokoni), North West Province (Marothodi, Kaditshwene, Molokwane, Olifantspoort), Free State (Thabeng) and Limpopo (Dzata). These towns and cities thrived under various African leaders and all would decline or collapse for various reasons by the early 1800s. We know about these towns from various forms of archaeological, oral and documentary evidence that tell us what the structures and layout of the towns were, and about the people and their ways of life. These towns were characterised by social stratification, division of labour, specialisations of craft, and having diverse techniques of livestock management and agricultural production.</p> <p>Some of these sites have been reconstructed and form an important part of the heritage of the area. Teachers are encouraged to take the learners to the sites where possible</p>	
Focus	
The teacher should introduce:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● the sites on a map and what they look like currently (LIDAR/Google earth/photographs) ● Identify different parts of the settlement. Consider where the elites lived and why; where the livestock was kept; position of the courts; the fields. <p>(2 hours)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● excavated material – from households and middens. Explore the different kinds of information that can be reconstructed from these artefacts – e.g diet, kinds of wood burnt, metals used and traded, and objects traded from afar like sea 	

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

(4 hours)

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

(3 hours)

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

(1 hour)

Assessment for learning (informal/formative)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

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

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

End of year exam to cover Term 3 and 4

Grade 8: Term 1	
Topic: Mfecane/Difaqane: Indigenous Political and Military Changes in the Pre Industrial Era - 1780s and 1830s	
<p>Key Questions:</p> <p>What was the Mfecane/Difaqane?</p> <p>What were the possible causes of the Mfecane/Difaqane?</p> <p>What military and political changes played a role in the Mfecane/Difaqane?</p> <p>What were the effects of the Mfecane/Difaqane?</p>	<p>Suggested contact time:</p> <p>15 hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry process?</p> <p>Learners will be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • describe aspects of indigenous political systems of the 1700s (time and chronology) • understand varying responses to political change and their impact across the region in this period (cause and effect) • read historical sources and literatures (both colonial and African vernacular), oral traditions and archaeological evidence to understand different perspectives on, and experiences of Mfecane/Difaqane (multi-perspectivity) • explain how Mfecane/Difaqane affected African societies in southern Africa and how it shifted identities (significance; change and continuity) 	
<p>Overview of Topic</p> <p>For centuries before the 1700s, societies inhabiting the southern African region (large and small) were characterised by high levels of complexity of political differentiation, social and political inequalities. The rulers exercised power and domination over their subordinates but there were also relationships of reciprocity between the rulers and the ruled. The era between 1780 and 1830 was one of dynamism and change in southern Africa. Several indigenous states underwent changes in their political and military systems. These dynamics resulted in a period of conflict, migrations and the re-organisation of indigenous states known as Mfecane/Difaqane.</p> <p>This period was shaped by many factors and involved many historical actors. Several kingdoms experienced expansion, others decline, and new types of states would emerge. Furthermore, major military changes occurred in terms of new regiment systems and tactical methods. Guns and horses would make an impact in the way states such as the Griqua asserted themselves.</p> <p>By the time the Mfecane/Difaqane was unfolding, Europeans had been present in the Cape in South Africa for about 150 years and also as hunters and traders in other parts of the country. The Mfecane/Difaqane also coincided with the Industrial Revolution (to be studied in Term 2). The expansion and involvement of Dutch boer settlers in African politics. Further, the demand for ivory by hunters as well as the growing migration of Europeans into South Africa brought about new demands on African resources (e.g control over trade routes, labour raids, demand for land e.g. the political presence of the 1820 settlers shifting political discussion in the Cape). All these 'roads of change' would affect how the Mfecane period unfolded and eventually ended.</p> <p>Many people lived in chiefdoms, which were presided over by chiefs. Chiefdoms</p>	

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

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

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

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

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

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

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

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

Assessment of learning (Formal/Summative)

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

Grade 8: Term 2

Topic: The Industrial Revolution in Europe (1750 – 1900)

Key Question(s) What factors gave rise to the Industrial Revolution in Europe and what was its impact in Britain c.1750s to 1900	Suggested Contact Time: 10 Hours
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry process? The learner should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand why this period was called the 'industrial revolution' (significance) • explain what led to the industrial revolution (cause and effect) • examine the social and economic impact of the Industrial Revolution (Multi-Perspectives) • Understand the long-term significance of the Industrial Revolution (Significance) 	
Overview of Topic <p>The Industrial Revolution that began in Europe in the mid-18th century (i.e., +/-1750s) had far reaching consequences for the world. The industrial revolution was a period in which European economies shifted from localised, craft-based, agricultural economies into machine-driven mass production systems. From the 1760s, major changes in production led to the emergence of large urban manufacturing centres especially in Britain which began to produce goods at large scale using innovations such as the spinning jenny, the steam engine. Coal, iron and steel became major drivers and inputs in the manufacturing processes.</p> <p>The industrial revolution grew out of the prior East Indies era of merchant shipping, the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, and some key development in politics, science and philosophy. The expansion of European merchant companies in the spices, opium and slave trade created profits for re-investment into the early industrialising Europe. It also allowed European companies to be well positioned in key parts of the world of which they could take advantage as rapid industrialisation unfolded.</p> <p>Producing cloth became faster and required less human labour. European merchants began to seek out new markets and new resources for the production and sale of their goods. The emerging merchant and capitalist class used their political and economic power to control markets. Mills and later factories began producing textiles (cloths), steel and iron products, consumables, coal, and many other goods that were in demand as urban populations, new lifestyles and tastes began to expand.</p> <p>Many people moved out of the small towns and rural areas and moved into crowded cities. Conditions in the cities and industrial workplaces were poor and inhumane. Labour conditions were highly exploitative including child labour (e.g., chimneysweeps, miners, machine operators). Working class movements emerged and new political ideas challenging the power of industrialists and the capitalist system as a whole became a force in European politics.</p> <p>The new demand for resources and labour would lead European powers to expand their imperial ambitions around the world and compete intensely to control colonial terrains. This led to the Scramble for Africa by the 1880s. The industrial revolution also spread across the world through the expansion of other innovations such as the telegraph and later, the emergence of electricity.</p> Focus The teacher should introduce: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the Industrial Revolution in Britain and greater Europe (from 1750s) (1 Hour) 	

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

Assessment for learning

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

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

Formal assessment

Mid-year exam to cover Term 1 and 2

Grade 8: Term 3	
Topic: Minerals Revolution and Industrialisation in South Africa (1860s – 1910)	
Key Question: What were the consequences and significance of modern mining and industrialisation on economic, social and political life in southern Africa?	Suggested Contact Time: 15 Hours
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes? The learner should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand the emergence of modern sugar and mining industries in South Africa (Significance) • describe how migrant labour evolved over time into a cheap labour system in southern Africa (Time & Chronology) • explain how land dispossession and taxation in the latter part of the 19th century forced Africans to take up wage labour in the emerging mining towns (Change and Continuity) • understand how and why indentured labourers were brought from India and China to South Africa (Significance) 	
Overview of Topic <p>By the middle of the 19th century, the British Empire extended throughout many regions of the globe and embraced more than a quarter of the world's population. The industrial revolution in Europe galvanised British colonisation in southern Africa. Against the background of large-scale industrialisation, the needs of the British industrial economy (manufacturing and maximisation of profit) became the force that propelled the British imperialist project, which in turn profoundly reshaped the lives of the people in the colonies and mobility (both voluntary and coerced) within and between colonies. The establishment of the sugar plantations in the British colony of Natal and African resistance against wage labour in the region facilitated the importation in the 1860s of indentured labourers from India, another colony under the British Empire. Out of their hardships of subjugation and arduous labour on sugar plantations, many of these indentured labourers returned to India once their contracts expired while some stayed on in South Africa where they adapted and made a decent living for their families as well as contributed to the culture especially in Natal.</p> <p>In order to retain political independence, the rulers of African polities (e.g., the Pedi under Sekhukhune I/Thulare in 1840s and 1850s), whose sovereignty was threatened by the encroaching Boers who were making demands of labour and land on them in the 1840s and 1850s, took advantage of the emerging colonial capitalist economy by sending their young men at first to work in the Cape Colony and to use their wages to purchase firearms needed back home to defend their communities. The Transvaal Boer Republic (ZAR) was established in 1852; since the establishment of the Boer Republic, many African communities in the Transvaal experienced no peace, including the Kekana Ndebele of Mokopane, leading to the Siege of 'Makapansgat' of 1854, and the annihilation of The Maraba Ndebele in Polokwane in 1868.</p> <p>The development of mining economy enabled these societies to acquire firearms nearby without having to embark on the very long and arduous journeys to the Cape. It also allowed societies affected by drought and livestock diseases to accumulate wealth and replenish livestock (e.g., migrants from Mozambique). The compounds in which these mineworkers lived were more like prisons and the living conditions were appalling. The beginnings of modern mining in diamonds in the 1860s and gold in the 1880s in South</p>	

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

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

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

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

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

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- define the concepts of indentured labour and migrant labour systems

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

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)**Task: Creative Response:****Grade 8: Term 4****Topic: Global Interconnectedness: South African War, First World War, the Spanish Influenza**

<p>Key Question: How is global interconnectedness demonstrated by the events of the South African War, First World War & Spanish Influenza?</p>	<p>Suggested contact time: 10 Hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process? The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand how and why different groups of people in South Africa came to be involved in or affected by these three major events (Cause and Effect) • describe how these events affected political and economic developments in South Africa (Significance) • explain the long-term effects of the South African War, the First World War and the Spanish Flu (Time and Chronology) • appreciate the interconnectedness of human society globally (Significance) 	
<p>Overview of Topic</p> <p>World shattering events occurred during the first twenty years of the 20th century. They began with the South African War (which used to be called the Anglo-Boer War), between 1899 and 1902. This war attracted world-wide sympathy for the Boers who were fighting against the British Empire over economic resources (land and minerals). Until more recently, the impact of this war on black people had not received close attention. Informed by their own motives, some black people sided with the Boers whereas others created alliances with the British. The black people, like their Boer counterparts, that were held in concentration camps were subjected to cruel treatment and oppression by the British. Yet with the signing of the Peace Treaty of Vereeniging in 1902, the Boers and the British reconciled while blacks were left out in the cold.</p> <p>Another significant event that signified the degree of interconnectedness of the world was the outbreak of the First World War (1914-1918). Caused by European imperialism, South Africa was almost immediately drawn into this global conflict on the side of the British empire. However, the opposition, made up mainly of Afrikaner nationalists were opposed to participation in the war. Black people also participated in the First World War as loyalists expecting to be treated more favourably after the settlement of the war. Examples include Indians (e.g., Gandhi) and Africans who served in various non-combatant roles such as couriers, suppliers, stretch bearers, etc. The sinking of the S.S. Mendi where more than 600 African soldiers drowned, serves as clear evidence of the Black participation in the First World War. The Peace Treaty of Versailles (1918) resolved that German South West Africa (Namibia) be a colony of South Africa.</p> <p>The third major event that demonstrates the interconnectedness of the world was the outbreak of the Spanish Flu (January 1918 to December 1920). This global pandemic spread rapidly around the world, decimating at least 50 million people worldwide, and it was brought to South Africa by both black and white soldiers returning home after the war.</p> <p>The significant events chosen during this period for both South Africa and world history, demonstrate South Africa's shared links to societies around the world.</p>	

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

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

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

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

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

End of the Year Examination to cover Term 3 and 4

Grade 9: Term 1	
Topic: Pseudo-Science, Racism and the Entrenchment of Social Inequalities during the Nineteenth Century	
<p>Key Questions: Why and how was pseudo-science used to entrench racial segregation and social and political inequalities during the nineteenth century?</p> <p>How have technology and recent scientific discoveries refuted pseudo-scientific racism?</p>	<p>Suggested Contact Time: 15 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 history of classifications that led to pseudo-scientific racism (Time and Chronology) • understand that scientists are part of society and how science can be used to shape ideas and prejudices in society (Cause and Effect) • appreciate that there are different ways of classification (Multi- perspectivity) • consider how ideas of race were used differently (Change and Continuity) • understand the significance of technological advances in refuting pseudo-scientific racism (Significance) 	
<p>Overview of Topic</p> <p>Humans have always come to terms with the natural world by classifying things, including humans. These classifications were usually based on visual differences like skin colour and are used to justify prejudice, social and economic differences. This pseudo-science became a tool to underline racism, colonialism and eugenics. They were applied quite aggressively in different colonial settings in north and south America, New Zealand, Australia, the Indian sub-continent and Africa, including southern Africa.</p> <p>This section of the curriculum explores the rise of racial segregation and scientific racism on the back of the industrial revolution in Europe and during the era of colonialism between the mid-19th and the first half of the 20th century. It unpacks the theories of Social Darwinism and Eugenics to the social inequalities which emerged as a result of the industrial revolution and its subsequent application in southern Africa. Scientific discoveries in the mid-20th century like techniques for dating and DNA refuted scientific racism.</p>	
<p>Focus</p> <p>The teacher should introduce:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • early scientific classification systems (e.g., Linnaeus, Broca, Galton) and how they were used to justify racism and eugenics (2 Hours) • the concepts Social Darwinism , scientific racism and eugenics (2 Hours) • how scientific classification was implemented in Europe, the Holocaust (2 Hours) • how scientific racism was used to promote and develop colonialism (Germans, British, etc.) – e.g., the fascination of Europe with Africans (Khoi and San, Nama and Herero, Sara Baartman) - the role of museums in racism heritage (3 Hours) 	

- Nuclear Age – recent discoveries such as unstable isotopes, e.g., radiocarbon dating and its impact such as the shifting of perspectives on Africa as the “Cradle of Humankind” (3 Hours)
- DNA Age-Where does humanity originate? The power of controlling DNA (3 Hours)

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- understand the early scientific classification systems and how they relate to scientific racism and eugenics
 - describe scientific racism and eugenics
 - discuss the implementation of scientific racism in Europe
 - understand the relationship between scientific racism and the promotion and development of racism in southern Africa
 - understand how technological advances during the Nuclear and DNA Age refute pseudo-scientific racism
- Historical records and testimonies of (Khoi & San stories) in the Cape conquest
 - Debate (human genome- genetic modification to create a perfect human- is it ethical?)
 - Oral discussions
 - Source analysis and interpretation (e.g. cartoons, photographs, maps, newspapers, historical novels, etc.)
 - Role play
 - Paragraph and Essay writing

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

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

Grade 9: Term 2	
Topic: The implementation of segregationist policies in South Africa: Education from the 19th century to the late 20th century	
Key Question(s): To what extent was education employed as a tool to keep the people in South Africa divided along racial and ethnic lines from the early 1900s to the early 1990s?	Suggested Contact Time: 10 Hours
How does this topic integrate with historical concepts and enquiry processes?	
The learner should:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand how the forms of education provided in 'South Africa' changed with the advent of colonialism in the 19th century and the segregationist and apartheid system in the 20th century (Time and Chronology) • recognise that the introduction of racially segregated schooling resulted in widespread resistance (Cause and Effect) • recognise that Western education in 20th-century South Africa was not only racially but also ethnically segregated (Change and Continuity) • understand the different views on the role of education in society (Multiperspectivity) • recognise the lasting impact of the system of segregated education on society today (Significance) 	
Overview of Topic	
<p>Prior to European colonisation, Africans in southern Africa had their own forms of highly structured system of education through which the youth, both male and female, were socialised and educated through initiation practices for their future roles as productive and responsible citizens, as well as for manhood, fatherhood, womanhood and motherhood. Considering the sensitivities, initiation needs to be discussed without violating the sacred aspects, there are the aspects where the community participates. There are sacred and secret parts and there is the public side so that learners understand that there is 'sacredness'. Initiation has also a lot as it has been affected by colonisation and mission education. In some places initiation was associated with heathenism and those who converted to Christianity stopped practicing traditional rites. However, the advent of European colonialism created divisions within African societies, with Christian converts, by-and-large abandoning initiation practices and adopting 'Western' formal schooling. In fact, the missionaries from the various Christian denominations were in charge of black schools.</p> <p>With the formation of the Union government in 1910, education became formally segregated in line with the segregationist policies of the time. While the state fully provided funding for white education in the four provinces, African schooling remained the prerogative of missionaries and the schools received conditional funding mostly in the form of teachers' salaries. After the National Party came to power in 1948, Bantu Education, which was a system of cheap mass education intended to prepare Africans for a subordinate position politically, socially and economically, was introduced in 1953 and implemented in 1955. There was, however, substantial opposition to this system, particularly from highly politicised teachers some of whom resigned from their posts while others were expelled. Education for people classified as Coloureds and Indians was also segregated in line with state policy. This system was extended to tertiary institutions, with the introduction of the Black Universities Act in 1959.</p> <p>While there was early resistance against Bantu Education from the moment of its inception, the 16 June 1976 Soweto students' uprising is perhaps the most well-known</p>	

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

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

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

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- understand how precolonial forms of education in South Africa changed with the advent of colonialism in the 19th century
 - recognise continuities between missionary and segregationist education in terms of the racial divisions of the students
 - understand the role that apartheid education played in reinforcing racial separation as well as ethnic divisions among black people in general, and the African community in particular
 - recognise that Bantu Education was intended to produce semi-skilled cheap labourers and submissive and subservient citizens
 - explain how the students became agents of change by rebelling against a racially segregated education system, paving the way for a non-racial education system in 1994
- Oral testimonies and oral traditions
 - Archival sources: National Archives; Cillie Commission report on the 1976 Soweto student uprising;
 - Museums: Hector Pietersen Museum; Apartheid Museum
 - Debate / Oral discussions / Roleplay
 - Source analysis and interpretation (e.g., cartoons, photographs, maps, newspapers)

Formal assessment

Mid-year exam to cover Terms 1 and 2

Grade 9: Term 3	
Topic: Gender and Human Rights: Women, Women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910s – 1960s	
<p>Key Question: How did the experiences of African women in the rural areas from the early 1900s shape their political awareness and militancy both in the cities and in the rural areas up to the 1960s?</p> <p>How did black women (African, Coloured and Indian) generally in urban and rural areas demonstrate militant politics up to the 1960s?</p>	<p>Suggested contact time: 15 Hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with history concepts and enquiry processes?</p> <p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand why women migrated from the rural reserves and white farms to the urban areas over time between the 1910s and 1960s (Time and Chronology) • understand how the harsh experiences of African women in the rural reserves and towns shaped their political awareness and militancy (Cause and Effect) • understand the different perspectives and interpretations as to why women became involved in the struggle against racial segregation and apartheid (Multiperspectivity) • recognise changes and continuities in the position of women in society both in the rural areas and urban towns in the period between the 1910s and 1960s (Change and Continuity) • understand the role of women in the struggles against racial segregation and apartheid (Significance) 	
<p>Overview of topic:</p> <p>As a result of land dispossession and the intensification of the migrant labour system, African women were left behind in the rural areas by men who went to work on the mines and other industries in the emerging towns and cities. In this process, rural women had the sole responsibility for crop production, livestock farming and the upkeep of their rural households. They also looked after the elderly, the children and the infirm. The turn of the 20th century also witnessed rapid economic decline and poverty in the rural areas following the intensification of land dispossession and natural disasters such as drought and rinderpest. Despite the widespread opposition from African chiefs and elders, the economic pressures still forced African women to join men streaming to the urban areas as well. As more and more African women arrived in the towns and cities in search of employment, the white authorities tightened influx control laws and imposed measures that prevented them from migrating and being employed in towns. These developments brought about militancy amongst sections of African women who rejected attempts to limit their movement. These assumed the form of women's protests in Bloemfontein against the authorities' plan to introduce passes for women in 1913. This marked the beginning of conscious mobilisation of women in the struggle against segregationist and later apartheid policies. These struggles produced some of the most prominent women leaders such as Mannya-Maxeke, Bertha Mkhize, Helen Suzman, Amina Cachalia, Ida Mntwana, Ruth First, Annie Silinga, amongst others.</p>	

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

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

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

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

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

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding can be demonstrated by learners being able to:

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

- Oral testimonies and traditions;

- Debate

- Oral discussions

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

- Role play

- Paragraph and Essay writing

Assessment of Learning (formal/summative)

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

Grade 9: Term 4	
Topic: World War II (1919 - 1945)	
Key Questions: Why the Weimar Republic failed as a democracy, the rise of Nazi Germany, the outbreak of World War II in Europe?	Suggested Contact Time: 10 Hours
How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process?	
<p>The learner should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • understand the ending of the First World War and the rise of the Weimar Republic (Time and chronology) • understand the implications of the Treaty of Versailles its impact on Germany (Cause and Effect) • understand why different countries chose sides in the context of the World War II (Multiperspectivity) • recognise that the end of the World War II has left a lasting legacy (Change and Continuity) • recognise the lasting impact of the World War II on the international community to this day (Significance) 	
<p>Overview of Topic:</p> <p>In 1918, Germany signed the Treaty of Versailles, ending the First World War. The stipulations of the treaty saw German losses of territory, namely in the Saar Valley and Alsace-Lorraine, as well as the reparations Germany would have to pay for destruction of property and occupation. These, among others, were keenly felt by the German people as unfair and punitive. The amount Germany was forced to pay resulted in economic hardships such as hyperinflation, leaving the Germany economy in ruins. . In January 1919, a new democratic constitution for Germany was drawn up. It became known as 'The Weimar Republic.' During the worldwide economic crisis of the Great Depression in the 1930s, many people lost faith in liberal democracy and countries across the world turned to authoritarian regimes. In Germany, resentment over the terms of the Treaty of Versailles was intensified by the instability of the German political system, as many on both the Right and the Left rejected the Weimar Republic liberalism. The most extreme political aspirant to emerge from that situation was Adolf Hitler, the leader of the Nazi Party. The Nazis took totalitarian power in Germany from 1933 and demanded the undoing of the Versailles provisions</p> <p>During the interwar period, deep anger arose in the Weimar Republic over the conditions of the 1919 Treaty of Versailles, which punished Germany for its role in World War I with heavy financial reparations and severe limitations on its military that were intended to prevent it from becoming a military power again. The demilitarisation of the Rhineland, the prohibition of German unification with Austria, and the loss of its overseas colonies as well as some 12% of its pre-war land area and population all provoked strong currents of revanchism in German politics.</p> <p>During the worldwide economic crisis of the Great Depression in the 1930s, many people lost faith in liberal democracy and countries across the world turned to authoritarian regimes. In Germany, resentment over the terms of the Treaty of Versailles was intensified by the instability of the German political system, as many on both the Right and the Left rejected the Weimar Republic liberalism. The most extreme political aspirant to emerge from that situation was Adolf Hitler, the leader of the Nazi Party. The Nazis took totalitarian power in Germany from 1933 and demanded the undoing of the Versailles provisions.</p> <p>Throughout Europe, Jews had experienced discrimination for hundreds of years. They were often treated unjustly in courts or forced to live in ghettos. One reason for this persecution</p>	

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

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

Focus

The teacher should introduce:

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

Assessment for learning (informal or formative assessment)

Understanding could be demonstrated by learners being able to:

- explain the terms of the Treaty of Versailles and the rise of the Weimar Republic
 - describe the effects of the Great Depression and the failure of the Weimar Republic
 - discuss the rise of the Nazi Party and its aggressive foreign policy
 - explain the causes for the outbreak of World War II
 - understand the creation of extermination camps and genocide – the Holocaust
- Debate – genocide (creation of extermination camps resulting in the Holocaust)
- Oral discussions / Role play / Source analysis and interpretation (e.g. cartoons, photographs, maps.)
- Paragraph and Essay writing

Assessment of learning (formal/summative)

End of year exam to cover Term 3 and 4

CHAPTER 4: ASSESSMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

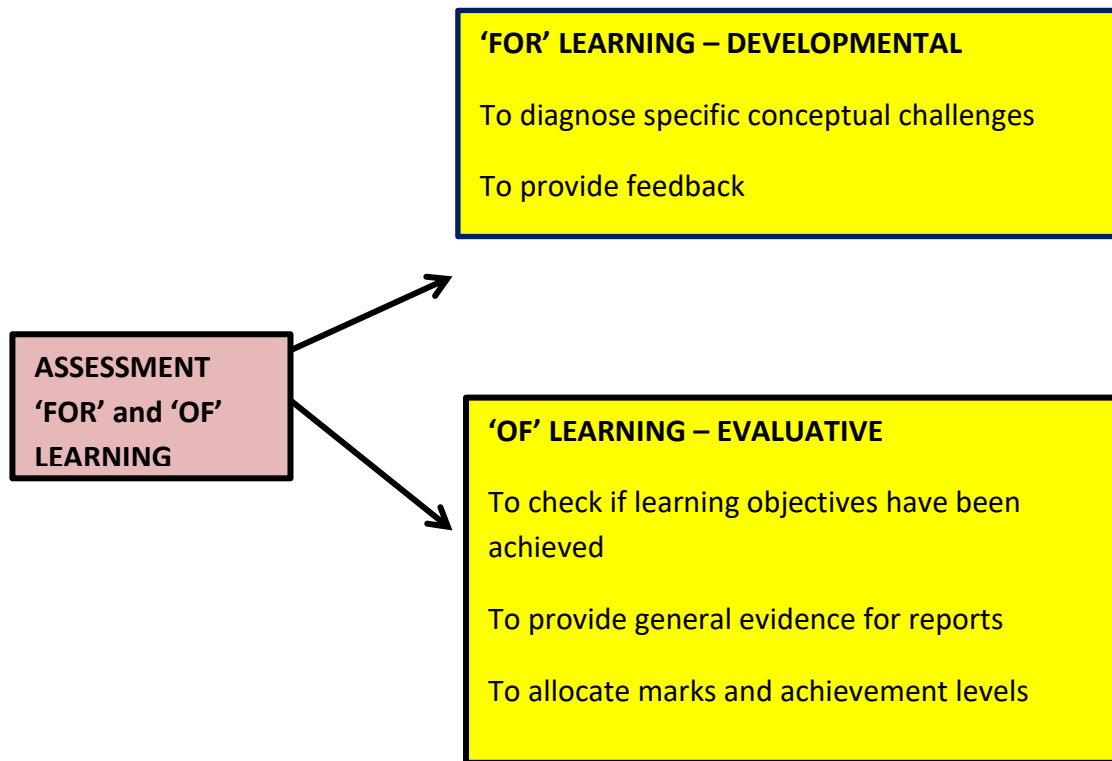
Assessment is a continuously planned process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information regarding the performance of learners. It involves four steps: generating and collecting evidence of achievement; evaluating this evidence; recording the findings and using this information to understand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

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

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

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

- 1) To strengthen and streamline rather than revise fundamentally the existing assessment practices in History
- 2) To build greater developmental coherence from G4-G12 (e.g.: Key questions are used throughout the curriculum; Cognitive levels are differentiated for each phase, and writing tasks increase in complexity across the phases)
- 3) To give teachers space for creativity, local innovations, developing engaging source-based enquires and relevant research projects, and to encourage teachers to curate new 'archives' of historical and archaeological source materials.



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

4.2 FORMAL ASSESSMENT (Assessment of Learning or AoL)

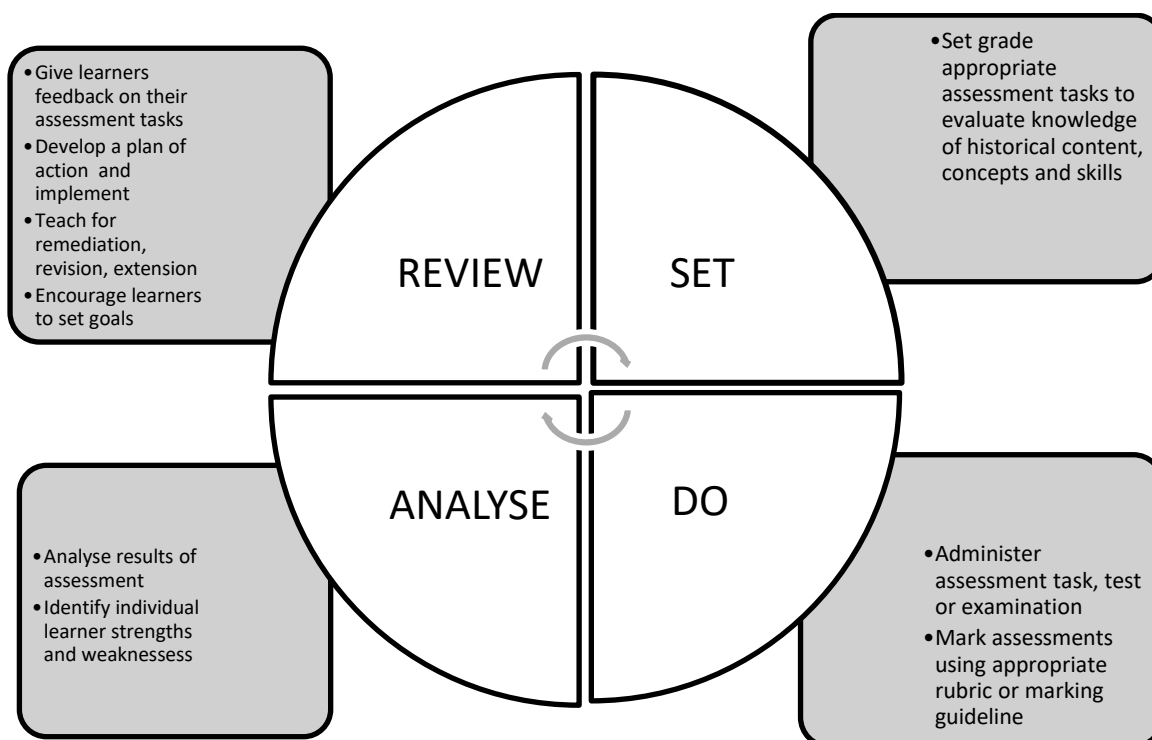
When assessment is used to record a judgement of the competence or performance of the learner, it serves a summative purpose. Formal assessment provides teachers with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a grade and in a particular subject.

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

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

4.3 THE ASSESSMENT CYCLE

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



SET

Follow these steps when designing your own assessment task:

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

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

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

DO

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

ANALYSE

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

REVIEW

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

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

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

4.4 Assessment in History**4.4.1 Introduction**

Assessment in History should be used to evaluate the level at which the core aims and

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

Objectives of School History

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

4.4.2 Questions and Questioning in History Assessment

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

A) Closed and Open Questions

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

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

- **Key Questions**

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

When constructing key questions for assessment purposes, Historical concepts should be

taken into consideration and used to frame the question. In this curriculum these concepts are:

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

Example of Grade 9: Term 1

Grade 9: Term 1	
Topic: Pseudo-Science, Racism and the Entrenchment of Social Inequalities during the Nineteenth Century	
<p>Key Questions: Why and how was pseudo-science used to entrench racial segregation and social and political inequalities during the nineteenth century?</p> <p>How have technology and recent scientific discoveries refuted pseudo-scientific racism?</p>	<p>Suggested Contact Time: 15 Hours</p>
<p>How does this topic integrate with concepts and historical enquiry process? The learner should:</p> <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.

4.4.3 Cognitive Levels in History

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

4.4.3.1 The Weighting of Cognitive Levels for Assessment in History

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

WEIGHTING OF COGNITIVE LEVELS: Gr 4- Gr 12

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

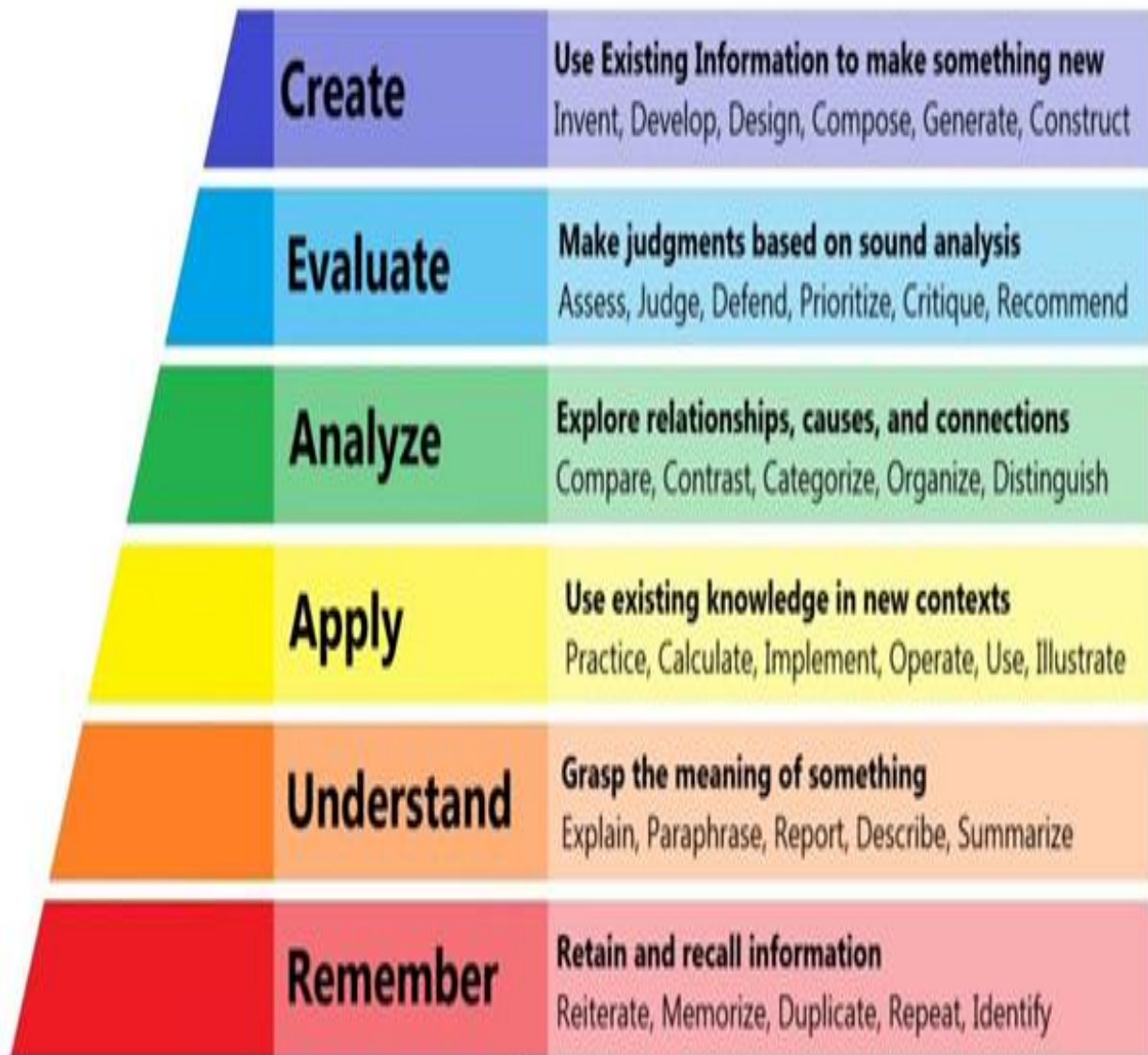
Figure A: The cognitive level in terms of Blooms taxonomy and verbs, their application to History and suggested questions that can be asked in History assessment at different levels.

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

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

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 focussed debate through the careful evaluation of historical evidence</p> <p>Organise evidence to substantiate an argument, in order to create an original, coherent and balanced piece writing</p>	<p>What is the significance, implication, meaning ...</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>

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4.5 Forms of Assessment for History

Teachers should use a variety of informal and formal assessment tasks to evaluate learning. These tasks should be designed to demonstrate competency of historical content, concepts and skills and assess understanding of the core aims and objectives of the History curriculum.

Types of Assessment of Learning (AoL) in History Curriculum

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

4.5.1 Tasks: Informal Assessment (AfL)

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

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

4.5.2 Source-Based Enquiries: Formal Assessment and Informal Assessment

Source-based enquiries can be constructed using a wide range of primary and secondary source material, including oral, written, visual, as well as objects and material culture.

Working with sources across the curriculum

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

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

In **Senior Phase** learners will also

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

In **FET** learners will also

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

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

- Group historical source material around a key question.
- The key question should be interesting, historically relevant and framed by the historical concepts indicated in Chapter 2.
- Provide a contextualisation for all source material.
Contextualisation includes the author or creator of the source, the title and place of publication or website and the date of publication or when the website was accessed. If the source is an object, contextual information should include where it was found and what it is made. Contextualisation should be guided by the questions 'who, what, why, when, and for whom.'
- NB: Learners need to use contextual information to answer questions about the usefulness of a source to answer the key question, and to evaluate its reliability as a source of evidence.
- All source material should be correctly referenced (ie the book, online site (URL), newspaper etc., where the sources were accessed)
- People in photographs and cartoons should be identified and labelled
- All text and images must be visible
- No sources should be combined into a composite source.

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

4.5.3 Writing Tasks: Paragraph and Essay writing (Informal or Formal Assessment)

One of the key objectives of the curriculum is to be able to present the outcomes of historical enquiry in logical and well-structured written (and oral) forms.

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

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

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

- Point/Topic sentence
- Explanation
- Evidence

- Linking sentence (either/or back to the question or in longer pieces of writing, to the next paragraph)

In formal and informal assessments, paragraph questions should be allocated **5 marks** and a length of **5 lines (50 words)** for Grades 7 and **6 marks** and a length of **6 lines (60 words) for Grades 8 and 9**. Paragraph writing evaluates a range of skills at different cognitive levels, including selection, extraction, organisation, evaluation, and creation. Paragraphs must be written in full sentences.

Grade 7 – Rubric for Paragraph Writing

LEVELS	LEVEL DESCRIPTORS GRADE 7	MARKS
LEVEL 1	Uses evidence in an elementary manner, e.g., shows little or no understanding of the topic. Uses evidence partially to report on the topic or cannot report on the topic. There is no evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	0 -1
LEVEL 2	Evidence is mostly relevant and relates largely to the topic. Uses evidence in a very basic manner. There is evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	2 - 3
LEVEL 3	Uses relevant evidence, e.g., demonstrates a thorough understanding of the topic. Uses evidence very effectively in an organised paragraph that shows an understanding of the topic. Adheres to the structure of a paragraph with evidence of all components' topic sentence, main points, and closing sentence.	4 - 5

Grade 8 and 9 - Rubric for Paragraph Writing

LEVELS	LEVEL DESCRIPTORS GRADE 8 & 9	MARKS
LEVEL 1	Uses evidence in an elementary manner e.g. shows little or no understanding of the topic. Uses evidence partially to report on a topic or cannot report on the topic. There is no evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	0-2
LEVEL 2	Evidence is mostly relevant and relates largely to the topic. Uses evidence in a very basic manner. There is evidence of a topic sentence and a closing sentence.	3- 4
LEVEL 3	Uses relevant evidence, e.g. demonstrates a thorough understanding of the topic. Uses evidence very effectively in an organised paragraph that shows an understanding of the topic. Adheres to the structure of a paragraph with evidence of all components: topic sentence, main points, and closing sentence.	5 - 6

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

Creative Response

Rubric for a Poster

Criteria	Level 1 1	Level 2 2	Level 3 3	Level 4 4
Design and layout	Design and layout disorganized and the poster mostly unattractive	Some organization is evident, and it is partly attractive.	Poster is well organized and very attractive	Poster is very well organized and extremely attractive
Creativity	There is little evidence of creativity	Reflects some degree of creativity	Poster is shown to be faultless.	Poster Reflects an original degree of creativity
Presentation	The poster is messy and not presented professionally	The poster has limited presentability	The presentability of the poster is at the expected achievement.	The poster is neat and presentable in an original way.
Purpose	The poster does not achieve its purpose	The poster partially achieves its purpose	The purpose is accomplished per the expected achievement.	The purpose has been achieved originally and creatively.
Effectiveness	There is little relevant information present	Some information to create understanding is present	All the information to create understanding is present	More information that is needed to create an understanding is present
Total				10 marks

Essay Writing (Narrative)

When constructing essay questions, teachers should use the topic focus suggested by the key questions and suggestions for the integration of content with historical concepts that are made for every topic. Writing an essay could be the result of an enquiry-based lesson sequence in which learners have studied a topic and analysed a variety of historical source material relating to a key question.

- Essays must have a formal structure that includes an introduction, which introduces the point of view or explanation of the topic.
- A main body, which develops an argument; and a conclusion (conclude the line of argument). Credit will be given for this structure.
- Each paragraph represents an idea. The line of argument must form a thread throughout the essay.
- When answering essay questions, learners should discuss, explain or assess (prove) the accuracy of a statement if required to do so, or to express an opinion.

- Through essays, teachers should assess learners' ability to demonstrate or communicate thorough knowledge and understanding of the topic and use relevant information to answer the question.
- Learners should:
 - plan and structure an essay.
 - use evidence to support an argument.
 - develop and sustain an independent and well-balanced argument; and
 - write logically, coherently and chronologically.

Marking essay questions

- Teachers must be aware that the content of the answer will be indicated as a synopsis in the marking guidelines.
- Learners may have other relevant introductions and/or conclusions than those included in a specific essay marking guideline for a specific essay.
- When assessing open-ended source-based questions, learners should be credited for any other relevant answers.

Global assessment of the essay

The essay will be assessed holistically (globally). This approach requires the teacher to score the overall product, without scoring the component parts separately. This approach encourages the learner to offer an individual opinion by using selected factual evidence to support an argument. The learner will not be required to simply mention 'facts' to achieve a high mark. This approach discourages learners from preparing 'model' answers and reproducing them without taking into account the specific requirements of the question. Holistic marking of the essay credits learners' opinions supported by evidence. Holistic assessment, unlike content-based marking, does not penalise language inadequacies as the emphasis is on the following:

- The construction of an argument
- The appropriate selection of factual evidence to support such an argument
- The learner's interpretation of the question.

Keep the synopsis in mind when assessing the essay. During the first reading of the essay ticks need to be awarded for a relevant introduction (indicated by a bullet in the marking guideline/memorandum), each of the main points/aspects that are properly contextualized (also indicated by bullets in the marking

guideline/memorandum) and a relevant conclusion (indicated by a bullet in the marking guideline/memorandum). The following additional symbols can also be used:

- Introduction, main aspects and conclusion not properly contextualized: ^
- Wrong statement: _____
- Irrelevant statement: |
|
|
- Repetition: R
- Analysis: A ✓
- Interpretation: 1 ✓

A generic rubric for assessing essays in Grades 7-9 is provided below. It is important to note that Grade 7 learners write essays that carry a total of 10 marks, as indicated in the rubric, and Grades 8-9, essays are allocated a total of 20 marks.

PRESENTATION	LEVEL 7	LEVEL 6	LEVEL 5	LEVEL 4	LEVEL 3	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 1
CONTENT	Very well planned and structured. Good synthesis of information. Constructed an argument. Very good use of evidence to support the argument	Well planned and structured. Synthesis of information. Constructed and argument. Evidence used to support the argument.	Writing structured. Constructed an argument. Evidence used to support argument.	Clear attempt to construct an argument. Evidence used to a large extent to support the argument.	Some attempt to organise the information into an argument. Evidence not well used in supporting the argument.	Largely descriptive/ with little or some attempt to develop an argument.	Answer not at all well-structured.
LEVEL 7 The question has been fully answered. Content selection fully relevant to line of argument.	18-20 [Gr 8-9] 13-15 [Gr 7]	16-17 [Gr 8-9] 12-13 [Gr 7]					
LEVEL 6 The question has been answered. The content selection is relevant to a line of argument.	16-17 [Gr 8-9] 12-13 [Gr 7]	15 [Gr 8-9] 11 [Gr 7]	14 [Gr 8-9] 10 [Gr 7]				
LEVEL 5 The question has been answered to a great extent. The content is adequately covered and is relevant		14 [Gr 8-9] 10 [Gr 7]	13 [Gr 8-9] 9 [Gr 7]	12 [Gr 8-9] 8 [Gr 7]			
LEVEL 4 The question is recognisable in the answer. Some omissions/ irrelevant content selection.			12 [Gr 8-9] 8 [Gr 7]	11 [Gr 8-9] 7 [Gr 7]	10 [Gr 8-9] 6 [Gr 7]		
LEVEL 3 The content selection does not always relate. Omissions in coverage.				10 [Gr 8-9] 6 [Gr 7]	9 [Gr 8-9] 5 [Gr 7]	8 [Gr 8-9] 4 [Gr 7]	

LEVEL 2 The content is sparse. The question is inadequately addressed.					8 [Gr 8-9] 4 [Gr 7]	7 [Gr 8-9] 3 [Gr 7]	6 [Gr 8-9] 2 [Gr 7]
LEVEL 1 The content is sparse, the question is inadequately addressed						6 [Gr 8-9] 2 [Gr 7]	0-5 [Gr 8-9] 0-1 [Gr 7]

Guidelines for allocating a mark for Level 1*:

- Question not addressed at all/totally irrelevant content; no attempt to structure the essay = 0
- Content selection includes basic and generally irrelevant information; no attempt to structure the essay = 1– 6
- Question inadequately addressed and vague; little attempt to structure the essay = 7–13

Marking of Narrative Essay Questions

In the Senior Phase, only a narrative essay will be assessed. In Grade 7, Learners will write an essay in terms 3 and 4, and the length will be 3 paragraphs, which is approximately (c.180 words). In Grades 8 and 9, learners will be assessed with essays during the mid-year and end-year examinations, and the length of the essay is 4 paragraphs, which is approximately (c.240 words). Answer to questions beginning with **'describe' or 'discuss'**.

Gr 7 = 10				
Gr 8 = 15 Gr 9 = 20	5-7	3-4	2	0-1
Gr 10 = 25	7-8	4-6	3	0-2
	LEVEL 4	LEVEL 3	LEVEL 2	LEVEL 1
CRITERIA 1 STRUCTURE			Has an introduction, body of paragraphs, and a conclusion	Is missing an introduction, conclusion or a body of paragraph

<p>CRITERIA 2 SELECTION</p>	<p>Only relevant and accurate information has been selected for inclusion</p>	<p>Mostly relevant and accurate information has been included. Occasionally irrelevant or inaccurate information has been included</p>	<p>Some relevant and accurate information has been included. Some irrelevant or inaccurate information is included</p>	<p>Little to no relevant and accurate information has been included. Much irrelevant or inaccurate information has been included</p>
<p>CRITERIA 3 ARRANGEMENT</p>	<p>All information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order</p>	<p>Information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order to a large extent</p>	<p>Some information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order</p>	<p>Little or no information has been arranged in a logical (chronological or thematic) order</p>
<p>CRITERIA 4 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>

4.5.6 Research Projects

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

Suggestions for GET research projects

Gr. 4 (Our Histories), Gr. 5 (Food), Gr. 6 (Ancient Egypt), Gr.7 (Colonisation, resistance and social change in the Cape region 1650s – 1800s) Gr. 9 (Gender and Human Rights: Women, Women's Organisations and their Protest Movements in South Africa, 1910s – 1960s)

Suggestions for FET research projects

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

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

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

Grade 4:

Topic 3: Our Histories

Grade 5:

Topic 3: Food

Grade 6:

Topic 3: Egypt – Role of the Nile River

Grade 7 :

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

Grade 9:

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

Grade 10:

Topic 2: Achievements of African People since Ancient Times

Topic 3: Ancient Ethiopia before 1600 C.E. and the use of myths and legends in History as a discipline.

Grade 11:

Topic 2: Europe comes into contact with the wider world during the 16th to 19th centuries

Topic 3: Slavery, Slave Resistance, and the Haitian Revolution

Grade 12

Topic 1: The Politics and Economics of South Africa in the Late 19th and 20th Century

Topic 2: The National Question in South Africa: The Formation of the National Party, the African National Congress, and the Communist Party of South Africa in the early 20th century.

RUBRIC FOR RESEARCH PROJECT GRADES 7 – 9

CRITERIA	(5)	(4 – 3)	(2 - 1)	(0)
1. PREPARATION AND PLANNING <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There is evidence of planning for the task eg. Timeline of task, notes on background research, etc.) 	Demonstrates thorough evidence of planning	Shows adequate evidence of planning	Shows some evidence of planning	Shows no evidence of planning
	(9 – 10)	(6 – 8)	(3 – 5)	(0 – 2)
2. IDENTIFICATION AND ACCESS TO RELEVANT SOURCES IN GATHERING INFORMATION <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Archival material, • Photos • Newspaper articles • Interviewees <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Person(s) interviewed was (were) appropriate - The interviewee(s) was (were) placed into historical context - The biographical details of the interviewee(s) was (were) given 	Demonstrates outstanding ability to identify relevant sources	Shows adequate ability to identify relevant sources	Shows Some ability to identify relevant sources	Shows No or little ability to identify relevant sources

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Other sources 				
	5	(3 – 4)	(1 – 2)	(0)
3. DESIGN A QUESTIONNAIRE (INTERVIEW QUESTIONS) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The questions were focused and open ended. The questions were appropriate and elicited information relevant to the key question. There were sufficient questions (no less than 10 questions) 	Demonstrates outstanding ability formulate questions	Shows adequate ability formulate questions	Shows Some ability formulate questions	Shows No ability to formulate questions
	5	(3 – 4)	(1 – 2)	(0)
4. TRANSCRIPTION OF INTERVIEWS <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The information from the interviews was accurately transcribed (if a recorder was used). 	Demonstrates Thorough evidence of transcription of interviewees responses	Shows adequate evidence of transcription of interviewees responses	Shows Some evidence of transcription of interviewees responses	No evidence of transcription of interviewees responses
	(17 – 20)	(11 – 16)	(5 – 10)	(0 – 4)
5. PRESENTATION (WRITTEN AND ORAL) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The context for understanding the interview(s) was given. The information from the interviews was placed in historical context. The information from the interviews was analysed and organised coherently, showing different points of view if appropriate. The presentation of the task to the class was clear and effective 	Demonstrates outstanding ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings	Shows adequate ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings	Shows some ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings	Shows no or little ability to make a coherent presentation of the research findings
	5	(3 – 4)	(1 – 2)	(0)
6. SELF-REFLECTION <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Skills, knowledge, and values learnt in the process 	Demonstrates outstanding ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process	Show adequate ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process	Show some ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process	Show no ability to reflect on lessons learnt in the process

4.6 Tests and Examinations

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

4.7 Scaffolding Assessment Tasks

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

4.8 Plagiarism

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

4.9 ASSESSMENT GUIDELINES AND EXAMINATION FRAMEWORK

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

GRADE	TERM	FORM OF ASSESSMENT	TYPE OF QUESTION	TERM CONTENT	MARKS
7	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (45 marks) and paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 1	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (30 marks) and Paragraph writing (5 marks)	Term 2	35 Marks 50 Marks
	3	Task - Research and Role Play	Research on two periods (20 marks each period) Role Play – a character of one leader from the categories (10 marks)	Term 3	50 Marks
	4	End--Year Examination	Source-based questions (15 marks)	Term 3	15 Marks
			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (10 marks)	Term 4	35 Marks 50 Marks
	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (44 marks) and paragraph writing (6 marks)	Term 1	50 Marks
		Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 1	35 Marks

8			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (15 marks)	Term 2	40 Marks	
					75 Marks	
	3	Task - Creative Response	Design a poster about the living and working conditions created by the indentured and migrant labour system. Write an essay to explain the above (50 Marks).	Term 3	50 Marks	
	4	End - year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 3	35 Marks	
			Source-based questions (25 marks) and Essay writing (15 marks)	Term 4	40 Marks	
					75 Marks	
9	1	Standardized Test	Source-based questions (44 marks) and paragraph writing (6 marks)	Term 1	50 Marks	
	2	Mid-year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 1	35 Marks	
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Essay writing (20 marks)	Term 2	40 Marks	
						75 Marks
	3	Project	Research on Gender and Human Rights	Term 3	50 Marks	
	4	End -year Examination	Source-based questions (35 marks)	Term 3	35 marks	
			Source-based questions (20 marks) and Essay writing (20 marks)	Term 4	40 marks	
					75 Marks	

Grade 10

Only in the mid-year examination, the learners are expected to write a narrative essay in the exam. However, at the end-of-year examination, the learners will write argumentative essays.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	2	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
2	3	Heritage Assignment	50	40%	20
	4	Mid-year Exam	100	60%	20
3	5	Source-Based or Essay	50	40%	10
	6	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
	SBA Mark				
4		End-of-year examinations (One Paper)			150 (60%)

Grade 11

All the essay questions are argumentative.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	2	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
2	3	Research	50	40%	20
	4	Mid-year Examinations	200	60%	20
3	5	Source-based or Essay	50	40%	10
	6	Standardized Test	100	60%	20
	SBA Mark				100 (40%)
4		End-of-year examinations (Paper 1 and 2)			300 (60%)

Grade 12

All the essay questions are argumentative.

Term	Assessment no	Type of Assessment	Raw Mark	Term Weight %	SBA Weight %
1	1	Source-based and Essay	100	25%	10
	2	Standardized Test	100	75%	10
2	3	Research	100	25%	20
	4	June Examinations	300	75%	20
3	5	Source-based and Essay	100	25%	10
	6	Preparatory Examinations	300	75%	30
	SBA Mark				100 (25%)
4		End-of-year examinations (Paper 1 and 2)			300 (75%)

Grade 12

MID-YEAR AND END-OF-YEAR EXAMINATIONS	
Examination	Marks
<p>Grade 12:</p> <p>Two papers mid-year:</p> <p>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.</p>	300
<p>Two papers at the end of the year:</p> <p>The Grade 12 papers will consist of two papers of three hours each. The mark allocation will be 150 for each of the question papers.</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 follow: <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

4.10 RECORDING AND REPORTING

Recording is a process in which the teacher documents the level of a learner's performance in a specific assessment task. It indicates learner progress towards the achievement of the knowledge as prescribed in the curriculum and assessment policy statements. Records of learner performance should provide evidence of the learner's conceptual progression within a grade and his or her

readiness to progress or be promoted to the next grade. Records of learner performance should also be used to verify the progress made by teachers and learners in the teaching and learning process.

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

4.11 CODES AND PERCENTAGES FOR RECORDING AND REPORTING

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

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

4.12 Moderation of Assessment

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

4.12.1 Moderation in history

Moderators should pay particular attention to the instructions for tasks and projects, as well as to the wording of questions in examinations, and they should ask: Is it clear what learners are expected to do? Can it be explained better? Is there further information that will assist learners in completing the tasks or question? They should also insist that references are provided for all sources used.

The table for the *Global Assessment of Essays*, which is provided for Grade 12 examinations, should be adapted and used for the marking of all written work and projects in all three grades, whenever possible. If rubrics are used, teachers should ask: Is it necessary to use a rubric, as many tasks and projects can be marked better using a marking scheme? If a rubric is necessary, does it adequately measure the achievement of the task or project?

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

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

4.13 General

This document should be read in conjunction with:

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

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

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