

The specialisation of historical knowledge in one content area in four Grade 7 Social Sciences textbooks under CAPS.

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### **Abstract**

This dissertation considers how historical knowledge is specialised in one chapter in four Grade 7 Social Science textbooks produced under the CAPS curriculum. The four textbooks selected are from two publishers, and the interest was in similarities and differences within and between publishers. Two central categories of analysis were used: the General Structure of the Text, and the Structure of Historical Knowledge.

The General Structure of the Text considered the overall organisational differences and similarities between the textbooks in terms of Bernstein's (1977/2000) concepts of classification, selection and sequencing. All four textbooks were found to be highly similar, suggesting strong external framing ( $F^{ct}$ ) of the textbooks by the curriculum. I examined the weighting of the sections and sub-sections of the textbooks, and found similarity across all four textbooks for the sections but variation for the sub-sections.

The Structure of Historical Knowledge considered the specialisation of historical knowledge. I separated the text from the textbooks into Narratives and Activities. Narratives were comprised of Narrative Text and Glossaries, while Activities were composed of Sources and Questions. The analysis of Structure of Historical Knowledge was informed primarily by Seixas' (2006) benchmarks of historical thinking.

I found differences related to historical specialisation, specifically with regards to the historical concepts that students are exposed to in the Narrative Text and Activities, and the Conceptual Level which underpins the Activities. The study found that students are exposed to a limited range of historical concepts, especially in certain of the textbooks in the Narrative Text; and students are required to engage with Questions in a way which focuses on comprehension and little inference in the Conceptual Level. There was, however, some variation across textbooks and this is drawn out in the analysis.

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## Chapter 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Rationale and Purpose of Study

In this dissertation I examine how historical knowledge is specialised in four Grade 7 textbooks under the new CAPS curriculum. I am particularly interested in the way in which the knowledge contained in these textbooks is underpinned by historical concepts. Despite the decrease in the percentage of unqualified<sup>1</sup> and underqualified<sup>2</sup> teachers from 36% in 1994 to 8,3% in 2004, many teachers find themselves teaching subjects in which they were not trained, particularly in the primary school where the teacher is (generally) responsible for all subjects (DoE, 2005).<sup>3</sup>

Shulman's (1986) notion of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), has been readapted by Taylor and Young (2003, as cited in Roberts, 2011) for the subject of history. This knowledge consists of:

- the structure of the discipline
- the difficulties students come across as they work with different subject matters
- the ways young people learn a particular subject
- strategies to assist with and assess learning.

(Taylor & Young, 2003, as cited in Roberts, 2011, p. 8).

I would argue that teachers who do not possess strong PCK are unsure as to how to teach the subject of history, particularly if they have been trained as 'generalists' as opposed to 'specialists' (Shulman, 1986). I therefore work from the assumption that conceptually strong textbooks would offer greater support to these teachers.

It was my perception during my Postgraduate Certificate in Education training completed in 2011 at the University of Cape Town, that the Social Sciences – namely History and Geography – took a 'backseat' to subjects such as Mathematics and English. If such

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<sup>1</sup> An 'unqualified' teacher is defined as one that holds no professional qualification and has a matric certificate or lower (Grades 8 – 11).

<sup>2</sup> An 'underqualified' teacher is defined as one that holds a one- or two-year professional qualification, and either does or does not have a matric certificate.

<sup>3</sup> See (Moon, 2013, p. 33 – 35) for an overview on research conducted in Australia and the United States of America on teacher qualifications in school history.

training practices are replicated in other institutions, it is likely that the Social Sciences – History in particular – may be neglected at the expense of subjects considered to be ‘priorities’. This can be seen by the current Minister of Basic Education’s establishment of the Ministerial Task Team for Mathematics, Science and Technology in 2013 (Motshekga, 2013), as well as the implementation of the Annual National Assessments (ANAs) which focus on literacy and numeracy (DBE, 2011a).

In the Intermediate Phase (IP) (i.e. Grades 4 – 6) and Senior Phase (IP) (i.e. Grades 7 – 9), the Social Sciences time allocation is only three hours as opposed to that given to Mathematics (6 hours in IP and 4,5 hours in SP) and Home Language (6 hours in IP and 5 hours in SP). When one considers that the three hours allocated to the Social Sciences must be divided into History and Geography, each subject only receives an hour and a half of instruction time per week. The implication is therefore that the Social Sciences – in particular History – do not hold as much ‘weight’ as other subjects.

Why, then, should History even be taught in schools? The importance of teaching and learning history has been described by Siebörger (2009, p. 9) as “to prepare school leavers to cope with the complexities that South Africa presents today”. This is done not merely by teaching history in a way which requires students to rote learn dates, but rather by encouraging students to “go into more depth, to debate, weigh up and consider the impact of events and the actions of people” (Siebörger, 2009, p. 9). Similarly, The Senior Phase Social Sciences CAPS curriculum documents (DBE, 2011b) argue that the teaching and learning of History “supports citizenship within a democracy” (p. 9) with other aims being to build

an interest in and enjoyment of the study of the past; knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the past and the forces that shape it; the ability to undertake a process of historical enquiry based on skills; and an understanding of historical concepts, including historical sources and evidence (p. 10).

Therefore it could be argued that South Africa’s perception of History as a school subject is one which involves interest, knowledge, skills and concepts, which assist in nation-building

and transformation in post-Apartheid South Africa. By contrast, I consider History at the Senior Phase level as an introduction to the academic study of the past. In this regard, I concur with the 2009 Ministerial review (DoE, 2009) that argues that textbooks are key resources in inducting students into the specialised subjects of the curriculum.

CAPS requires every child to possess their own textbook, including the Social Sciences (DBE, 2011b). In the Intermediate and Senior Phases (i.e. Grades 4 – 9), one textbook contains both History and Geography content. In this dissertation I consider the degree of specialisation that can be found in History textbooks.

Arguably, the recent proposal for a single textbook per subject (DBE, 2014) is problematic as the “very nature of History militates against the use of a single source for teaching and learning” (SASHT, 2014, p. 2). However, my interest does not lie in the presence of bias or representations of individuals, but rather in how History as a school subject is considered a discrete, specialised knowledge area. This is due to my aforementioned experience teaching a topic at the Grade 7 level during my PGCE year, and through my reading of Bertram (2012). Bertram (2012) contrasts the ‘civic’ nature of school history – as highlighted above by Siebörger – with its more disciplinary characteristics. The ‘discipline’ therefore focuses on students acquiring not only content knowledge of the period under study, but understanding the historical concepts that underpin the subject. My interest is therefore in these underpinning historical concepts in different textbooks.

My review of the literature suggests that research has neglected the Senior Phase (Grades 7 – 9) in the South African context, with more research being conducted in the FET Phase (Grades 10 – 12). Additionally, research on school history textbooks has tended to focus on bias and representation, but fails to consider the specialisation of the subject. Again, my assumption is that conceptually strong textbooks offer greater support to inexperienced,

unskilled or unqualified teachers. By examining a range of textbooks, my intention is to investigate how the specialisation of historical knowledge varies across different books.

## 1.2. Research Question and Overview of Approach Taken.

My research question is therefore: “How is historical knowledge specialised in one content area across four Grade 7 Social Science textbooks?” In 2014, when I began this dissertation, there were 6 publishers of English-medium, Grade 7 Social Sciences textbooks, with 8 textbooks being available for selection by schools and teachers. Table 1.1 below presents a summary of the textbooks available for Grade 7.

*Table 1.1. English-medium Social Sciences textbooks available for selection (Adapted from WCED, 2013. p. 22 – 25).*

<b>Publisher</b>	<b>Number of textbooks</b>	<b>Price (R)</b>
Heinemann Publishers (Pty) Ltd	1	92,00
Macmillan South Africa (Pty) Ltd	1	90,27
Maskew Miller Longman (Pty) Ltd	2	91,38
Oxford University Press	1	90,97
Via Afrika	1	98,95
Vivlia Publishers & Booksellers (Pty) Ltd	2	71,37

Due to the nature of authorship, there is likely to be variation as to how these textbooks present the content, skills and concepts required of the curriculum. It is therefore possible that students who are given access to one textbook may be learning a more specialised history to students who are provided with another. It interested me that two publishers each produced two textbooks whilst the other publishers only produced one. I selected for comparison those publishers that had produced two textbooks, in order to compare books both within and across publishers.

My analysis therefore considers four textbooks in terms of their historical specialisation. I draw primarily on work by Seixas (2006), augmented by other work in the area of history education. I consider the General Structure of the Text and the Structure of Historical Knowledge of each textbook in order to address my research question.

### **1.3. Overview of dissertation**

This chapter has introduced the study and the research questions. Chapter 2 outlines relevant literature in the field which has informed this study's design and focus. Chapter 3 presents the method used in the analytic process, whilst Chapter 4 presents the findings from the analysis of all four textbooks. Chapter 5 is the final chapter and discusses the findings of this dissertation and relates this to research in Chapter 2, in an attempt to answer this dissertation's research question.

## Chapter 2. Literature Review

This chapter is comprised of three major sections of literature which I have engaged with critically, in order to firstly, identify literature that provides conceptual resources for this study, and secondly to position this study in relation to similar research in the field. I have done this in two major sections. The first section considers the ‘gap’ between academic and school history, and differentiates between historical skills and concepts, linking these skills and concepts to those found in the CAPS curriculum, on which the textbooks are based. The second section considers research on history textbooks, both international and South African, and differentiates this study from the work which has been conducted. I do not consider literature on the changes made to school history in post-Apartheid South Africa, as this has been well-documented elsewhere (see Hoadley, 2011; Kallaway, 2012; Siebörger, 2012).

### 2.1. History as a Discipline and as a School Subject

This section is concerned with the difference between school and academic history, as well as what concepts are considered ‘historical’.

**2.1.1. Academic vs. school history.** Why consider the relationship between academic and school history? Bernstein’s notion of the recontextualising rule refers to the “[regulation of] the formation of specific pedagogic discourse” (Singh, 2002, p. 573). In short, academic history is recontextualised into a pedagogised form which can be reproduced at the level of the classroom. This is done in the form of the curriculum, and more specifically in the case of this study, in school textbooks. While this study is not concerned with how the process of recontextualisation occurs, it is important to differentiate between the practices of historians and those of students, particularly at the primary school.

It is helpful to turn to Bernstein’s (1999) differentiation between vertical and horizontal discourses. Vertical discourses such as history are characterised by “the form of a series of specialised languages each with its own specialised mode of interrogation and specialised

criteria for the production and exchange of texts” (Bernstein & Solomon, 1999, p. 273). The specialised nature of the discourse has led to it being termed ‘specialised knowledge’. The horizontal discourse, however, is “*segmentally* not hierarchically organised, and is realised in face to face encounters, where meanings are likely to be both context specific *and* dependent” (Bernstein & Solomon, 1999, p. 274, italics in original). The context dependency of this form of knowledge, plus its use in a segmental fashion in day-to-day life, has led to it being termed ‘everyday knowledge’.

Bertram (2008b) notes the difficulty in differentiating between everyday and specialised knowledge in a subject such as history, where historical events (for a start) are usually everyday occurrences which we later recall, despite not having been there. This leads us to the definition of historical knowledge as being specialised in that “it is usually distant from personal experience, may be based on semiotic representation, uses abstract and technical meanings, is built up consciously, and presented logically and systematically” (Bertram, 2012, p. 436).

Bearing in mind the nature of historical knowledge discussed above, Nuttall and Wright (2000) suggest that the academic discipline of history is characterised by the production of research in the form of narrative, researchers as professionals, and the presentation and critique of research to peers. However, this does not address the particular nature of the discipline, apart from its work in narratives, which forms part of the discipline’s particular ‘brand’ of knowledge. Yilmaz (2008) summarises the historical knowledge of the academic discipline as being interpretative, tentative, subjective, empirically-based, literary-based and socially and culturally embedded.

Bain (2005) notes a key difference between the history of the academy and that of the school: historians ask and answer questions which have not been posed before in order to contribute to the discipline, whilst students engage with history which has already been

‘written’. School history is therefore often composed of “lists of things students must learn” (Bain, 2005, p. 182) which has been recontextualised from the discipline. As a result, students are provided with the ‘result’ of the “historical problems and questions that generated such understanding in the first place” (Bain, 2005, p. 182), without giving students access to the process. Following Bernstein (Singh, 2002), school history is therefore in the field of reproduction as opposed to the discipline where knowledge is produced. That is to say, students at the school level are expected to engage with a pre-determined set of resources with their work being evaluated as being ‘correct’ or ‘incorrect’, whilst the academic historian is not limited in their access to resources and whose research is debated as opposed to being ‘evaluated’. Therefore, due to its position in the field of reproduction, school history should attempt to foster an understanding of the concepts which underpin academic history, and require students to engage with evidence in a way which is *similar* to the research conducted by historians.

As with most disciplines, there are different approaches in academic history. Munslow (1997, as cited in Booth, 2004) outlines three basic models of historical inquiry which exist in the academic discipline, namely reconstructionism, constructionism and deconstructionism. Table 2.1 provides a brief summary of these models and has been adapted from Booth (2004).

*Table 2.1. Munslow's approaches to history inquiry (Adapted from Booth, 2004, p. 52).*

	<b>Reconstructionism</b>	<b>Constructionism</b>	<b>Deconstructionism</b>
<b>Objective</b>	- Discovers <i>the</i> (unique) past as it actually was.	- Interprets how, why, patterns and trends.	- Discovers <i>a</i> (fragmented and partial past).
<b>Epistemology</b>	- Evidence-based - Imposes limits on interpretations - Acknowledge that distance ensures detachment	- Privilege empiricism - Accept historical evidence as proof that the past can be recovered - View the past as fixed - See the past as yielding knowledge about the development of the present	- Begins analysis with linguistic/ discursive characterisation of the historical account. - Holds the past as a slave to the present.

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<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Regard the present as an unproblematic platform from which historians look back into the past</li> <li>- Assume that traditional forms of representation are transparent and preserve the objectivity of observation</li> </ul>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Craft-like discipline based on interrogation of sources</li> <li>- Facts precede interpretation</li> <li>- Limits on interpretation imposed by institutional and professional conventions</li> <li>- Iterative activity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Theoretical discipline</li> <li>- <i>A priori</i> knowledge precedes facts</li> <li>- Limits on interpretation imposed by theory</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Craft-like discipline based on contextualisation of historical knowledge</li> <li>- Historical knowledge always relative</li> <li>- Limits on interpretation imposed by epistemology</li> </ul>

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In short, reconstructionism considers the nature of history to be in line with the sciences, and so has been influenced by the ‘scientific method’ process of inquiry, whilst constructionism could be said to have been informed by structuralism. Deconstructionism has been informed by the postmodern movement which became influential in the 1970s (Yilmaz, 2008). Multiple, possibly opposing, narratives for the same event or timeframe can be given, is at the very core of the deconstructionist movement. Why is this important when considering the difference between the academic discipline of history and school history?

Sandwell (2005) reflects that while most academic historians have moved on from the positivism of reconstructionism, much of school history is still informed by this 19th century approach. Yilmaz (2008, p. 14) adds that a more post-modern way of teaching and learning history can be achieved by shifting the role of the educator from that as a “transmitter of knowledge” to a “facilitator or a guide who tries to help students find and articulate their own voice”. Similarly, Seixas (2000, p. 20 - 21) argues that a postmodern history classroom involves students “[understanding] how different groups organise the past into histories and how their rhetorical and narratological strategies serve present-day purposes”.

Considering that textbooks are used in the educational context where there is considered to be a more knowledgeable individual (the teacher) who transmits knowledge to

the less knowledgeable (the student), there is often a need for *the* ‘correct answer’ (Kalmus, 2004). When teachers do not possess the required historical discipline’s knowledge and the understanding as to how to proceed in teaching the subject (Fordham, 2012), it is likely that they will defer to the textbook (Morgan, 2010). It is therefore more likely that a reconstructionist or constructionist mode of historical inquiry will be used in school history, as teaching in a deconstructionist way requires an understanding of the aforementioned skills and knowledge of the period. School history should therefore distil the tenets of the academic discipline, and give students an understanding of what constitutes ‘good’ history knowledge and activity. These are relevant comments with regards to the nature of teaching history, but what concepts and skills are required of students who learn history at school?

**2.1.2. Historical concepts vs. historical skills.** Bertram (2012) notes two broad approaches to history, namely ‘memory-history’ and disciplinary historical thinking. ‘Memory-history’ consists of “narratives often used for nation-building purposes...or to teaching history as a ‘grocery list’ of facts” (Bertram, 2012, p. 431). She notes that this approach is beginning to be overtaken by the second approach, where disciplinary historical thinking “focuses particularly on how students can engage meaningfully with historical sources to make sense of the past” (p. 431). A comprehensive outline of the differences between these two approaches can be seen below in Table 2.2.

*Table 2.2. 'Memory-history' compared to 'Disciplinary-history' (Levesque, 2008, as cited in Roberts, 2011, p. 5).*

<b>Memory-History</b>	<b>Disciplinary-History</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Memory as a ‘factual’ tradition</li> <li>• Trend of factual history as opposed to it being contestable and changeable</li> <li>• Commemoration, memory, heritage</li> <li>• History can be known by remembering it</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Historical Thinking</li> <li>• Domain specific processes</li> <li>• Students master the concepts and knowledge of history, but not to standards of disciplinary experts</li> <li>• History can only be known by ‘doing it’</li> </ul>

Lee (1983) outlines three ways in which British schools have approached the teaching of disciplinary history, with each approach valuing one aspect of the subject. The first focuses

on transmitting “substantive historical concepts” (p. 21) such as revolution, democracy and immigration, whilst the second focuses on developing “structural second-order concepts” (p. 25) such as evidence, cause and empathy. The third approach focuses on teaching “historical skills, abilities, or procedures” (p. 28) such as analysis, synthesis and comprehension.

Bertram (2012) notes the problem with separating out these aspects of history, such as the separation of substantive knowledge – ‘content’ – from procedural – ‘how to’ – knowledge in history, a point which has been reinforced by other researchers (Fordham, 2012; Seixas, 2006). In order to develop a conceptual understanding of history and of historical skills, students must engage with content (Seixas, 2006, p. 2). Bertram’s (2008b) work in the South African context contrasts two ways in which history has been learned and taught, namely by ‘doing’ and by ‘knowing’. She links ‘doing’ history with knowledge of historical thinking and procedures, which is similar to Lee’s third approach.

The dichotomy between the practices of ‘doing’ and ‘knowing’ exposes students to only one aspect of the academic discipline of history, as noted above. Instead, a combination of the two may prove to be a more accurate representation of the discipline (Bertram, 2008a; Lee, 1983). Schwab’s (1978, as cited in Bertram, 2012) notions of procedural and substantive knowledge are a viable way to describe the difference between ‘doing’ and ‘knowing’ history. ‘Doing’ history can be connected to procedural knowledge, which refers to the specific skills of the discipline that include, but may not be limited to, “establishing historical significance; using primary source evidence; identifying continuity and change; analysing cause and consequence; taking an historical perspective; and understanding the moral dimension of historical interpretations” (Seixas, 2006). ‘Knowing’ history, on the other hand, could be linked to substantive knowledge, which “represents the statements of fact, propositions, and concepts of history” (Bertram, 2012, p. 431). Both of these approaches when used singularly are insufficient, as Bertram’s (2008) research shows. She found that

Grade 10 assessment tests assess students neither on historical skills *nor* on any “deep substantive knowledge of history”, instead testing students on “generic skills and comprehension” (p. 174).

Bertram’s (2012) recontextualisation of Dowling’s (2009, as cited in Bertram, 2012) domains of practice points to the need for students to engage with specialised (namely historical) content *and* procedures. Table 2.3 below presents four quadrants of student activity in school history. She notes that the purpose of school history is to result in student activity which is situated in the esoteric quadrant.

*Table 2.3. Bertram’s (2012, p. 436) domains of practice for school history.*

		Procedural Knowledge	
		Specialised (I+)	Generic (I-)
Substantive knowledge	Specialised (I+)	<p><b>Esoteric</b> (content clearly historical; language specialised, and specialised procedural knowledge that fosters historical thinking)</p>	<p><b>Expressive</b> (content clearly historical; language specialised but generic procedural knowledge)</p>
	Generic (I-)	<p><b>Descriptive</b> (content knowledge not specialised to history, perhaps located in the everyday; language unspecialised; specialised procedural knowledge that fosters historical thinking)</p>	<p><b>Public</b> (content knowledge not specialised to history, perhaps located in the everyday; language unspecialised; generic procedural knowledge)</p>

Similar concerns have been raised by Counsell (2011) with regards to generic skills being taught in the history classroom. Young (2011) defines curricular genericism as occurring when skills are separated from context and content, such as Reich’s (1991, as cited in Young, 2011, p. 129) “four C’s... [namely] the ability to criticise, to conceptualise, to connect and to compare”. While Young recognises the usefulness of these ‘four C’s’, he notes that it is the content that “give meaning and purpose to the conceptual process... not vice versa” (p. 129). Therefore while generic skills are no doubt important in order for students to organise their thoughts and construct an argument (Van Veuren, 1995), these

skills are not historical in nature. That being said, what concepts could be considered ‘historical’?

It is important to differentiate between concepts and skills. According to Fordham (2012, p. 245, emphasis in original) “the concepts of the discipline indicate what might be appropriate *historical* questions to ask about the past, whereas skills are the means by which one might address those questions”. ‘Concepts’ are therefore related to Lee’s (1983) second approach above – namely the development of structural second-order concepts – and include ‘change’, ‘continuity’ and ‘empathy’.

The difference between skills and concepts can be seen in the South African CAPS curriculum for Social Sciences Grade 7 - 9. The document identifies the following concepts as being historical: 1) historical sources and evidence; 2) multi-perspective approach; 3) cause and effect; 4) change and continuity; and 5) time and chronology (DBE, 2011b, p. 11). Prior to this, it outlines the aims of the subject and the skills that students are expected to develop, which I have adapted for Table 2.4 below.

*Table 2.4. Specific aims and skills of history under CAPS (Adapted from DBE, 2011b, p. 10).*

<b>The specific aims of History</b>	<b>Examples of the skills involved</b>
1. Finding a variety of kinds of information about the past.	Being able to bring together information... [and] using more than one kind of written information...
2. Selecting relevant information	Being able to decide about what is important information to use ... [either] for a particular history topic, or... to answer a question that is asked...
3. Deciding about whether information can be trusted.	Being able to investigate where the information came from, ... [and] checking to see if the information is accurate... [as much] information represents one point of view only.
4. Seeing something that happened in the past from more than one point of view.	Being able to contrast what information would be like if it was seen or used from another point of view... [and] being able to compare two or more different points of view about the same person or event.
5. Explaining why events in the past are often interpreted differently.	Being able to see how ... [different authors] come to differing conclusions from each other and... give a reason(s) ... why this is so in a particular topic of history.
6. Debating about what happened in the past on the basis of the available evidence.	Being able to take part in discussions or debates and developing points of view about aspects of history, based on the evidence that comes from the information available.

7. Writing history in an organised way, with a logical line of argument.	Being able to write a piece of history which has an introduction, sets out the relevant information in a logical way and in chronological order, and comes to a conclusion that answers the question asked in a coherent way.
8. Understanding the importance of heritage and conservation.	Being able to explain how and why people and events are publicly remembered in a community, town or city, province and the country... [and] investigating how people and events in the past are commemorated in ceremonies, celebrations, museums and monuments.

The aims and skills in Table 2.4 above are undoubtedly important for students to develop if they are to interact with the content in a ‘historical’ manner. However as noted previously, my interest is in the historical concepts that underpin school history and how these are represented in different textbooks.

**2.1.3. School history concepts.** The Benchmarks of Historical Thinking project is based on what are termed “‘structural’ historical concepts that provide the basis of historical thinking” (Seixas, 2006). It aims to provide a standard for historical thinking as applied in Canada, but is an influential framework with regards to the identification of historical concepts, and tie in with Lee’s (1983) notion of ‘structural second-order’ concepts and Fordham’s (2012) distinction between skills and concepts. While both Lee’s (1983) and Fordham’s (2012) works have contributed to my understanding of historical concepts at the school level, I find the Benchmarks project presents a more coherent and complete framework within which to situate my work.

There are six interrelated concepts laid out by the Benchmarks project and focus on students being able to: 1) establish historical significance; 2) use primary source evidence; 3) identify continuity and change; 4) analyse cause and consequence; 5) take historical perspectives; and 6) understand the moral dimension of historical interpretations. Seixas (2006) presents a number of ways in which students can show mastery of these concepts. These can be seen in Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5. *Benchmarks of Historical Thinking and ways of demonstrating mastery (Seixas, 2006).*

Concept	Ways to Demonstrate Mastery
1. Historical significance	a) Demonstrate how an event, person or development is significant either by showing how it is embedded in a larger, meaningful narrative OR by showing how it sheds light on an enduring or emerging issue. b) Explain how and why historical significance varies over time and from group to group.
2. Primary sources as evidence	a) Use several primary sources to construct an original account of a historical event.
3. Continuity and change	a) Explain how some things continue and others change, in any period of history. b) Identify changes over time in aspects of life that we ordinarily assume to be continuous; and to identify continuities in aspects of life we ordinarily assume to have changed over time.
4. Cause and consequence	a) Identify the interplay of intentional human action, and constraints on human actions in causing change. b) Identify various types of causes for a particular event, using one or more accounts of the event. c) Be able to construct counterfactuals (e.g., if Britain had not declared war on Germany in 1914, then...)
5. Historical perspectives	a) Recognize presentism in historical accounts. b) Use evidence and understanding of the historical context, to answer questions of why people acted the way they did (or thought what they did) even when their actions seem at first irrational or inexplicable or different from [what] we would have done or thought.
6. Moral dimensions	a) Make judgments about actions of people in the past, recognising the historical context in which they were operating. b) Use historical narratives to inform judgments about moral and policy questions in the present.

These concepts have been addressed and identified in other research. Below I discuss each of Seixas' (2006) concepts and highlight other research which has identified these, connecting them to the aims and concepts found in the CAPS curriculum (as laid out in Table 2.4 above).

**2.1.3.1. Historical significance.** According to Seixas (2006, p. 2), historical significance is problematic because events and individuals are significant in a particular context according to "perspective and purpose" (Emerson, 2013; Sheehan, 2013). Significant events, people or developments are marked by two aspects though, which may occur separately or simultaneously. These aspects are firstly that the event/people/development

resulted in change, and secondly that it reveals information about contemporary and historical issues (Emerson, 2013; Seixas, 2006; Seixas & Peck, 2004; Sheehan, 2013). In the CAPS curriculum for the Senior Phase, this would be connected to Aim 8 in Table 2.4 above, namely “understanding the importance of heritage and conservation”. However, while it is included as an aim and skill, it is not listed as a historical concept in the document.

Levesque (2005) argues that historical significance has not been adequately conceptualised and that as a result, this concept often becomes what he terms ‘memory-history’, as noted above by Bertram (2012) above. His research suggests that students’ notions of what is historically significant were determined by their personal and cultural experiences as opposed to the historical context in which the events or people were situated. This is in contrast to the academic historian who considers aspects such as “importance, profundity, quantity, durability, and relevance” (Levesque, 2008, as cited in VanSledright, 2009, p. 435).

This is possibly true of school history under CAPS, as noted by the emphasis on heritage and conservation in Aim 8 in Table 2.4 above. It is therefore possible that historical significance under CAPS is steered in the direction of memory-history or nation-building.

In contrast to Levesque’s findings above, Barton (2005) found that while Northern Irish students’ identification of historical significance depended on their societal upbringing, there were only minor differences between the Catholic and the Protestants students. Resendes and Chuy’s (2010) research was concerned with the pedagogical benefits of the Knowledge Building approach and Knowledge Forum technology for historical thinking in a school Toronto. They found that 9 and 10 year old students struggled with using the concept of historical significance. Therefore, historical significance needs to be emphasised in the classroom in order for students to be able to understand and use it in their historical inquiry.

**2.1.3.2. Primary source evidence.** Seixas (2006) argues that primary sources need to be contextualised and that students must be able to extract evidence from these. This concept is therefore concerned with students being able “to find, select, interpret, and contextualise primary sources” (p. 3). There are a number of aspects of evidence which students must be able to identify and interrogate, such as the author’s position, the historical context in which it was written, the type of source, and conscious and unconscious purposes of the author in creating the source (Emerson, 2013; Lee, 1983; Morgan, 2010; Sandwell, 2005; Seixas & Peck, 2004; Seixas, 2006).

If students are to examine the sub-text of sources (Wineburg, 1991) – namely the positions and purposes or beliefs of the source’s author – they must be properly contextualised as “[the] more information given about a source, the better the questions that can be asked based on this source” (Smuts, 2006, p. 10). Sources are contextualised by the provision of the author’s name, the date of creation or publishing, identifying people that are depicted, and providing a description of the source (Smuts, 2006).

Opong’s (2012) research considered students’ exposure to and internalisation of historical concepts in a Ghanaian Grade 9 classroom. His findings suggest that students are able to apply a “somewhat postmodern, deconstructionist approach, questioning the validity of certain historical sources” (p. 405). Barton (2005) argues that using primary sources assists students in adopting the perspectives of those in the past, which will be further discussed below. Similarly, Barton (1997) found that while students were able to identify reliable versus unreliable sources in their own research, they required prompting to do so.

Seixas’ (2006) concept of using primary sources can be found in the CAPS curriculum for the Senior Phase as “historical sources and evidence”. It is connected to three aims of history as can be seen in Table 2.4 above, namely “1. Finding a variety of kinds of information about the past”, “3. Deciding about whether information can be trusted” and “6. Debating about

what happened in the past on the basis of the available evidence”. The concept in CAPS therefore addresses issues of researching for information (Aim 1), reliability (Aim 3), and addresses the purpose of history (Aim 6).

I would argue that the curriculum treats source-work as being a skill as opposed to a concept. That is to say, the curriculum does not differentiate between the types of *questions* which could be asked and instead focuses on how students will find answers to the (predetermined) questions (i.e. skills) (Fordham, 2012).

**2.1.3.3. *Continuity and change.*** This particular concept is important as without it students “sometimes misunderstand... history as a list of events” (Seixas, 2006, p. 5). Continuity and change, however, directs students’ attention to the ways in which some things change whilst others remain the same (Crabtree, 1989; Emerson, 2013; Fordham, 2012; Lee, 1983; Seixas, 2006; Seixas & Peck, 2004). Some aspects which comprise continuity and change are progress and decline, chronology, and the idea of ‘turning’ and ‘tipping’ points (Seixas, 2006). It is therefore named twice as a concept under “change and continuity” and “time and chronology” in the CAPS documents, with no aims or skills being identified for it. In their research, Resendes and Chuy (2010) suggest that even young students are able to grasp the concept of continuity and change, and are able to use this concept as the basis for a historical argument.

**2.1.3.4. *Cause and consequence.*** Cause and consequence, while related to motivations, are different in that “they are multiple and layered, involving both long-term ideologies, institutions and conditions, and short-term actions and events” (Seixas, 2006, p. 6). A number of aspects make up this concept, such as constraints in causing change (Ciardiello, 2002; Emerson, 2013; Fordham, 2012; Lee, 1983; Seixas, 2006), human agency (Seixas, 2006; Seixas & Peck, 2004) as well as the unintended consequences of actions (Seixas, 2006). This concept is referred to as ‘cause and effect’ in the CAPS documents, but does not have any

associated aims or skills. Oppong (2012) found that students only identified human action as causing events and did not consider factors such as technology, political and social events, or natural events. He argues that students therefore have a misunderstanding of the notion of cause and consequence, while other research suggests that even young students understand this concept (Resendes & Chuy, 2012). Similarly, Barton (2001a) found that children in Northern Ireland were able to consider how societal contexts effected change due to the curriculum's emphasis on the 'way of life' experienced in the past. This is in contrast to the United States history students who tended to ascribe change to individuals due to the curriculum's focus on these individuals. It is therefore likely that students' attention will need to be directed to larger societal causes and consequences *as well as* to human action in order for them to understand cause and consequence fully.

**2.1.3.5. Historical perspectives.** Sometimes referred to as 'historical empathy' (Emerson, 2013; Lee, 1983; Seixas & Peck, 2004; Yilmaz, 2007), this concept refers to the "cognitive act of understanding the different social, cultural, intellectual, and even emotional contexts that shaped people's lives and actions in the past" (Seixas, 2006, p. 7). It requires students to consider the perspectives of multiple actors in a historical situation or event, and to base these perspectives on evidence while avoiding present-day impositions of opinions or ideas (Emerson, 2013; Morgan, 2010; Seixas & Peck, 2004), also known as presentism. Referred to as a 'multi-perspective approach' in the CAPS documents, there are two aims associated with this concept. These are: "4. Seeing something that happened in the past from more than one point of view" and "5. Explaining why events in the past are often interpreted differently".

The research suggests that some 9 and 10 year olds have problems with historical perspectives (Resendes & Chuy, 2012), whilst others argue that students' ability to empathise with historical figures improves through their engagement with sources and their peers

(Kohlmeier, 2006). Kohlmeier's findings are in line with Barton's (2005) suggestion that primary sources give insight into the past. It is therefore likely that the development of historical perspectives can be fostered through student's engagement with primary sources.

**2.1.3.6. Moral dimensions.** This concept refers to history's ability to "[teach us] something from the past that helps us in facing the moral issues of today" (Seixas, 2006, p. 8). This sometimes occurs when there are legacies from actions which occurred in the past. As with historical perspectives above, moral dimensions requires students to suspend presentism and judge actors of the past in a particular context (Morgan, 2010; Seixas & Peck, 2004). Resendes and Chuy (2010) note that students struggle to make historically accurate moral judgments, with Oppong (2012) finding that some could and some could not.

**2.1.4. Implications for this study.** This study is concerned with school history as a specialised subject, following the approach of disciplinary historical thinking (Bertram, 2012; Levesque, 2008, as cited in Roberts, 2011) and structural second-order concepts (Lee, 1983). This approach values the content – also referred to here as substantive knowledge – as well as the 'how to' – procedural knowledge – which is informed by a deep understanding of the underlying disciplinary concepts of history (Bertram, 2012). Considering the robustness of Seixas' (2006) benchmarks, I have selected his framework in order to analyse these second-order concepts.

Whilst procedural knowledge is important (Bertram, 2012; Counsell, 2011; Van Veuren, 1995; Young, 2011), I am not interested in the analysis of generic skills (Fordham, 2012). The CAPS document provides 2 out of 8 aims for the subject which I do not consider to be historical in nature and instead to be generic, transferable skills. These are "2. Selecting relevant information" and "7. Writing history in an organised way, with a logical line of argument" (DBE, 2011b, p. 10). These are the only aims which are not underpinned by one of Seixas' (2006) benchmarks of historical thinking.

The CAPS document includes two concepts from Seixas (2006) and includes aims which are associated with them, namely Using Primary Sources and Historical Perspectives. Historical Significance is provided as an aim but not a historical concept, whilst Cause & Consequence and Continuity & Change are listed as concepts but have no associated aims. Finally, Moral Dimensions has been neglected both as a concept and as an aim. Therefore, while there is some alignment of the curriculum and Seixas' concepts, it varies as to how much this is.

## 2.2. Textbook Research

This study is concerned with the nature of historical knowledge in textbooks. Altbach and Kelly (1988) note the relationship that exists between textbooks and teachers in the 'third world'<sup>4</sup>. They argue that governmentally-issued textbooks are closely adhered to by underqualified teachers in these contexts, who treat the text 'as sovereign', and who have limited access to alternative sources of knowledge (Bertram, 2006; Sewall, 2000). Sadker and Zittleman (2007, p. 144) present evidence to suggest that "[American] students spend as much as 80 to 95% of classroom time using textbooks and that [American] teachers make a majority of their instructional decisions based on the textbook".

Notwithstanding their role as holders of knowledge, textbooks provide an ordered sequence that is recommended to be followed, which provides teachers with a sense of stability in the oft chaotic classroom (Hawes, 1979; Sewall, 2000). They are tools that assist teachers in their day-to-day work in the classroom, particularly when teachers are either unable or unwilling to plan their own lessons (Sewall, 2000), and can be seen as "artefacts

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<sup>4</sup> Fleisch (2008) claims that South Africa's education system is characterised by a 'bimodal distribution of achievement', in that the middle class' academic achievements are comparable to the 'first world', whilst the working class is similar to the 'third'. Therefore, Altbach and Kelly's (1988) reference to the 'third world' could be translated as 'the working class' in the South African context.

that translate policy into pedagogy...[and that] link between the intended and the implemented curriculum” (Johansson, 2006, p. 16; see also Altbach & Kelly, 1988).

**2.2.1. International history textbook research.** Social reproduction theorists have focused on textbooks to determine the extent to which the legitimisation of certain ideological beliefs is present. Anyon (1978) is an influential proponent of this view, and argues that social studies textbooks fill roles apart from the transmission of knowledge, such as the legitimisation of political and other social forces. This can be seen with regards to research from the last 15 years on gender bias and inclusion (Blumberg, 2009; Chick, 2006; Esen, 2007; Fardon, 2007; Sadker & Zittleman, 2007), racial bias (Beal, Nozaki & Yang, 2001; Cruz, 2002; Martell & Hashimoto-Martell, 2011; Maslak, 2008; Montgomery, 2005a, 2005b, 2006), political change and nation-building sentiments ((Beal et al., 2001; Montgomery, 2005b, 2006; Nasser, 2004; Nelson, 2002; Rajandran, 2013; Zajda, 2007, 2009). Research has also examined the promulgation of cultural, political and social ideologies (Al-Haj, 2005; Bukh, 2007; Low-Beer, 2001; Podeh, 2000; Ram, 2000; Su, 2007; Vural & Özyanık, 2008), as well as the way in which language shapes representations of historical figures and events (Achugar & Schleppegrell, 2005; Alridge, 2006; Barnard, 2001; Bukh 2007; Oteiza, 2003; Schleppegrell, Achugar & Orteiza, 2004; Wineburg, 1991).

Nation-building sentiments have been identified by Cary (1976) in Soviet Union social science textbooks. This approach is in line with the memory-history approach discussed in the previous section of this literature review. The textbooks in Cary’s (1976) study intended to promote the political shift from socialism to communism and develop in its students “an increasingly sophisticated Marxist-Leninist belief system” (Cary, 1976, p. 28). Similarly, Zajda’s (2007) examination of post-Soviet Russian textbooks identified nation-building and transformative themes which he argues are intended to foster the development of new national identities in Russian students. In Malaysian history textbooks, Rajandran (2013)

identifies the positive portrayal of the Malaysian people in chapters regarding the road to independence, whilst the British are negatively portrayed in chapters which cover Malaysia's colonisation. Rajandran argues that these depictions are an attempt to develop nationalistic sentiments on the part of Malaysian students. However, the presence of these biases and ideological stances in textbooks does not necessarily imply their unconditional acceptance by those who use them (Kalmus, 2004).

**2.2.2. South African history textbooks.** As with international studies, much of the research on South African history textbooks has been on bias and representations (Da Cruz, 2005; Mazel & Stewart, 1987; Smith, 1983), gender (Fardon, 2007), heritage (Fru, 2012), discourses (Koekemoer, 2012) and textbooks as mediators (Morgan, 2011). With the revisions to the South African curriculum since Curriculum 2005 post-Apartheid, most research in history has concerned itself with bias and representation and the ratio of everyday to historical knowledge in textbooks (Morgan, 2010). Due to the fact that CAPS is a relatively new curriculum, I have been unable to find any research which examines what constitutes historical knowledge in the new textbooks under this curriculum. Research has additionally tended to focus on the FET phase (i.e. Grades 10 – 12), with only Bertram and Bharath's (2011) study on Grade 6 textbooks being a notable exception. A number of works, however, have focused on the specialisation of historical knowledge either in South African textbooks or in the classroom.

Bertram and Bharath's (2011) work on Grade 6 textbooks noted that in the textbooks created under C2005 and RNCS, images and sources were poorly contextualised, and that activities required generic skills of comprehension and recall from students, and less emphasis on the historical process of enquiry in the textbooks. As noted earlier, in other work Bertram (2008) found a focus on 'doing' history, and an almost emptying out of 'knowing' history. As both of these studies were conducted under the RNCS which received criticism

from South African historians and educationalists alike, it is possible that there has been a shift in the new CAPS textbooks.

Morgan (2010) analysed a chapter on race and racism from two different Grade 11 history textbooks under the RNCS. She notes the different ways in which authorship affects the way in which historical knowledge is represented. In addition to other analytical tools, she used three of Seixas' benchmarks of thinking, namely the use of primary sources, historical perspectives and moral dimensions. Her connection between Seixas' (2006) benchmarks of historical thinking and the Grade 10 history curriculum is particularly interesting, and suggests that it is a viable way in which to think about the subject of history in South Africa.

In one textbook, Morgan (2010) found that sources were not always well contextualised and through omissions on the part of the textbooks' authors, presentist interpretations were given, negatively affecting students' abilities to engage in historical perspectives. This was not the case for the other textbook. With regards to moral dimensions, she argues that "a textbook should involve the reader in more personal and responsible ways rather than to make sweeping statements like 'this was not true'" (p. 315). She concludes that textbook authors and editors need "to interpret the curriculum carefully and be willing to invest the time into finding and presenting the materials... in a way that balances scholarly and doctrinal outcomes" (p. 318).

Morgan and Henning's (2011) research on one chapter from ten Grade 11 history textbooks, lifted out five themes on the textbook authorship. Firstly, most textbooks presented single perspectives with minimal instances of ambiguity and greater instances of generalisations. Secondly, the textbook authors tended to provide sources which were not completely contextualised, repeat secondary sources across textbooks, and provide primary sources which were not authenticated. They additionally skimmed over many of the topics with a lack of in-depth examination, and privileged secondary sources over primary sources.

Thirdly, the textbook authors tended to oversimplify complex historical problems, choosing instead to present these in a 'black or white' fashion. Fourthly, textbook authors tended to 'mimic' critical thinking, providing students with the opportunity to come to a conclusion through the examination of evidence – however, the evidence provided was either partial or insufficient to come to such a conclusion. Lastly, Morgan and Henning provide an example of textbooks which they refer to as 'exemplary'. These textbooks "encouraged the students to do the thinking, interpreting, and finding answers by exposing them to a range of mainly primary source materials, reflecting multiple perspectives, and allowing them to 'investigate', which was the name used for activities" (p. 184). Morgan and Henning suggest that the first four aspects diminished students' ability to engage with the topic of the chapter – racism – in meaningful and historically sophisticated ways. By contrast, the fifth and last aspect gave students access to opportunities for historical thinking.

Firth (2013, p. 56) studied two Grade 10 texts to gauge "the relationship between powerful knowledge and everyday knowledge", similar to Bharath and Bertram's work above. He identifies strongly classified texts – namely those which privilege historical knowledge above everyday or other subject knowledge – as providing more learning opportunities to develop historical skills and knowledge of the structure of history. Additionally he found issues with sources being contextualised.

**2.2.3. Implications for this study.** Despite a recent shift in school history from memory-history to a discipline, there is a limited amount of research which identifies historical concepts in textbooks. However, there are a number of pertinent issues that emerge from a review of the South African studies above. Generally, textbooks do not tend to contextualise sources completely (Bertram & Bharath, 2011; Firth, 2013; Morgan, 2010; Morgan & Henning, 2011); they tend to privilege secondary sources over primary sources (Morgan & Henning, 2011); and they present single perspectives (Morgan, 2010; Morgan &

Henning, 2011). Textbook activities tend to be generic and not historical in nature (Bertram & Bharath, 2011), or have the appearance of historical thinking but not be underpinned by historical concepts (Morgan & Henning, 2011).

History textbooks need to maintain a distinction between the knowledge of the subject and that of everyday or other subject knowledge (Firth, 2013), and provide students with opportunities to engage with the problems of the period being studied in a way which is underpinned by historical concepts (Morgan & Henning, 2011). Morgan (2011) showed how history textbooks can be analysed using Seixas' (2006) benchmarks of thinking, which informs this study's methodology.

My methodology has therefore been informed by the issue of the separation of historical and everyday/other subject knowledge, as well as the ways in which historical concepts can underpin a more specialised version of history at the Grade 7 level. The next chapter outlines in detail the methodology I used in conducting my analysis.

### Chapter 3. Methodology

#### 3.1. Introduction.

In this chapter I outline the methodology used in this study. Here I provide a detailed breakdown of the sample as well as the analysis process and analytic framework. The analytic framework consists of an outline of my categories of analysis and includes the coding procedures used as well as examples of items which exemplify this coding. In this way I show explicitly how I address the research question of how historical knowledge is specialised across four Grade 7 CAPS Social Studies textbooks.

**3.1.1. Sample.** Four textbooks were selected from the Western Cape Education Department's list of approved Grade 7 Social Sciences textbooks, as noted in Chapter 1. I selected Maskew Miller Longman's (MML) two textbooks, 'Platinum Social Sciences' (MML1) and 'Social Sciences Today' (MML2), both of which cost R91,38. I also selected Vivlia Publishers two textbooks, 'Viva Social Sciences' (VP1) and 'Our World Our Society' (VP2), each of which cost R71,37. There is therefore a R20,01 difference between each MML and VP textbook. Considering the financial restrictions that many schools face, I considered it interesting not only to investigate how different textbooks *within* a publisher construct and transmit specialised knowledge (i.e. MML1 vs. MML2 and VP1 vs. VP2), but also how this was accomplished across different publishers (i.e. MML vs. Vivlia).

Under the CAPS history curriculum for Grade 7, there are four topics that are studied, one per term. This is reflected in the textbooks, where each topic comprises one chapter. I therefore examined one chapter – and therefore one topic – in each of the selected textbooks.

The four curriculum topics presented in Grade 7 Social Sciences for History are:

- Term 1: The kingdom of Mali and the city of Timbuktu in the 14<sup>th</sup> century.
- Term 2: The Transatlantic slave trade
- Term 3: Colonisation of the Cape in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries
- Term 4: Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century.

(DBE, 2011, p. 16).

I selected the fourth term's topic – 'Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century' – for analysis, as I find the topic interesting with regards to the time period. Additionally, I taught it during my Postgraduate Certificate in Education teaching practice in 2011, and so am familiar with the content.

**3.1.2. Analysis Process.** In order to begin the process of analysis, I extracted the required chapters from each textbook and examined them in order to create categories for analysis. Two categories were created to organise the data, namely Narratives and Activities, with each being broken down into two sub-categories. Narratives comprised of Narrative Text with Visuals – henceforth referred to as simply 'Narrative Text' – and Glossaries. For the Narrative Text, my unit of analysis was defined as *the body of text, visuals, and other information which gave a focused historical account of a particular event and or individual*. My unit of analysis for the Glossaries was a single definition.

I broke down Activities into Questions and Sources. My unit of analysis for Questions was an individual question, whilst each Source was defined as one unit. Table 3.1 below provides a summary of the units which I generated as a result of these categories.

*Table 3.1. Outline of analytic categories identified, number of units per category, and total number of units analysed.*

<b>Textbook</b>	<b>No. of pages in chapter</b>	<b>No. of units of Narratives</b>	<b>No. of units of Activities</b>
<b>MML1</b>	25	96	78
<b>MML2</b>	20	102	40
<b>VP1</b>	22	85	54
<b>VP2</b>	28	139	59
<b>Total</b>	95	422	231

**3.1.3. Analytic Framework.** I analysed the relevant chapters in the four textbooks according to 2 broad areas: 1) general text structure and 2) the structuring of historical knowledge. I included general text structure in order to examine similarities and differences in the way in which knowledge was organised in the textbooks according to classification, selection and sequencing. The second category (the structuring of historical knowledge)

considered the more detailed and nuanced specialisation of the knowledge contained in the textbooks. Figure 3.1 below presents an outline of the categories of analysis.

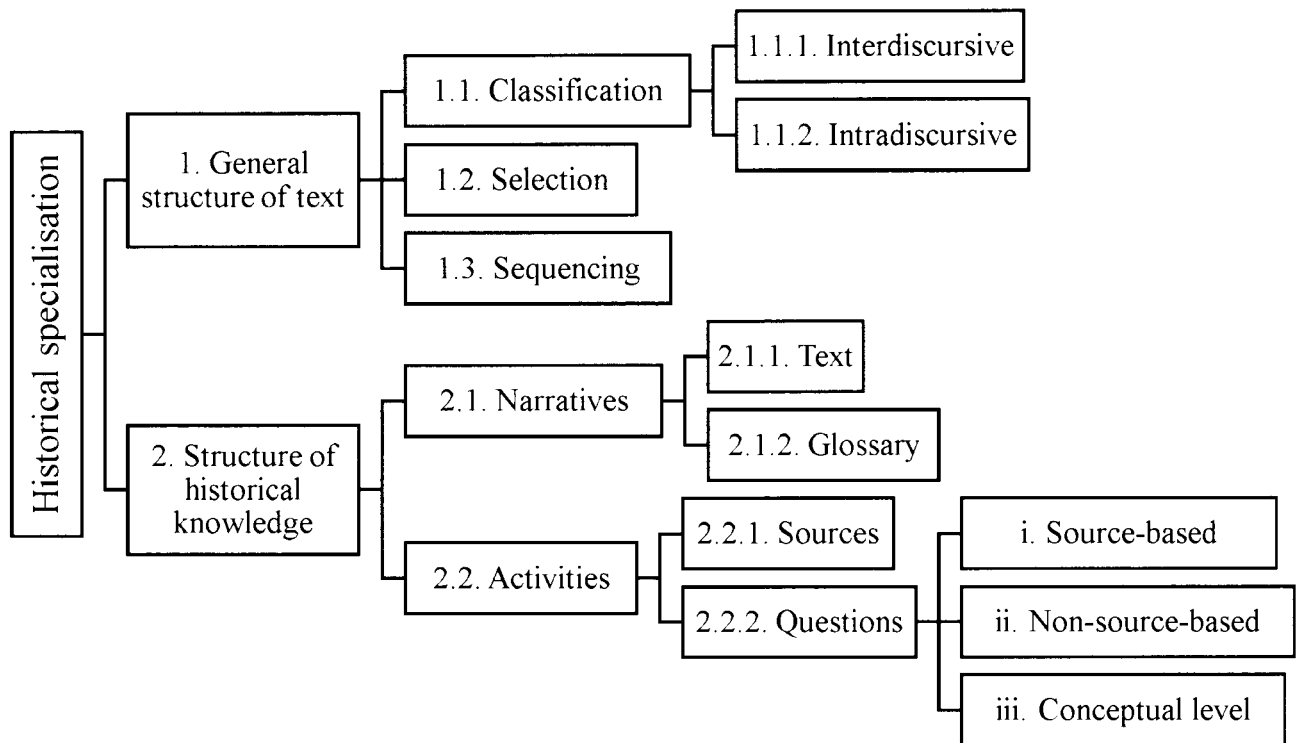


Figure 3.1. Outline of categories of analysis.

### 3.2. General Structure of Text

I considered the general structure of the text in relation to three categories, namely classification, selection and sequencing, following Bernstein (1977, 2000). I did this in order to study their overall organisation and structuring of knowledge, as well as the broad similarities and differences between the texts in relation to the selection and sequencing of the historical knowledge.

**3.2.1. Classification.** Classification refers to the degree to which contents are insulated from one another (Bernstein 1977, 2000). It is a useful conceptual resource for this study as it does not examine the particular contents, but rather the relationships between categories.

These contents may be agents (for example, teacher/students), spaces (for example,

community/school), discourses (for example, school subjects such as History/English), or discourses in terms of the boundary between everyday discourse and school knowledge.

Contents which have clearly defined boundaries between them are coded as being strongly classified ( $C^+$ ), whilst very weakly defined boundaries, where there is integration or blurring of boundaries, are coded as weakly classified ( $C^-$ ). In the case of this study, I considered interdiscursive and intradiscursive relations, which I have discussed further below.

**3.2.1.1. Interdiscursive.** Interdiscursive relations considered the strength of the classification between the History of the textbook and 1) everyday knowledge and 2) other school subjects. In both cases, the text's NarrativeText and Activities were analysed and a coding of the classification was recorded. The unit of analysis for this category was the entire selected chapter of the textbook. In order to arrive at this global coding, I coded units in the Narratives according to whether they were strongly ( $C^+$ ) or weakly classified ( $C^-$ ). As noted earlier, a unit of Narrative Text was defined as a body of text, visuals and other information which gave a focused historical account of a particular event or individual. A definition of a single term or word in the Glossaries was considered as being as a single unit. I did not see enough variation to warrant the use of stronger ( $C^{++}$ ) or weaker ( $C^{--}$ ) coding of classification.

Similarly, I coded each Question and each Source in the Activities as a unit. Each unit was then coded as being strongly ( $C^+$ ) or weakly ( $C^-$ ) classified. As previously noted in Table 3.1, I analysed a total of 422 units of Narratives and 231 units of Activities.

Tables 3.2 and 3.3 below show the coding scheme I used to analyse classification. Due to the difficulty in determining different levels of classification, Tables 3.2 and 3.3 represent the global coding of each chapter as either weakly or strongly classified. That is to say, a textbook with a larger proportion of weakly classified units would result in a weakly classified global coding, and vice versa for strongly classified units.

*Table 3.2. Classification table for Everyday Historical knowledge*

C+	C-
Narratives and Activities make no to occasional reference to everyday knowledge, and privilege historical knowledge.	Narratives and Activities make frequent to constant reference to everyday knowledge.

*Table 3.3. Classification table for Historical Other subject knowledge.*

C+	C-
Narratives and Activities make no to occasional reference to other subject knowledge, and privilege historical knowledge.	Narratives and Activities make frequent to constant reference to other subject knowledge.

In Chapter 4 I give a count of all instances of the weakening and strengthening of the classification across my units of analysis. In order to provide clarity as to what I was looking for, I have included Figure 3.2 as an example used by Bharath (2009)<sup>5</sup> in her research on history textbooks. Figure 3.2 below is an activity where students are required to infer why the illustrated individuals are ‘sore or sick’. Students are therefore required to use their everyday knowledge of sickness to identify “[w]hy...these people [are] not feeling well”. The illustrated boy in the foreground points out that one cannot simply look at someone and say “exactly why they are not well” and that this can only be done by “doctors, healers and other trained people”, emphasising the everyday knowledge that one goes to a health professional when sick or injured. There is neither historical content nor any connection to the development of medicine – the topic in question – in the Activity.

<sup>5</sup>I use this example rather than one from my own data as it provides a clearer example of weak classification (C-) between historical knowledge and everyday knowledge were found in my analysis.

**ACTIVITY 2 Why are these people not feeling well?**

The people in the picture are not feeling well because they are sore or sick.

Work with a partner and look at the picture. Try to explain why you think each person is not feeling well.



Figure 3.2. Example of weakening of classification (C<sup>-</sup>) between everyday and historical knowledge (“Shuters Social Sciences, Grade 6, Learner’s Book [2009, p. 117]”, as cited in Bharath, 2009, p. 99).

Figure 3.3 below exemplifies a weakening of classification (C<sup>-</sup>) between historical knowledge and other subject knowledge, as students are required to engage in a linguistic task about historical content. The Activity requires them to interact with the Narrative Text in a way which addresses *language* but is not necessarily *historical* in nature. That being said, it acts pedagogically in that it requires students to develop a more sophisticated historical lexicon with which they can describe and understand events in the topic, as opposed to using more ‘everyday’ terms such as ‘fighting’ instead of ‘conflict’. As there are 5 answers which are required, this has been coded as being 5 units of weakly classified questions.

**Activity 1 Understand terminology**

1. Read the information about European settlement at the Cape and write down the words that have the following meaning:
 

a) took over	d) fighting
b) border	e) local.
c) edge, dividing line	

Figure 3.3. Example of weakening of classification (C<sup>-</sup>) for historical/other subject knowledge (MML2, p. 182).

**3.2.1.2. Intradiscursive.** Intradiscursive relations considered the strength of the classification between the History topic of the chapter and other history topics (either in Grade 7 or other grades). These were identified in the same manner as their interdiscursive counterparts above, and were analysed according to Table 3.4 below.

*Table 3.4. Classification table for topic studied other history topics.*

C <sup>-</sup>	C <sup>-</sup>
Narratives and Activities make no to occasional reference to other history topics either in Grade 7 or in other grades.	Narratives and Activities makes frequent to constant reference to other history topics.

Figure 3.4 below is a paragraph outlining how slavery was abolished in the Cape. It provides an example of the weakening of classification between the Grade 7 topics of Term 3 ('Colonisation of the Cape in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries') and Term 4 ('Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century'), as can be seen by the use of the phrase 'As you saw in Topic 7'.

### **Abolition of slavery in the Cape**

As you saw in Topic 7, slaves from Africa and the East were used as workers in European colonies, including the Cape, for hundreds of years. But by the beginning of the 19th century many people in Britain were calling for an end to slavery because it was **inhumane**. All slaves in the British colonies were freed in December 1834, but they had to work for their former owners for another four years.

*Figure 3.4. Example of weakening of classification (C<sup>-</sup>) for topic studied other history topics (MML2, p. 190).*

Figure 3.5 below describes how African kingdoms lost land to the Voortrekkers and the British. It exemplifies the weakening of classification between the Grade 7 Term 4 topic ('Colonisation of the Cape in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries') and the Grade 8 Term 2 topic ('The Mineral Revolution in South Africa'), as can be seen by the use of the phrase 'which you will learn about in Grade 8'.

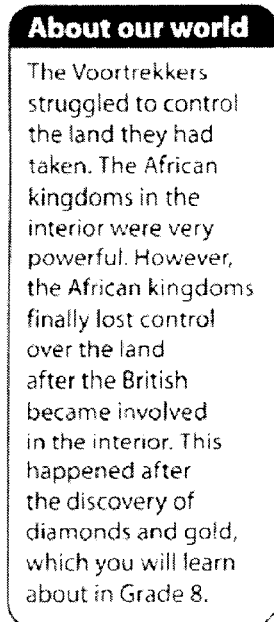


Figure 3.5. Example of weakening ( $C^-$ ) of classification between Grade 7 topic and other grade topic (MML1, p. 195).

**3.2.2. Selection.** Selection is a concept from Bernstein (2000) which is a part of framing. Framing concerns itself with control – that is to say, if the ‘transmitter’ controls the selection of material, then framing over selection is strong ( $F^{++}$  or  $F^+$ ). If the ‘receiver’ has (apparent) control over the selection of material, then framing over selection is weak ( $F^-$  or  $F^{--}$ ). It is normally used in research to refer to the relations between teacher (i.e. the ‘transmitter’) and students (i.e. the ‘receiver’). As this is a study on textbooks, however, I use framing to refer to the relationship between the curriculum as transmitter, and the textbook as receiver. I am therefore interested in how the curriculum externally frames the historical knowledge of the textbook. I use the notation  $F^{e++}$ , indicating external framing, either strong or weak. Due to a lack of variation, I did not see the worth of including the stronger categories of  $F^{+++}$  and  $F^{e-}$ , choosing instead to use only  $F^{e+}$  and  $F^{e-}$ .

In this study, selection refers to which historical content in the Narrative Text has been included. I determined similarities and differences in terms of selection by comparing the headings of all four textbooks’ chapters on the topic in terms of what was included and

excluded. I compared these topics to the CAPS document content and found strict adherence to CAPS document content, suggesting strong external framing ( $F^{\ominus}$ ).

In order to analyse selection in greater detail, I included a weighting measure to determine how much space had been allocated to the different sub-sections in each textbook. This was done by counting the number of Narrative Text units per sub-section. Each sub-section was calculated as a proportion of the total number of units from each book. In this way I could compare the weighting of the topics between and within publisher.

**3.2.3. Sequencing.** Sequencing is another dimension of Bernstein's (2000) concept of framing. As with selection, I used this aspect to refer to the relationship between the curriculum and the textbook in terms of external framing. Sequencing refers to the order in which content is presented in the textbook. I analysed sequencing in the same way as selection above, namely by comparing the headings of the relevant chapters in each textbook to the CAPS documents. As with selection, I found strict adherence to the CAPS document content sequence and will elaborate upon further this in the analysis section.

For both sequencing and selection, beyond external framing, I was interested in the similarities and differences between the textbooks at the level of the General Text Structure.

**3.2.4. Summary.** General Text Structure was analysed according to classification (both interdiscursive and intradiscursive), and external framing over sequencing and selection, as well as a consideration of the similarities and differences. Under selection, I determined the weighting of each section in order to allow for a more comprehensive understanding of selection.

3.3. Structure of Historical Knowledge

Once the overall structure of the text had been determined, I analysed the text’s historical knowledge. Here I considered in more detail how historical knowledge was specialised in each of the four relevant textbook chapters. The text for analysis was divided into two large main sub-categories, namely the Narratives and the Activities, in order to investigate what students *had to know*, and what students *had to do*, respectively. Figure 3.6 below shows a page as taken from a textbook and how it was categorised for analysis.

**Kora and Griqua (Groupings of people of mixed descent and runaway slaves who had escaped from the colony): traded manufactured goods, tobacco and pack oxen from the Cape.**

**The Kora**


Kora groups included Khoikhoi who had lost their land, runaway slaves, and people of mixed European and Khoikhoi descent. Most of the first Kora people had worked on Dutch farms and spoke Dutch. They knew how to use guns and rode horses.

The Kora lived in groups along the Gariep River. From here they traded with, and also raided, their Namaqua and Tlhaping (Southern Tswana) neighbours. They got from them cattle, ivory and skins and traded them at the Cape for guns and ammunition.


The Kora also got goods to trade from the Cape like material for making clothes, tobacco that the Dutch farmers grew, and pack oxen. Pack oxen were animals trained to be ridden, to carry loads and to pull wagons. The Kora got trained oxen from Khoikhoi people in the colony. The Kora traded all these goods with the different groups living north of the Gariep River and beyond.

**New word**

■ **sovereignty – independent area**



Kora horseman with a gun



Khoikhoi men were skilled in training oxen.

**Activity 3.1**

1. Use Source L. Where were the northern frontiers of the Cape colony in 1848?
2. Who were the groups trading north of the colony in the early 19th century?
3. Why did the Cape Governor claim the land between the Gariep and Vaal rivers in the 1840s?

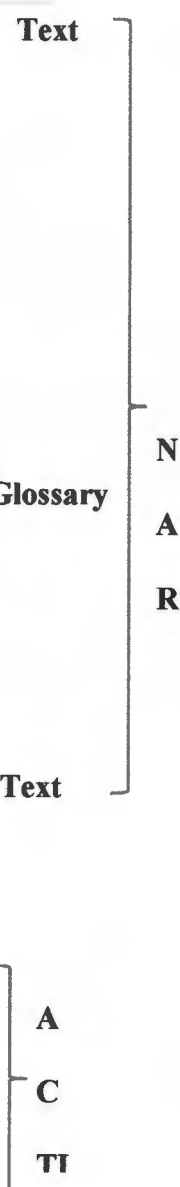


Figure 3.6. Complete page from textbook (VP1, p. 205).

**3.3.1. Data Categories for Analysis.** The term ‘Narrative Text’ was used to identify what students had to *know*, prior to the Activities section. As noted previously, a unit of Narrative Text was defined as being *the body of text, visuals, and other information which gave a focused historical account of a particular event and/or individual*. Below I explain the conceptual categories used to analyse ‘Narratives’ and ‘Glossary’, as well as ‘Activities’ in turn. Figure 3.7 provides an outline of the data categories which were created for the analysis of the Structure of Historical Knowledge.

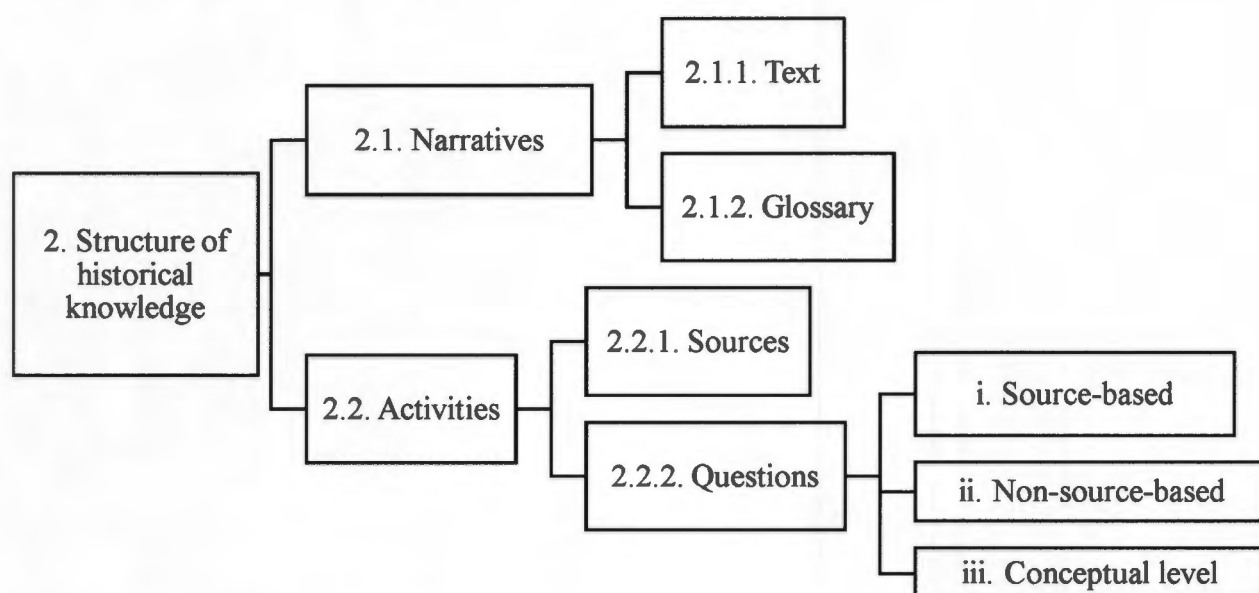


Figure 3.7. Outline of data categories for analysis of Structure of Historical Knowledge.

**3.3.2. Narrative Text.** The Narrative Text was analysed according to four of Seixas’ (2006) six ‘benchmarks’ of historical thinking. These have been outlined in more detail in the Literature Review, but as a reminder the six concepts are: 1) Historical Significance; 2) Primary Source Evidence; 3) Continuity & Change; 4) Cause & Consequence; 5) Historical Perspectives; and 6) Moral Dimensions. I excluded 2) Primary Source Evidence and 5) Historical Perspectives as they are better suited for inclusion in the analysis of Activities. In order to determine how historical knowledge is specialised in this study, I looked for these concepts in the Narrative Text in all four textbooks’ relevant chapters.

Each instance of a concept in a unit of Narrative Text was identified and recorded according to Seixas' ways of demonstrating mastery for that particular concept and tallied. It was initially decided to keep these different ways of mastery and not 'collapse' them in order to differentiate the varying ways in which students were given access to the concepts. For example, the concept of Historical Significance has two ways of showing mastery, namely "Demonstrate how an event, person or development is significant either by showing how it is embedded in a larger, meaningful narrative OR by showing how it sheds light on an enduring or emerging issue", and "Explain how and why historical significance varies over time and from group to group".

On the basis of each of Seixas' (2006) concepts, it was possible to determine the conceptual focus/foci of the whole chapter. In other words, if 5 instances of Concept 1 in one textbook were recorded out of a total number of 50 instances of concepts, then Concept 1 would have a proportion of 5/50 in that textbook. This allowed for greater validity in terms of comparison across textbooks. Below I explain each of the concepts in more detail and provide examples of how I identified each historical concept in the Narrative Text.

**3.3.2.1. Historical Significance (Seixas, 2006).** I coded this category by looking for instances in each unit of Narrative Text. In general, I found instances of Historical Significance were contained in one paragraph. When coding, I attempted to identify the ways in which Historical Significance was presented to students, namely if the Narrative Text tended to:

1. Demonstrate how an event, person or development is significant either by showing how it is embedded in a larger, meaningful narrative OR by showing how it sheds light on an enduring or emerging issue.
2. Explain how and why historical significance varies over time and from group to group.

(Seixas, 2006, p. 3)

In working through the data I found it useful to generate my own definition for Historical Significance as follows: the text highlights this event/person/development as being important in the historical or present context, and provides reasoning for this.

Figure 3.8 below exemplifies one instance where students are directed to the historical significance of Chief Maqoma in a single paragraph. I identified this as being an instance of Historical Significance as the Text highlights Maqoma's impressive military leadership, intelligence and interest in preserving the Xhosa way of life during the Frontier Wars. This information is highlighted despite the Xhosa having lost the war, suggesting that Chief Maqoma had a significant role to play in the larger narrative of the time period.

Although the British won this war, Maqoma has been described as one of the greatest commanders of the Cape Frontier Wars because of his intelligence and military leadership. He tried to maintain the traditional lands, power and social structures of the Xhosa people which were being destroyed by British colonisation.

*Figure 3.8. Example of historical significance in Narrative Text (VP2, p. 221).*

**3.3.2.2. Continuity & Change (Seixas, 2006).** I coded this category by looking for instances in each unit of Narrative Text. When coding, initially I attempted to differentiate between the ways of mastery outlined by Seixas (2006, p. 5), where the Narrative Text tended to:

- CO&CH1. Explain how some things continue and others change, in any period of history.
- CO&CH2. Identify changes over time in aspects of life that we ordinarily assume to be continuous; and to identify continuities in aspects of life we ordinarily assume to have changed over time.
- CO&CH3. Understand that periodization and judgments of progress and decline can vary depending upon purpose and perspective.

In contrast to Historical Significance, I found that Continuity & Change was sufficiently dominant and varied in the text to warrant differentiating between these different ways of mastery. Instances of either change or continuity over time were tallied, as well as any

instances where the two were linked together. Figure 3.9 is an outline of the development of Grahamstown over time, and does this over five paragraphs as most instances of Continuity & Change were found to do. I identified it as being CO&CH2 as it presents an overview of how Grahamstown changed from being an army headquarters in 1812 to being a town with civilians in 1846. It also demonstrates how Grahamstown was continually occupied by British soldiers during this time period.

Grahamstown was established in 1812 as the British headquarters on the eastern frontier. Many British soldiers were brought into the area. The British army that arrived in the Eastern Cape included about 50 Khoikhoi soldiers. The soldiers were told that they were there to keep the peace, not to make war. But in 1812 they were involved in a war against the Xhosa, and again in 1819.

The British soldiers were used not only to fight in the wars, but also to build roads, bridges and hospitals. They built many of the towns in the Eastern Cape, like Grahamstown, King William's Town and Queenstown.

Before 1820, the soldiers and officials in the Eastern Cape were very isolated. Their families were far away and it took months for a letter to get from the Eastern Cape to England. However, the situation changed in 1820, when thousands of British settlers arrived in the Eastern Cape to settle and farm.

After the arrival of the settlers, the British government sent government officials to the Eastern Cape to manage the area and they brought their families with them. They built schools, banks, shops and hospitals, which led to people coming to trade in these new towns.

By the end of 1846, the British had more than 2000 soldiers and officials on the eastern frontier as well as a troop of more than 10 000 local volunteers, and paid soldiers and army workers.

*Figure 3.9. Example of CO&CH2 in Narrative Text (MML2, p. 188).*

**3.3.2.3. Cause & Consequence (Seixas, 2006).** I identified this concept by examining the units of Narrative Text and looking for Cause & Consequence relationships. Sometimes these relationships could be identified in the same sentence or across paragraphs. When coding, I identified Cause & Consequence in the Narrative Text when it adhered to Seixas' (2006, p. 6) ways of mastery in that it tended to:

CA&CO1. Identify the interplay of intentional human action, and constraints on human actions in causing change.

CA&CO2. Identify various types of causes for a particular event, using one or more accounts of the event.

CA&CO3. Be able to construct counterfactuals (e.g., if Britain had not declared war on Germany in 1914, then...)

Unlike with the other concepts, Cause & Consequence was the predominant concept found in the Narrative Text. I therefore differentiated between the various ways of mastery. Figure 3.10 below shows two instances of Cause & Consequence, both of which “identify various types of causes for a particular event, using one or more accounts of the event” (CA&CO2). I have underlined cause relationships in light blue and their respective consequences in dark blue. The first cause-consequence relationship relates to the creation of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal republics by the Voortrekkers (Consequence) *because* they did not want to be under the rule of the British (Cause). The second cause-consequence relationship refers to how the Boers used forced labour (Consequence) *because* they could not get African farmers to work for them whilst the African farmers still had their own land on which to work (Cause).

### Case study: The lives of inboekselings

In the Cape Colony, magistrates could register orphan Khoikhoi and San children to work for boer farmers until they grew up. These orphan children were called **inboekselings**. However, many inboekselings never left their masters and remained servants for the rest of their lives. Boers who left the Cape Colony continued to use this kind of labour. Voortrekker groups trekked into land that was already settled by African farmers in their Great Trek. They wanted to be free of British rule, and

so they set up their own republics, and called them the Orange Free State and the Transvaal.

The Voortrekkers needed people to work on their farms. The African farmers did not want to work for the boers while they still had their own land. Boers got their labour through a system of forced labour. The boers in the interior also used the inboekseling system. They exchanged or kidnapped young African children and kept them as unpaid servants.

Figure 3.10. Two examples of CA&CO2 in Narrative Text (MML1, p. 195).

Initially I experienced some difficulties in differentiating between Cause & Consequence and Continuity & Change, as Cause and Change can appear similar. Therefore in my analysis process, I identified Cause as being either intentional or unintentional *actions* which occurred over a shorter period of time, such as the Voortrekkers’ decision to form their own republics in Figure 3.10. In this sense, it could have been identified in the historical

context. By contrast I identified Change as it would be described in a ‘hindsight’ fashion, much as historians can identify how certain aspects of Grahamstown changed and others continued over a longer period of time in Figure 3.9.

**3.3.2.4. Historical Perspectives.** This study is not concerned with bias or representation of individuals or groups. I therefore decided to simply use two categories – namely single or multiple perspectives. Perspectives were therefore identified as being single or multiple. Therefore Seixas’ (2006) explication of Historical Perspectives was not used in analysing the Narrative Text and Visuals, but was instead used in examining the Activities.

Figure 3.11 below shows an example of Narrative Text where there are multiple perspectives presented of a particular issue, namely the ownership of land. The first and second paragraphs provide the student with the then-held views or perspectives of the Xhosa and white farmers, whilst the third paragraph provides a historical ‘overview’, or a third perspective provided by the textbook author.

The Xhosa arrived in the south-eastern part of South Africa (today the Eastern Cape) many hundreds of years ago. They were maize and cattle farmers. They believed that land was for the use of all the people. People didn’t own land. The chief of a village would give people land so that they could plant crops. There was also communal grazing land for everyone’s livestock. The Xhosa’s most precious possession was their cattle. Cattle gave them milk and meat, and wealth was measured in terms of the number of cattle a person had. Cattle were used for lobola and for ancestor worship. Without good grazing land, it was impossible to keep good herds.

White farmers had very different ideas about land. They brought their ideas all the way from Europe, where people could own property, and buy and sell land. It was very important to them that all adult males should own a farm.

The situation in the Eastern Cape in the early 19th century was as follows:

- Three groups of people:
  - the Xhosa, who had lived there for hundreds of years
  - the trekboers, who moved into the area from the Cape
  - the British settlers, who arrived from Britain in 1820.
- Each group needed land for their families and their livestock. Each group had a deep belief that it was their right to be there.

*Figure 3.11. Example of historical perspectives presented in Narrative Text (MML2, p. 183).*

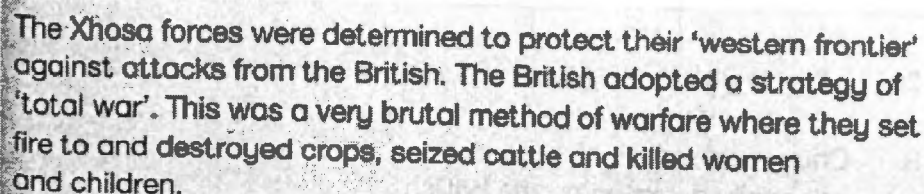
**3.3.2.5. Moral dimensions.** I identified this concept in the units of Narrative Text, and initially attempted to differentiate between instances in the Narrative Text which tended to:

1. Make judgments about actions of people in the past, recognizing the historical context in which they were operating.
2. Use historical narratives to inform judgments about moral and policy questions in the present.

(Seixas, 2006, p. 8)

However, as with all of the concepts – excluding Continuity & Change and Cause & Consequence – this concept was not sufficiently predominant to warrant differentiation between these two ways of mastery. As with the other concepts, I therefore redefined Moral Dimensions in relation to my data, as: a moral judgment of actions according to their context which may include comparing this to similar actions in the present.

Figure 3.12 provides a summary of how the British adopted their strategy of ‘total war’ against the Xhosa. The authors explicitly present their judgment of the British’ actions as being “brutal” in response to the Xhosa’s determination not to surrender their frontier.



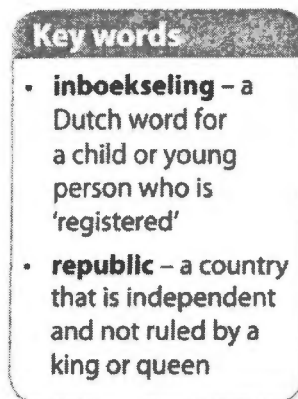
The Xhosa forces were determined to protect their ‘western frontier’ against attacks from the British. The British adopted a strategy of ‘total war’. This was a very brutal method of warfare where they set fire to and destroyed crops, seized cattle and killed women and children.

Figure 3.12. Example of Moral Dimensions in Narrative Text (VP1, p. 219).

**3.3.3. Glossary.** It was decided to include this category to examine the definitions of words found in the Narrative Text which are given in all of the textbooks. These are usually in bold and a list can be found on the side of the page, next to the Narrative Text in which the word is embedded. As this study is interested in the development of historical consciousness, I divided this category into I) general definitions, and II) historical clarifications. My interest in examining the Glossaries was to determine how much emphasis is placed on the historical as opposed to the general or linguistic definitions.

**3.3.3.1. General definitions.** Definitions which were classified as being general in nature, were those used across contexts. That is to say, their meaning in the context of the Narrative Text is general, and has the same meaning in another context, potentially outside of history. For example, Figure 3.13 contains the word ‘republic’ and defines this according to its ‘dictionary’ meaning as being “a country that is independent and not ruled by a king or queen”.

**3.3.3.2. Historical.** These definitions were those considered to be strongly bound by the context in which they are used in the Narrative Text. Their meaning is specific to a time and/or place, such as the word “inboekselings” in Figure 3.13 which means “a Dutch word for a child or young person who is ‘registered’”. Students may never have known or even used this word outside of this topic and chapter, and so it is integral that they understand this word in a historical sense – laden with specific meaning – that allows them to process the rest of the Narrative Text.



*Figure 3.13. Example of a Glossary showing a general/linguistic and a historical definition (MML1, p. 195).*

**3.3.4. Activities.** The third part of the Structure of Historical Knowledge that was analysed was the Activities. These generally followed the Narrative Text, and required students to engage with the text in a particular way. Activities were often signalled by the heading ‘Activity’ and generally consisted of Sources as well as Questions. For the purposes of analysis, I divided the Activities section into Sources and Questions.

**3.3.4.1. Sources.** Sources were defined as either texts or visuals which were used in the Activities, and which were often marked by the word ‘Source’ and given an identifier (e.g. Source A/B/C or Source 1/2/3). Once identified, these sources were then analysed according to the number of Smuts’ (2006) context-setting markers provided by the textbook’s authors. The purpose of this category of analysis was to get a broad idea as to how fully the textbooks’ Sources had been contextualised with the expectation that students would be required to comment on authorship.

Five markers were used, namely A) the name of the source or its title, B) the author or creator of the source, C) the date of creation or publishing, D) identification of the event that is depicted or described, and E) the identification of people if they are depicted. Sources which were fully contextualised therefore showed 5/5 (for those depicting people) and 4/4 (for those which did not depict people) context-setting markers. These were considered to be more historically specialised as they provide information which historians require in order to examine and use such sources. Due to difficulty in identifying primary versus secondary sources as a result of secondary referencing, I did not differentiate between these two types in my analysis.

Figure 3.14 was therefore marked out of five, as it depicts individuals visually and was coded as being fully contextualised. While the photograph could not have been created in 2007, this was the date provided to students. However it is unclear whether the Source was created in 1877 or depicts events in 1877. I therefore coded both dates in order to give a general idea of the degree of context setting. Table 3.5 below shows what markers were present and how these were identified:

*Table 3.5. Smuts’ (2006) context-setting markers present in Figure 3.14.*

Marker	Identification
A) name of source or title	“ <i>New History of South Africa</i> , Tafelberg, Cape Town... pp. 151-2.”
B) author or creator of source	“H Giliomee and B Mbenga, eds.”
C) date of creation or publishing	1877/2007

D) identification of the event depicted or described	“A missionary’s description of how inboekselings were obtained from a village...”
E) identification of people	“...and a photograph of an inboekseling worker with his Boer employer in 1877.”

‘A group of Boers came and demanded children. The Boers began to seize them and put them into wagons. The men of the village tried to stop them, but the Boers fired and most of the men were killed defending their families. The wagons were loaded with children and driven off to be sold to farmers as inboekselings.’



Adapted from: H Giliomee and B Mbenga, eds. *New History of South Africa*, Tafelberg, Cape Town, 2007, pp. 151-2

**Source 5:** A missionary’s description of how inboekselings were obtained from a village, and a photograph of an inboekseling child worker with his Boer employer in 1877.

*Figure 3.14. Example of a Source giving both text and a visual (MML1, p. 195).*

Following the coding of all the Sources, I combined each textbook’s results for their markers. For example, if a textbook had only two poorly-contextualised Sources, one depicting people (i.e. 2/5) and one which does not depict people (1/4), I would add these together to result in an average of 3/9 for that textbooks. The Sources in that textbook would therefore present, on average, 30% of the context-setting markers available.

**3.3.4.2. Questions.** This section attempted to analyse what types of historical knowledge students were expected to engage with, in order to determine the degree of specialisation required for completing tasks. Whilst the analysis of Narratives considered how specialised the historical knowledge to be *learned* was, this section considered how specialised the knowledge was that students were expected to *use* in answering the Questions.

The analysis of Questions was conducted in two broad categories, namely Source-Based and Non-Source-Based. Over the four textbooks, there were 189 Questions asked in the Activities. Of these, 83 were Source-Based whilst the remaining 93 were Non-Source-Based.

44 Questions did not require students to engage in historical concepts, and so were not coded<sup>6</sup>. Figure 3.15 below is an example of a question which could not be coded for Source- or Non-Source-Based, as it does not require students to think historically, but rather ensures that students have understood the concept of an ‘inboekseling’. It is therefore a comprehension type question.

**1. Give a definition of an inboekseling in your own words.**

*Figure 3.15. Example of question which could not be coded as containing historical concepts (MML1, p. 195).*

Figure 3.16 below is another example of a Question which could not be coded for Source- or Non-Source-Based, as it requires students to use their everyday linguistic resources to determine which towns were named by the British. Students therefore rely on their knowledge of English names as opposed to any historical knowledge to answer the Question. It is therefore an everyday Question.

1. Which of the following towns in the Eastern Cape do you think were named by the British?
  - a) Grahamstown
  - b) Keiskammahoek
  - c) Queenstown
  - d) King William's Town
  - e) Cintsa
  - f) Peddie
  - g) Fort Beaufort
  - h) Alice
  - i) Cathcart
  - j) Port Elizabeth.

*Figure 3.16. Linguistic or everyday type Question which could not be coded as historical knowledge (MML2, p. 188)*

Questions were analysed in three stages. First, I analysed Source-Based Questions in relation according to the DoE's (2002, as cited in Smuts, 2006) rubric for using Sources. This rubric refers to the different levels at which students must engage with Sources. Secondly, I analysed all Questions – both Source- and Non-Source-Based – according to five of Seixas'

<sup>6</sup> The discrepancy between these totals will be resolved in “3.3.4.2. ii. Non-Source-Based and Source-Based: conceptual demands.”

(2006) concepts. Thirdly, I analysed all Questions – both Source- and Non-Source-Based – according to their Conceptual Level, as outlined in work by Armbruster and Ostertag (1989). The details of each stage of analysis has been outlined below.

*i. Source-Based: use of Sources.* Informed by Seixas' (2006) concept of 'using primary evidence', I analysed how students were required to engage with Sources. Smuts (2006) has adapted the Department of Education's (2002) 'working with sources' rubric, which was included for use in the RNCS. A similar rubric is not found in the Senior Phase CAPS curriculum, and so I recruited the RNCS schema for coding the use of Sources. Table 3.6 below shows this rubric, which is comprised of four levels that increase in specialisation from Level 1 to level 4.

*Table 3.6. Adaptation of DoE's (2002, in Smuts, 2006) rubric for working with Sources.*

Level		Specialisation
1	Extract evidence from Sources.	Low ↓ High
2	Straightforward interpretations by using evidence from one Source and broader knowledge to show an understanding of the period/event/issue.	
3	Straightforward interpretations by using evidence from more than one Source and broader knowledge to show an understanding of the period/event/issue.	
4	Complex interpretations often involving more than one Source. These questions look at aspects such as bias, reliability, usefulness, the use of organising concepts (similarity and difference; cause and consequence; chronology; change and continuity) to explain contrasts, comparisons, etc., empathy and extended writing in history.	

Figure 3.17 below is an example of a purely Source-Based Activity, where all of the questions require students to use Sources in answering questions. I have included the necessary Sources in Figures 3.18, 3.19 and 3.20 below.

**ACTIVITY 2** Understand points of view

1. Use Source C on page 184 to explain how the Xhosa were dispossessed of their land.
2. Use Source D above to explain why Colonel John Graham thought he had the right to this dispossession.
3. From whose point of view – the British or the Xhosa – is Source E written?
4. Use Source E to say how Ndlambe explained why the Xhosa had the right to claim the land in the Zuurveld.
5. From Source E, would you say the British were savages? Explain your answer.

*Figure 3.17. Example of Questions which ask students to use Sources (MML1, p. 185).*

Questions 2 and 4 are at Level 2 because they require students to make a straightforward interpretation of evidence from one Source. Both of these Sources present a belief or viewpoint of two individuals and require students to interpret them using broader knowledge of the relevant historical period. Question 3 is at Level 3 because although it only refers to a single Source (Figure 3.20), students need to use their broader knowledge as well as information from the Narrative Text to answer the question. Additionally, Students must compare Source D (Figure 3.19) and Source E (Figure 3.20) in order to gauge British viewpoints.

Lastly, Questions 1 and 5 are at Level 4 because although they ask students to use one Source, the Questions require students to use more than one Source and information contained in the chapter to answer the question. Additionally, Question 1 asks about Source C (Figure 3.18), which shows changing borders over time, and Question 5 asks students to make a moral, historical judgment about the actions and therefore nature of the British, based on evidence presented in Source E (Figure 3.20).

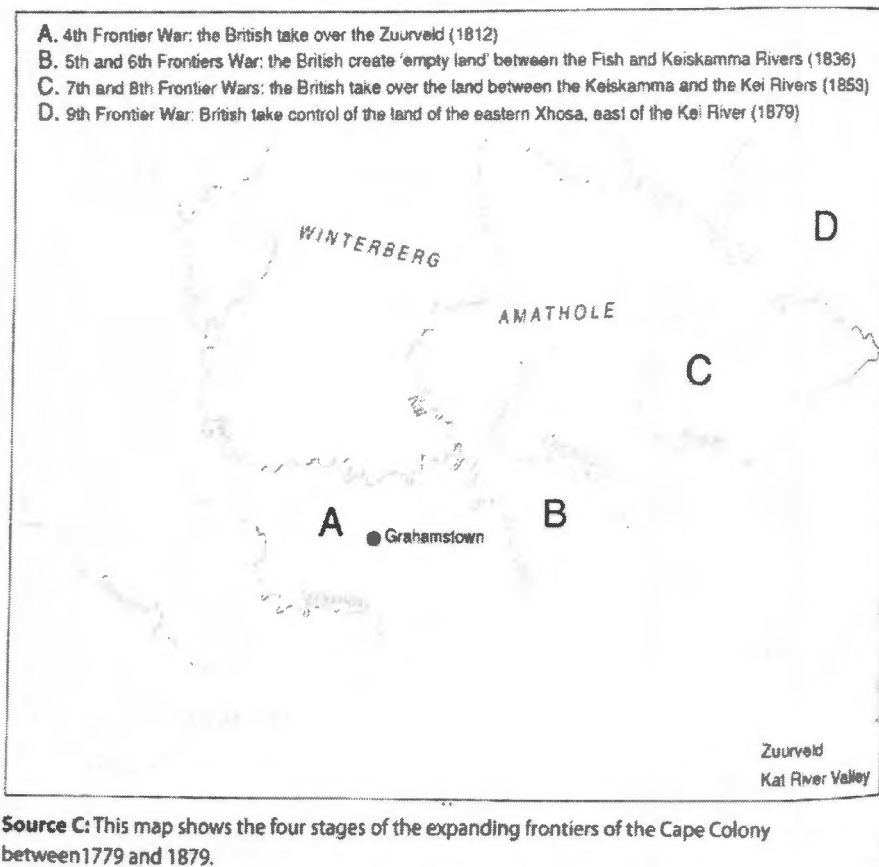


Figure 3.18. Source C which is required to answer Question 1 (MML1, p. 185).

**Source D:** Colonel John Graham said in 1811: 'My intention is now to attack the savages in a way which I confidently hope will leave a lasting impression on their memories and show them our vast superiority in all situations. I have ordered 500 men to enter the wood on foot ... with orders to stay there so long as one of the savages remains alive.'

Figure 3.19. Source D which is required to answer Question 2 (MML1, p. 185).

In one famous encounter between Ndlambe and Colonel John Graham, the commander of the British forces, Ndlambe shouted at him, shook his spear and shield, stamped his foot on the ground and said, "This land is mine!"

The British tried to clear the Zuurveld area of any remaining African inhabitants. They scoured the dense bush along all the river beds, under instructions to shoot anything that moved. To prevent people from returning to their homes, all villages were burnt and grain stores destroyed.

www.ndlambe.gov.za

Source E: British try to clear the Zuurveld

Figure 3.20. Source E which is required to answer Questions 3 – 5 (MML1, p. 185).

The inclusion of the Source-Based rubric was considered important as History can often become a comprehension exercise, where students are merely asked to engage at Level 1 (Bertram, 2008). As Bertram (2008, p. 168) notes, this is concerning as “learners are simply not expected to think about the source as an historical document.” Therefore increasing the level at which students are expected to engage with Sources requires them to engage in more specialised activity in relation to historical knowledge.

ii. *Non-Source-Based and Source-Based: conceptual demands.* As explained earlier, there were 76 Source-Based questions and 93 Non-Source-Based questions. There was an overlap for 15 Questions which were Source-Based but which also fitted the requirements for Non-Source-Based Questions. This can be seen in Figure 3.21 below, where students must use a Source to inform themselves about the context of slavery at the time, but which also asks them to consider the Moral Dimensions of slavery at the time.

'When men purchase their fellow creatures like cattle, they come to view them as cattle. The slave is always associated in the mind of the owner with his value in money'.

Adapted from: Pamphlet in the South African Library, Cape Town. *Remarks on the demoralising influence of slavery.* By a resident at the Cape of Good Hope, 1828

Source Q: The harmful effect of slavery

2. Use Source Q on page 192 to explain why slavery was inhuman and cruel.

Figure 3.21. Source and its associated Question which is both Source-Based and Non-Source-Based (MML1, p. 192 - 193)

Non-Source-Based Questions – and Source-Based Questions which fitted this category – therefore referred to questions where students were required to produce an account.

Questions were analysed drawing on Seixas' (2006) identification of historical concepts, i.e. a) Historical Significance, b) Continuity & Change, c) Cause & Consequence, d) Historical Perspectives, and e) Moral Dimensions. My interest here was in what kind of account each Question required learners to produce with regards to these concepts.

As in Narratives above, each Question was coded according to Seixas' sub-categories for that particular concept and tallied. I initially intended to differentiate between Seixas' different ways of mastery for each concept in order to examine *how* historical knowledge is specialised. However, some concepts were not sufficiently prevalent to warrant such a distinction, and I have therefore only differentiated between these different ways of mastery for the more frequently used historical concepts. In this way, the analysis aims to highlight the nuances of the dominant historical concepts in the Activities.

As with Narratives above, following a tally of each of Seixas' (2006) concepts, I was able to determine the proportion of each concept with regards to the whole chapter. This allowed for greater validity in terms of comparison across and within textbooks.

*a. Historical Significance.* As with the Narratives, this concept was not dominant enough to warrant differentiating between the different ways of mastery. I therefore identified Historical Significance in Questions as: the Question asks the student to highlight this event/person/development as being important in the historical or present context, and provide reasoning for this.

Figure 3.22 below requires students to make a judgment about Maqoma's position as a chief in the context of the frontier wars studied in the chapter. Therefore, students are directed to his significance and are required to demonstrate why this is so.

5. Use all the evidence in this section to write a paragraph of about 60 words explaining why Maqoma is considered to be one of the greatest Xhosa chiefs in South Africa's 19<sup>th</sup> century frontier wars.

Figure 3.22. Example of question asking about Historical Significance (VP2, p. 222).

*b. Continuity & Change.* As with Historical Significance above, Continuity & Change was not a prevalent enough concept to differentiate between the Seixas' ways of mastery in the Activities. This is in contrast to its prevalence in the Narrative Text for this concept. I therefore defined this concept more simply as: the Question asks the student to outline how things have changed over time OR how things have continued OR both. Instances of either Change or Continuity over time were tallied as well as any instances where the two were linked together. Figure 3.23 below asked students to identify changes in the eastern frontier in a certain time period using a Source, and so was coded as being Source-Based as well as Non-Source-Based.

3. In this topic you have read about 'expanding frontiers'. Use Source D and explain how the eastern frontier expanded between 1812 and 1853.

Figure 3.23. Example of question asking students to identify Change (VP1, p. 195).

*c. Cause & Consequence.* This concept was sufficiently prevalent to warrant differentiating between the different ways of mastery in the Activities. I therefore coded Questions on Cause and Consequence as asking students to:

- CA&CO1. Identify the interplay of intentional human action, and constraints on human actions in causing change OR  
 CA&CO2. Identify various types of causes for a particular event, using one or more accounts of the event OR  
 CA&CO3. Be able to construct counterfactuals (e.g., if Britain had not declared war on Germany in 1914, then...)

(Seixas, 2006, p. 6)

I could find no instances of CA&CO3 across all four textbooks, but was able to find

CA&CO1 and CA&CO2. Figure 3.24 below provides students with a Consequence – using stone for wall building – and asks students to explain the Causes for it. It was therefore coded

as CA&CO1, as students must provide the answer that there were few trees in the area and so the Tswana had to use stone to build their walls.

**1. Why did some Tswana groups start using stone for building walls?**

*Figure 3.24. Example of question asking students about CA&CO1 (VP1, p. 209).*

By contrast, Figure 3.25 below asks students to identify a cause for the British colonising the Cape. However, above this question the textbook notes that “There is not only one correct answer so you may not always have the same answer as your partner”. I therefore coded this Question as CA&CO2.

**1. One of the reasons why the British colonised the Cape was .....**

*Figure 3.25. Example of question asking students about CA&CO2 (VP2, p. 230).*

*d. Historical Perspectives.* As noted in the Literature Review, Seixas’ (2006) notion of ‘historical perspectives’ is similar to Yilmaz’ (2007) concept of ‘historical empathy’.

Therefore questions which asked students to take Historical Perspectives required them to:

1. Recognize presentism in historical accounts.
2. Use evidence and understanding of the historical context, to answer questions of why people acted the way they did (or thought what they did) even when their actions seem at first irrational or inexplicable or different from we would have done or thought.

(Seixas, 2006, p. 7)

as well as to:

1. Indicate that the past is different from the present and a historical outcome is specific to time and place.
2. Explain the perspectives they take and their consequences for the historical participants involved.
3. Develop factually accurate perspectives on the basis of historical evidence.
4. And demonstrate the ability to distinguish between past perspectives and shift skilfully from one perspective to another.

(Yilmaz, 2007, p. 335)

I decided to combine Seixas’ and Yilmaz’ notions into a single conceptual category to analyse the Activities as follows:

**HP1. Recognise the context in which perspectives are based and shift between past and present perspectives.**

HP2. Explain people's actions/thoughts in the past without tempering this with present-day notions, based on factually accurate historical evidence.

In Figure 3.26 below, Question 1 was coded as HP1 as it requires students to identify perspectives – 'attitude' – of Chief Maqoma by understanding the context in which they were held. Question 2 was coded as HP2 as it requires students to assume the Perspective of the British and therefore to provide explanations for their actions based on this Perspective.

### **ACTIVITY 3** Use sources to find point of view

1. Read Sources G to K. Copy the table below in your exercise book. Place a tick in the column that describes the attitude in the source towards Maqoma. Explain your answer.

Source	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Explain your answer
F				
G				
H				
I				
J				
K				

2. The fact that the British sent Maqoma to Robben Island says something about how the British regarded him. Use your own knowledge and Sources H, I, J and K to explain why you think the British sent Maqoma to Robben Island.

Figure 3.26. Example of questions which require students to engage in thinking about Historical Perspectives (MML1, p. 187).

*e. Moral Dimensions.* As noted in Narratives above, this concept was not sufficiently predominant to warrant differentiating between the different ways in which students can show mastery of Moral Dimensions. I therefore used the same question as in the Narratives, namely, "Does the Question ask the student to judge (morally) how individuals acted according to their context, comparing this perhaps to similar actions in the present?"

Figure 3.27 below shows a Question which was coded as tapping Moral Dimensions as it requires students to make a historically-based judgment of the British's actions, taking into account the evidence presented in the Narrative Text. It requires students to use a Source and was therefore coded as Source-Based and Non-Source-Based.

5. From Source E, would you say the British were savages? Explain your answer.

*Figure 3.27. Example of question asking about Moral Dimensions (MML1, p. 185).*

This second stage of the analysis of the Questions – both Source- and Non-Source-Based Questions – aimed to answer the overarching research question of how historical knowledge is specialised with regards to student productions. Using Seixas' (2006) historical concepts, I attempted to identify these concepts in the Questions in the Activities. The next and final stage of the analysis of the Questions is outlined below, where I determined the Conceptual Level of every Question.

*iii. Conceptual level.* This category attempted to capture the difficulty level of all of the questions. Each question – either Source-Based or Non-Source-Based – was therefore analysed according to Armbruster and Ostertag's (1989) notion of 'level of thought', which I have referred to as 'Conceptual Level'. Dissatisfied with three classificatory schemes which are often used to analyse questions in texts, the authors combined three of these, namely Bloom's taxonomy, Barrett's level of questions, and Pearson and Johnson's taxonomy of question-answer relationships (see Armbruster & Ostertag, 1989, p. 5 for more details). Their work is concerned with the role that questions play in assisting students to learn the subject matter of Social Sciences and Science.

'Level of thought', or Conceptual Level, is one out of the five dimensions of their classificatory system, and was selected for inclusion as it is helpful in examining the Conceptual Level at which students are required to interact with historical information. Table 3.7 below has been taken directly from their paper, where Armbruster and Ostertag provide examples of questions as well as the required answer for each Conceptual Level. As this system is hierarchical, a higher Conceptual Level relates to an increased level of historical specialisation.

Table 3.7. Conceptual level (Armbruster &amp; Ostertag, 1989, pp. 14 - 15).

Level	E.g. of question	Answer
<b>1. Little to no inferencing</b>		
<b>1.1.</b> Explicitly stated in the text within a single sentence	The frontier was the imaginary dividing line between a) the North and South b) California gold mining camps, c) settled and unsettled land.	<i>(Directly in text):</i> The frontier was the imaginary dividing line between settled and unsettled land.
<b>1.2.</b> Assumed to be an intact part of memory (i.e. stored in exactly the required form)	What is this statue of?	<i>There is an uncaptioned photograph of a statue of Abraham Lincoln. Students either know the answer or not; there is no possibility of inferring a correct answer.</i>
<b>2. Some inferencing required</b>		
<b>2.1.</b> In the text but must be transferred across sentences or paragraphs,	How did cities grow upward and outward?	<i>Students are required to pull together information over several pages of text.</i>
<b>2.2.</b> Assumed to be part of prior knowledge but probably not stored in exactly the required form.	What is going on in the picture?	<i>Students are required to make an inference from an uncaptioned picture of soldiers fighting, a cannon, and a flag.</i>
<b>3. Applying information from the text or prior knowledge to novel situation</b>		
	Did Andrew Carnegie's company provide goods or services?"	<i>Students required to apply new knowledge about distinction between goods and services to recently read information about Andrew Carnegie.</i>
	What simple machines are found in this compound machine?	<i>Students required to find examples of the simple machines they have read about in a simple line drawing of a wheelbarrow.</i>
<b>4. Putting together information in order to make predictions, generate hypotheses and form analogies.</b>		
	Imagine the United States with no Mississippi River. How would the country be different? What towns might be different? How might people's lives be different?"	<i>Students required to generate hypotheses or make predictions based on information they have just read.</i>
	Have the students compare a bus system with the systems in the body.	<i>Students required to form analogy between information they have just read and prior knowledge.</i>
<b>5. Making value judgments</b>		
	If you were a farmer,	

about events or situations based on information presented in the text and internal criteria.	which would you prefer to use – horses or a tractor? Why?	
	Where would you rather live – in a cold, dry place or in a cold, wet place? Why?	

Figure 3.28 below shows Levels 1.1, 1.2, 2.1, 3 and 5. Questions 1 and 2 require students to use a painting to answer them, which has been provided in Figure 3.29 below.

### Find information from a painting

1. Look at the painting on page 180.
  - a) What form of transport did the Dutch settlers use arrive at the Cape?
  - b) Why did the Dutch need to trade with the Khoikhoi?
  - c) What impression do you get of the interaction between the Khoikhoi and the Dutch in this painting?
  - d) From what you learnt in Topic 3, do you think this impression is trustworthy?
2. During which century did the events in this painting take place?
3. Which country took over the Cape in the late 18th century?

*Figure 3.28. Example of varying Conceptual Levels required in answering Questions (MML1, p. 181).*

Question 3 was coded as Level 1.2 as the answer is contained in the Narrative Text as the single sentence, “The British took over the Cape in 1795”. If the Narrative Text had said “in the 18<sup>th</sup> century”, it would be at level 1.1. However, students need to know that 1795 takes place in the 18<sup>th</sup> century. Similarly, Question 1a) exemplifies Level 1.2 as the painting shows the Dutch arriving by ship – to answer the question, students merely need to notice the ships, know that it is a form of transport and give that as the answer. For Question 2, students need to infer that if the Dutch traded with the Khoikhoi in the mid-17<sup>th</sup> century, that the painting showing trade between the two groups depicted events happening in this century. It

was therefore coded as Level 2.1 as students need to transfer information from one sentence to another.

Question 1b) and 1d) were coded as Level 3 as they ask students to rely on prior knowledge from other topics they have learned to suggest reasons for the Dutch trading with the Khoikhoi. These questions therefore reduce the intradiscursive classification between the history of the chapter and that of other topics, and have been coded as such in that part of the analysis. Lastly, Question 1c) was coded as Level 5 as students are required to judge the painting's – shown below in Figure 3.29 – depiction of trade between the two groups.



This engraving shows trade between the Dutch and the Khoikhoi.

*Figure 3.29. Source required to answer Figure 3.28 above (MML1, p. 180).*

**3.3.5. Summary.** Figure 3.30 below provides a summary of how the Structure of Historical Knowledge was analysed.

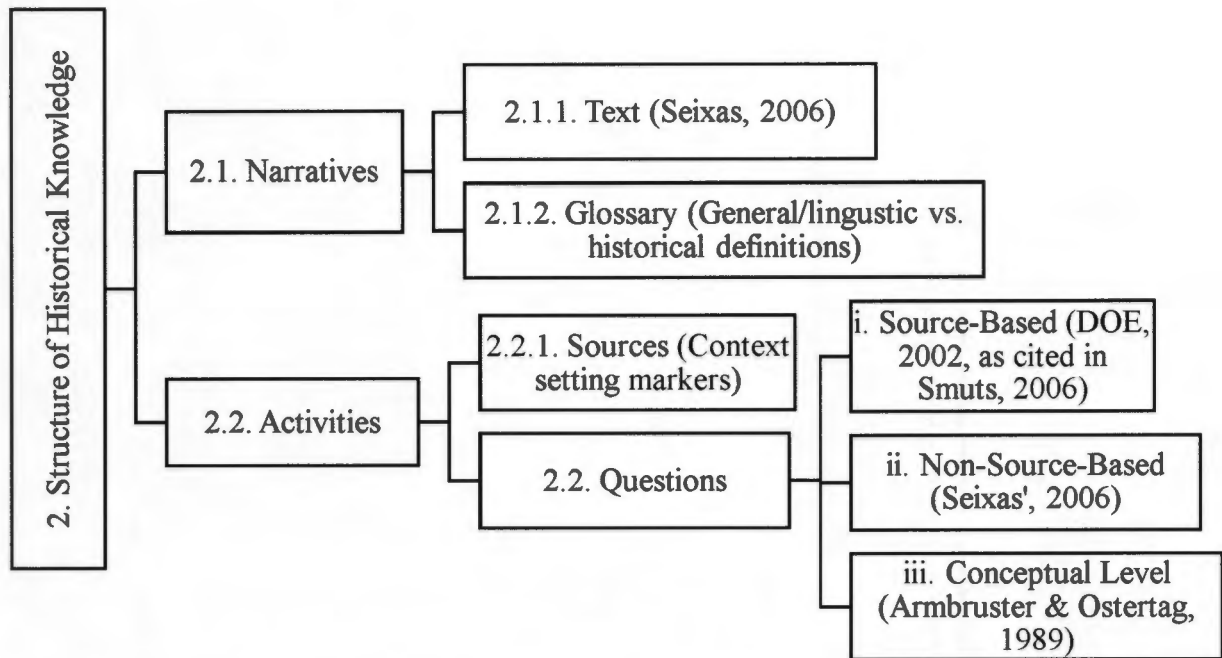


Figure 3.30. Summary of analysis of Structure of Historical Knowledge.

**3.4. Summary of Methodology.** In this chapter I have outlined how I conducted my Analysis. I created two broad categories for analysis, namely the General Structure of the Text and the Structure of Historical Knowledge. The General Structure was analysed using Bernstein's notions of classification, selection and sequencing, in order to determine any broad similarities and differences between the texts in terms of their organisation and structuring of knowledge. The Structure of Historical Knowledge then determined how historical knowledge had been specialised in the Narratives and Activities.

Figure 3.31 below presents an outline of the analytic process presented here. In the next chapter I present the results of my Analysis.

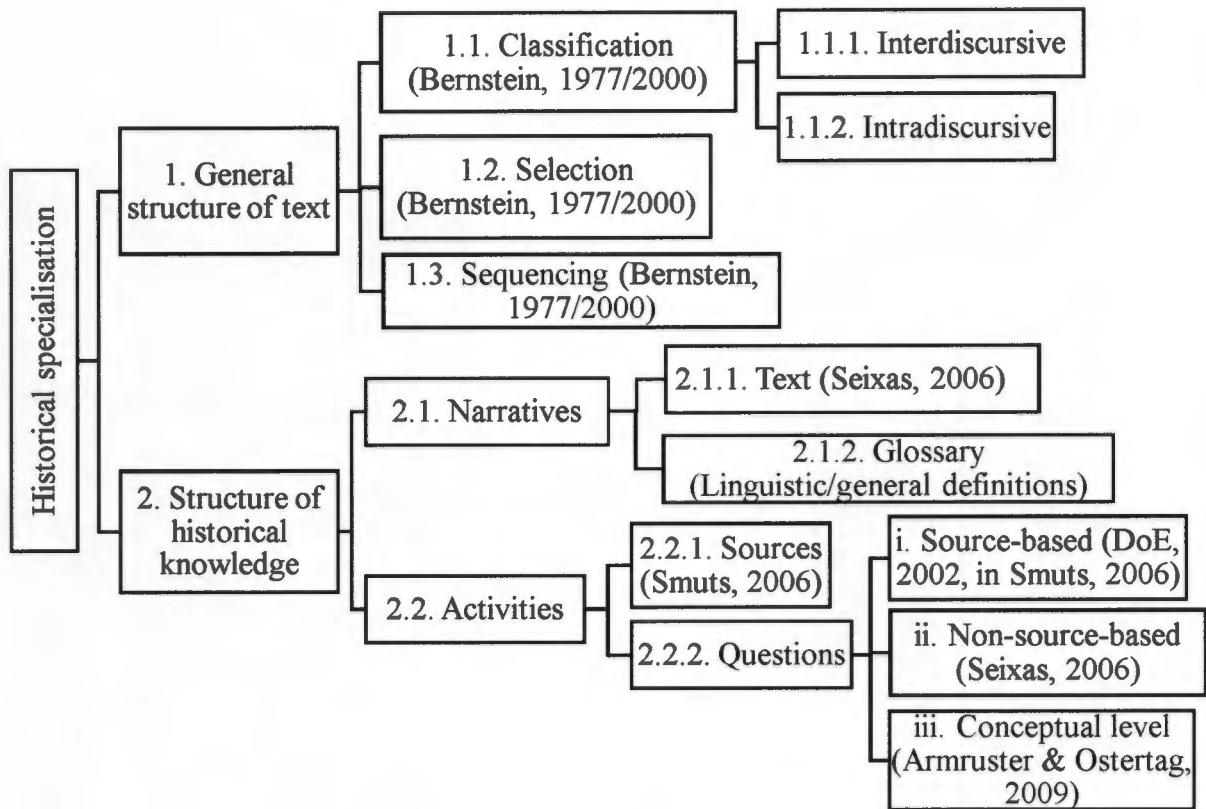


Figure 3.31. Outline of analytic process and relevant theoretical resources.

## Chapter 4. Analysis

### 4.1. Introduction

In this chapter I present the findings of my analysis, which concerned how historical knowledge is specialised across four Grade 7 CAPS Social Studies textbooks. The chapter is divided into the two categories set out in the Methodology section, namely the General Structure of the Text, and the Structure of Historical Knowledge. As previously explained, the General Text Structure highlighted any broad instances of similarity and difference between the textbooks through the application of Bernstein's (1977/2000) tools of classification, and framing in the form of selection and sequencing. The Structure of Historical Knowledge analyses the specialisation of the historical knowledge presented by the textbooks. This part of the analysis drew primarily on Seixas' (2006) six concepts of historical thinking as outlined in the Methodology section, augmented in parts by the work of Armbruster and Ostertag (1989), Smuts (2006), and Yilmaz (2007).

### 4.2. General Structure of Text

**4.2.1. Introduction.** I considered the general structure of the text in relation to three categories, namely classification, selection and sequencing, following Bernstein (1977, 2000). I did this in order to give an overview of the textbooks being studied in terms of their overall historical specialisation (in terms of classification), as well as the broad similarities and differences between the texts in relation to the selection and sequencing of the historical knowledge.

**4.2.2. Classification.** As noted previously, classification was analysed according to interdiscursive and intradiscursive relations. The findings from each sub-category have been outlined below.

**4.2.2.1. Interdiscursive.** As explained in my Methodology chapter, interdiscursive relations considered the strength of the classification between the history of the textbook and 1) everyday knowledge and 2) other school subjects. For Narrative Text, the unit of analysis was a body of text, visuals and other information which was provided to the student which gave a focused historical account of a particular event and/or individual. A definition in the Glossary was considered one unit. The unit of analysis for Activities was a Source or a single Question. Once each textbook had been globally coded, the entire chapter was analysed according to Tables 4.1 and 4.2 below. Both of these were initially presented in the Methodology chapter.

**Table 4.1. Classification table for Everyday/Historical knowledge**

C+	C-
Narratives and Activities make no to occasional reference to everyday knowledge, and privilege historical knowledge.	Narratives and Activities make frequent to constant reference to everyday knowledge.

**Table 4.2. Classification table for Historical/Other subject knowledge.**

C+	C-
Narratives and Activities make no to occasional reference to other subject knowledge, and privilege historical knowledge.	Narratives and Activities make frequent to constant reference to other subject.

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 below show the findings from the analysis of the Narratives as well from the Activities. As can be seen in Tables 4.3 and 4.4 below, I could identify minimal instances of the weakening of classification between 1) everyday and historical knowledge, and no instances of weakening between 2) historical knowledge and other subject knowledge.

**Table 4.3. Classification of Narratives for everyday/historical knowledge**

Book	Total number of units	% units C+	% units C-
MML1	96	88	12
MML2	102	85	15
VP1	85	91	9
VP2	139	83	17

Table 4.4. Classification of Narrative Text for historical/other subject knowledge

Book	Total number of units	% units C+	% units C-
MML1	96	100	0
MML2	102	100	0
VP1	85	100	0
VP2	139	100	0

Figure 4.1 below exemplifies the type of Narrative Text that were seen across all four textbooks and shows two units that were analysed. The Text outlines how the British immigrated to South Africa in the early 1800s, and the accompanying Visual depicts this. This particular example was classified as being C<sup>+</sup> as there is no reference to everyday knowledge either in the Narrative Text or Visual, and both reference historical knowledge and not that of other subjects.

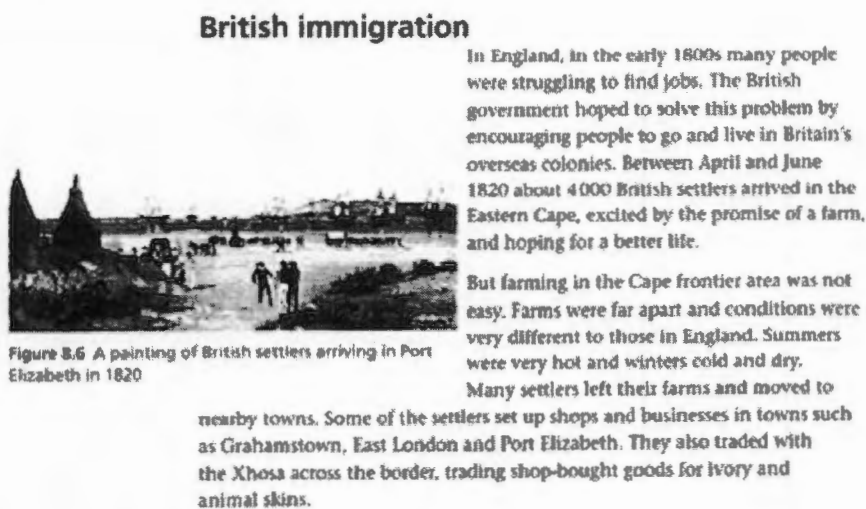


Figure 4.1. Two strongly classified (C<sup>+</sup>) interdiscursive relations in the Narrative Text and Visuals (MML2, p. 190).

Weakening of the classification between everyday and historical knowledge was mostly found in the Glossary. Figure 4.2 shows two definitions found in a Glossary, both of which are general in nature and not specialised with regards to history. Therefore 'neutral zone' and 'cede' were each coded as one unit each and as weakly classified (C<sup>-</sup>).

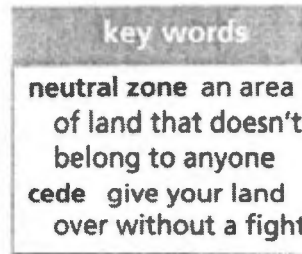


Figure 4.2. Example of weakly classified (C) interdiscursive relations in the Glossary (MML2, p. 185).

In the Activities, I could identify few instances of the weakening of classification between 1) everyday and historical knowledge, and 2) historical knowledge and other subject knowledge, as can be seen in Tables 4.5 and 4.6 below. For Activities, the unit of analysis was a single Question or a Source.

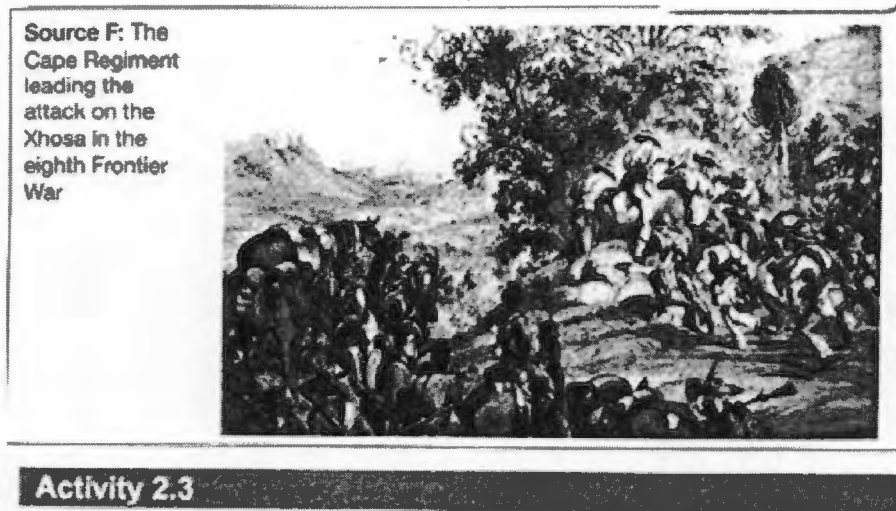
Table 4.5. Classification of Activities for everyday/historical knowledge.

Book	Total number of units	% units C <sup>+</sup>	% units C <sup>-</sup>
MML1	78	99	1
MML2	40	87	13
VP1	54	98	2
VP2	59	98	2

Table 4.6. Classification of Activities for historical/other subject knowledge.

Book	Total number of units	% units C <sup>+</sup>	% units C <sup>-</sup>
MML1	78	99	1
MML2	40	97	3
VP1	54	96	4
VP2	59	100	0

Figure 4.3 below shows two units that were assigned a rating of C<sup>+</sup>, or strongly classified, and provides an example of what was seen across all four textbooks. As can be seen, the Source is historically-based – a painting of an attack during the eighth Frontier War – as are the Questions. Neither the Source nor the Questions reference everyday knowledge or other subject knowledge. Historical knowledge is therefore privileged and is the basis for the Activity.



1. Why do you think some Khoikhoi fought on the British side, and other Khoikhoi on the Xhosa side?
2. Look at Source F.
  - a) What does 'leading the attack' mean?
  - b) What do the soldiers have with them, and what are they carrying?
  - c) What does this tell you about how the war was fought?

*Figure 4.3. Strongly classified (C<sup>+</sup>) interdiscursive relations in the Activities (VP1, p. 197).*

Figure 4.4 below is an example of a weakening of classification (C<sup>-</sup>) in the Activities. While it may seem historical, there is no reference to the Zuurveld after this question. The question therefore functions as a comprehension type question, and so is not historical in nature.

### 1. Where is the Zuurveld?

*Figure 4.4. Weakly classified (C<sup>-</sup>) historical/other subject relations in the Activities (MML1, p. 183)*

All four textbooks presented minimal instances of weakened classification either in the Narrative Text or in the Activities according to Tables 4.3 – 4.6. Using the analytical tool that I developed in Tables 4.1 and 4.2, the global coding for interdiscursive classification was strong (C<sup>+</sup>). Therefore all of the textbooks were coded as being strongly classified (C<sup>+</sup>) in terms of interdiscursive relations, namely the relations between 1) everyday and historical knowledge, and 2) historical knowledge and other subject knowledge. This is in contrast to Figures 3.2 and 3.3 in the Methodology which show how weakened classification (C<sup>-</sup>) was

represented. Historical knowledge is strongly privileged in both the Narrative Text as well as in the Activities.

**4.2.2.2. Intradiscursive.** Intradiscursive relations considered the strength of the classification between the History topic of the chapter and other history topics (either in Grade 7 or other grades). For Narrative Text, the unit of analysis was a body of text, visuals and other information which was provided to the student which gave a focused historical account of a particular event and/or individual. A definition in the Glossary was considered one unit. The unit of analysis for Activities was a Source or a Question. Once each textbook had been globally coded, the entire chapter was analysed according to Table 4.7 below, which was initially presented in the Methodology chapter.

*Table 4.7. Classification table for topic studied/other history topics.*

C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>-</sup>
Narratives and Activities make no to occasional reference to other history topics.	Narratives and Activities make frequent to constant reference to other history topics.

As can be seen in Table 4.8 below, I identified instances of the weakening of classification in the Narratives between the topic of the chapter and other history topics for both MML textbooks. By contrast I could find no weakening of the classification in the VPtextbooks.

*Table 4.8. Classification of Narratives for topic of chapter/other history topics*

Book	Total number of units	% units C <sup>+</sup>	% units C <sup>-</sup>
MML1	96	96	4
MML2	102	95	5
VP1	85	100	0
VP2	139	100	0

Figure 4.5 below shows two instances out of the five total instances for MML2 where the classification has been weakened between the topic of the chapter and other history topics. Both instances have been underlined for clarification. The first references historical knowledge from Grade 7 in Term 3 where the topic was “Colonisation of the Cape in the 17<sup>th</sup>

and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries”, and the second instance references historical knowledge from a topic in Grade 8 in Term 2 where the topic is “The Mineral Revolution in South Africa” (DBE, 2011b, p. 16).

As you have learnt, Britain took control of the Cape Colony in 1806. In 1847



Figure 8.10 Map showing the trekboer movement in the Cape Colony

the new British governor at the Cape, Sir Harry Smith, declared the Orange River the northern border of the Cape Colony. However, the British were not very interested in this area until diamonds were discovered in 1871. Then everything changed. You will learn more about this in Grade 8.

Figure 4.5. Example of two instances of weakened classification (C) for Narrative Text between topic of chapter and other history topics (MML2, p. 193).

Figure 4.6 below shows one out of the four instances for MML1 where the classification has been weakened between the topic of the chapter and other history topics. This instance has been underlined for clarification. As in Figure 4.5 above, it references Term 3’s topic of “Colonisation of the Cape in the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries” (DBE, 2011b, p. 16).

## Unit 6: Boers migrate and move into the interior: Great Trek

In Topic 3 you learnt about trekboers. By the 19<sup>th</sup> century these livestock farmers, also just called ‘boers’, had moved further and further away from Cape Town. They used the land as they wished, and led self-sufficient lives. The Dutch colonial authorities were unable to control the trekboers. However, when the British arrived in the early 1800s, with their English language and culture, this changed.

Figure 4.6. Example of one instance of weakened classification (C) for Narrative Text between topic of chapter and other history topics (MML1, p. 194).

By contrast, I could identify no instances of the weakening of classification between the topic of the chapter and other history topics in the Activities, as can be seen in Table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9. Classification of Activities for topic of chapter/other history topics.

Book	Total number of units	% units C+	% units C-
MML1	78	100	0
MML2	40	100	0
VP1	54	100	0
VP2	59	100	0

Figure 4.7 below shows an Activity comprised of three units (i.e. three Questions) that were each coded as being C<sup>+</sup>, or strongly classified, and provides an example of what was seen across all four textbooks. Students must answer the Questions based on the knowledge they have learned from the Narrative Text which precede this Activity. Therefore the Questions refer to the historical knowledge contained in the chapter and do not reference the historical knowledge of other topics.

**Activity 8.2** Understand motives for actions (Individual)

From the information on pages 219 and 220, complete the following tasks in your workbooks:

1. Give three reasons why the British wanted to move onto Xhosa land. Write your answers in full sentences.
2. Why do you think that the British used a strategy of 'total war' against the Xhosa?
3. Choose one piece of evidence to show that the Xhosa were not easily defeated by the British.

Figure 4.7. Example of strongly classified (C<sup>+</sup>) intradiscursive relations in the Activities (VP2, p. 220).

As seen in Tables 4.8 and 4.9 above, both VP1 and VP2 had no instances of the weakening of the classification in terms of intradiscursive relations for either the Narrative Text or Activities. This was also seen in both MML1 and MML2 for the Activities section. However, both MML textbooks presented a slight weakening of the classification in the Narratives. According to Table 4.7 above, all four textbooks were therefore strongly classified (C<sup>+</sup>) with regards to intradiscursive relations, i.e. the relations between the historical knowledge of the chapter and that of other chapters or topics. The historical

knowledge of the chapter is strongly privileged in both the Narratives as well as in the Activities.

**4.2.2.3. Summary.** Table 4.10 below presents a summary of the findings for the analysis of classification.

*Table 4.10. Summary of classification.*

Textbook	Interdiscursive		Intradiscursive
	Everyday/ historical	Historical/ other subject	Topic of chapter/other history topic
MML1	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>
MML2	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>
VP1	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>
VP2	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>

Therefore there are no significant differences between all four textbooks, and all are strongly classified in the Narratives and Activities. From this analysis, history in CAPS is a well-bounded subject that contains only historical knowledge. Based on my analysis of one chapter from each of these four textbooks, I would argue that the topics in history are to a large extent discrete. Therefore there is limited overlap between topics which are studied.

**4.2.3. Selection.** The exact formulation of the topics as listed in the textbooks can be found in Appendix A. However, all four textbooks that were analysed included the following sections in the following order and subdivided as follows below:

1. Introduction page
2. Arrival of the British and the expanding frontiers of European settlement
3. The eastern frontier of European settlement
  - i. Case study: Chief Maqoma and Xhosa resistance to British rule
  - a. Soldiers and officials
    - i. Case study: Andries Stockenström
  - b. British immigration
  - c. Abolition of slavery
  - d. Boers migrate and move into the interior: The Great Trek
    - i. Case study: The lives of inboekselings
4. The northern frontier of European settlement
  - a. The Kora and the Griqua
  - b. The southern borders of the Tswana world
  - c. Missionaries and traders
    - i. Case study: Robert Moffat at Kuruman

When the Department of Basic Education's (2011b) CAPS document for the Social Sciences was consulted, the same topics and division was found, suggesting strong external framing ( $F^{e+}$ ) of the text by the curriculum. MML1, however, included an additional case study that was not prescribed by the CAPS document. This was included under 3d) Abolition of slavery, and is entitled "Case study: Cape wine farmers support an end to slavery".

Tables 4.11 below show the results from the analysis of weighting of Narratives in units and as a proportion of the chapter. The unit of analysis for the Narrative Text was as for classification above, namely a body of text, visuals and other information which gave a focused historical account of a particular event and/or individuals. A single definition was considered as a unit of the Glossary.

*Table 4.11. Weighting of sections per textbook over Narratives.*

Sections	Weighting			
	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
1. Introduction page	3 (3%)	2 (2%)	4 (5%)	5 (4%)
2. Arrival of the British	12 (13%)	8 (8%)	10 (12%)	10 (7%)
3. The eastern frontier of European settlement	50 (52%)	54 (53%)	38 (45%)	65 (47%)
a) Introduction	9 (9%)	20 (20%)	10 (12%)	15 (11%)
i. Case study: Chief Maqoma	5 (5%)	10 (10%)	5 (6%)	7 (5%)
b) Soldiers and officials	14 (15%)	14 (14%)	8 (9%)	9 (6%)
i. Introduction	9 (9%)	8 (8%)	3 (4%)	1 (1%)
ii. Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792-1864)	5 (5%)	6 (6%)	5 (6%)	8 (6%)
c) British immigration	3 (3%)	3 (3%)	3 (4%)	13 (9%)
d) Abolition of slavery	13 (14%)	3 (3%)	9 (11%)	8 (6%)
e) Boers migrate and move inland: The Great Trek	11 (11%)	14 (14%)	8 (9%)	20 (14%)
i. Introduction	6 (6%)	6 (6%)	5 (6%)	12 (9%)
ii. Case study: Inboekselings	5 (5%)	8 (8%)	3 (4%)	8 (6%)
4. The northern frontier of European settlement	31 (32%)	28 (37%)	33 (39%)	59 (42%)
a) Introduction	1 (1%)	8 (8%)	3 (4%)	10 (7%)
b) The Kora and the Griqua	9 (9%)	8 (8%)	11 (13%)	27 (19%)
c) The southern borders of the	5 (5%)	7 (7%)	8 (11%)	12 (9%)

Tswana world				
d) Missionaries and traders	16 (17%)	15 (15%)	10 (12%)	10 (7%)
i. Introduction	8 (8%)	10 (10%)	6 (7%)	3 (2%)
ii. Case study: Robert Moffat	8 (8%)	5 (5%)	4 (5%)	7 (5%)
<b>Total number of units</b>	96	102	85	139

Across all four textbooks, the most heavily weighted section for the Narratives was ‘3) the eastern frontier of European settlement’. This is most likely due to there being four sub-sections with two case studies in this section as opposed to differential emphasis of content. That is to say, it is most likely a result of more sub-sections being present in this section than an explicit weighting decision on the part of the authors. This, however, is where the similarity ends for the Narratives across all four textbooks for the major sections.

MML1 and MML2 differ in terms of their most heavily weighted sub-section. MML1 weights ‘4d) Missionaries and traders’ the most, while for MML2 this is sub-section ‘3a) Introduction to the eastern frontier’, which includes ‘3ai) Case Study: Chief Maqoma’. VP1 and VP2 both weight ‘4b) Kora and Griqua’ the heaviest. Therefore there is high similarity in the sub-sections within VP, but not between MML and VP.

The unit of analysis for the Activities was a Source or a Question, and Activities were assigned an overall weighting per section. Table 4.12 below shows the results of the weighting. As can be seen below, as with Narratives, all four textbooks weight section ‘3) the eastern frontier of European settlement’ the heaviest. This is possibly due to the same reasons given above.

With regards to the sub-sections, there is greater similarity across the textbooks than for the Narratives, with MML1, MML2 and VP2 all weighting the sub-section ‘3a) Introduction to the eastern frontier’ which includes ‘3ai) Case Study: Chief Maqoma’. By contrast, VP1 again weights ‘4b) Kora and Griqua’ the heaviest. Therefore, there is generally similarity between the weighting of the Narratives and the Activities across all four textbooks studied.

Table 4.12. Weighting of sections per textbook over Activities.

Sections	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
1. Introduction page	7 (9%)	-	-	-
2. Arrival of the British	7 (9%)	5 (13%)	9 (17%)	8 (14%)
3. The eastern frontier of European settlement	43 (55%)	18 (45%)	29 (54%)	36 (61%)
a) Introduction	16 (21%)	12 (30%)	7 (13%)	13 (22%)
i. Case study: Chief Maqoma	8 (10%)	7 (18%)	3 (6%)	7 (12%)
b) Soldiers and officials	9 (12%)	2 (5%)	8 (15%)	1 (2%)
i. Introduction	6 (8%)	2 (5%)	5 (9%)	-
ii. Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792-1864)	3 (4%)	-	3 (6%)	1 (2%)
c) British immigration	4 (5%)	2 (5%)	6 (11%)	1 (2%)
d) Abolition of slavery	6 (8%)	1 (3%)	8 (15%)	8 (14%)
e) Boers migrate and move inland: The Great Trek	8 (10%)	1 (3%)	-	13 (22%)
i. Introduction	-	1 (3%)	-	8 (14%)
ii. Case study: Inboekselings	8 (10%)	-	-	5 (8%)
4. The northern frontier of European settlement	21 (27%)	17 (43%)	16 (30%)	15 (25%)
a) Introduction	3 (4%)	8 (20%)	1 (2%)	-
b) The Kora and the Griqua	6 (8%)	-	9 (17%)	7 (12%)
c) The southern borders of the Tswana world	3 (4%)	2 (5)	3 (6%)	6 (10%)
d) Missionaries and traders	9 (12%)	7 (18%)	3 (6%)	2 (3%)
i. Introduction	-	7 (18%)	-	-
ii. Case study: Robert Moffat	9 (12%)	-	3 (6%)	2 (3%)
<b>Total number of units</b>	78	40	54	59

**4.2.4. Sequencing.** Sequencing refers to the order in which content is presented in the textbook. I analysed sequencing in the same way as selection above, namely by comparing the headings of the relevant chapters in each textbook to the CAPS documents. As with Selection, I found strict adherence to the CAPS document content sequence, which is as follows:

1. Introduction page
2. Arrival of the British and the expanding frontiers of European settlement
3. The eastern frontier of European settlement
  - i. Case study: Chief Maqoma and Xhosa resistance to British rule
  - a. Soldiers and officials
    - i. Case study: Andries Stockenström
  - b. British immigration
  - c. Abolition of slavery
  - d. Boers migrate and move into the interior: The Great Trek
    - i. Case study: The lives of inboekselings
4. The northern frontier of European settlement
  - a. The Kora and the Griqua
  - b. The southern borders of the Tswana world
  - c. Missionaries and traders
    - i. Case study: Robert Moffat at Kuruman

The complete formulation of each textbook can be found in Appendix A. All four textbooks therefore presented the content in exactly the same sequence, suggesting very strong external framing ( $F^{e+}$ ) of the textbooks by the curriculum.

**4.2.5. Summary of General Text Structure.** General Text Structure was therefore analysed according to classification (both interdiscursive and intradiscursive), sequencing and selection. There is strong classification between interdiscursive and intradiscursive relations

Table 4.13 below presents a summary of the categories and codes found for the general text structure.

*Table 4.13. Summary of analytical categories and codes for General Text Structure.*

Analytic Category	Sub-category	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
Classification	Interdiscursive	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>
	Intradiscursive	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>	C <sup>+</sup>
Framing	Selection	F <sup>e+</sup>	F <sup>e+</sup>	F <sup>e+</sup>	F <sup>e+</sup>
	Sequencing	F <sup>e+</sup>	F <sup>e+</sup>	F <sup>e+</sup>	F <sup>e+</sup>
	Weighting				
	Sections: Within publisher	Highsimilarity	Highsimilarity	High similarity	High similarity
	Sections: Between publisher	Low similarity	Low similarity	High similarity	High similarity
	Subsections: Within publisher	Narratives: Low similarity Activities: High similarity		Narratives: High similarity Activities: High similarity	
	Subsections: Between	Narratives: Low	Narratives: Low	Narratives: Low	Narratives: Low

	publisher	similarity Activities: High similarity	similarity Activities: High similarity	similarity Activities: Low similarity	similarity Activities: High similarity
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All four textbooks are strongly classified ( $C^+$ ) with regards to interdiscursive and intradiscursive relations, meaning that they all strongly privilege the historical knowledge of the chapter. Similarly, all of the textbooks studied show strong external framing ( $F^{e+}$ ) over selection and sequencing. These four textbooks are therefore very similar in terms of their General Structure, with almost no differences between them in terms of these categories.

The only variation between the textbooks can be found in the weighting measure in terms of the sub-sections, as all textbooks are similar with regards to the sections. The degree of similarity within and between publishers shifts according to whether one looks at the Narratives or the Activities.

Therefore, while the General Structure is highly similar, there is still difference in terms of the privileging of some sub-sections over others in different ways. This begs the question as to why the publishers have produced different textbooks. Additionally, I am unable to see the reasoning behind weighting these sub-sections differently. As noted previously, the CAPS document only provides a guide of weighting in the time allocation, with sections '3) The eastern frontier' and sections '4) The northern frontier' each being allocated 5 hours each. However, the weighting of these two sections shows variation across the textbooks. Therefore whilst the General Structure of the Texts is highly uniform, it is possible that the Structure of Historical Knowledge shows greater variation.

### 4.3. Structure of Historical Knowledge

**4.3.1. Introduction.** Whilst the General Text Structure analysed any broad instances of similarity and difference at the level of the textbook, the Structure of Historical Knowledge

focused on the specialisation of the historical knowledge. I was interested as to whether any substantial differences between textbooks could be discerned here. I analysed this within the two broad categories: Narratives and Activities.

Narratives were comprised of Text & Visuals and Glossaries. The Narrative Text was analysed using five out of Seixas' (2006) six concepts of historical thinking. Glossaries were analysed according to a subjective judgment of the definitions as being general/linguistic or historical in nature.

Activities comprised of three categories, namely Sources, Questions and Conceptual Level. Sources were analysed according to context-setting markers, Questions were analysed according to Seixas' (2006) concepts of historical thinking, and Conceptual Level according to Armbruster and Ostertag's (1989) level of thought categories. Figure 4.8 below presents a summary of how the Structure of Historical Knowledge was analysed.

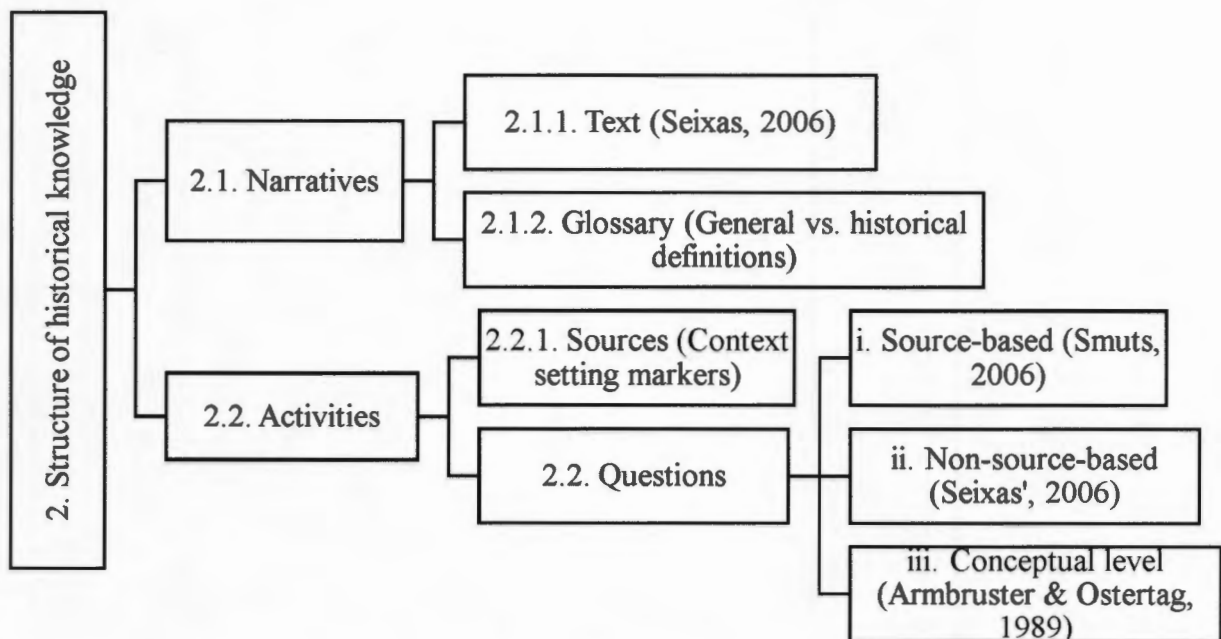


Figure 4.8. Analytical tools for Structure of Historical Knowledge.

**4.3.2. Narrative Text.** As noted above, two elements of Narratives were considered, namely Text and Visuals together, and Glossary. I analysed 342 units of Narrative Text according to Seixas' (2006) 'benchmarks' of historical thinking for both historians and

students. These concepts have been outlined in the Literature Review and Methodology chapters, and are: 1) Historical Significance, 2) Primary Source Evidence, 3) Continuity & Change, 4) Cause & Consequence, 5) Historical Perspectives, and 6) Moral Dimensions. As noted previously, I did not examine Primary Source Evidence in the Narrative Text and instead created a category for this in the Questions section under Activities.

The analysis for all the textbooks can be seen in Table 4.14 which shows the findings of the analysis of the Narrative Text which contains instances of Historical Significance, Continuity & Change, Cause & Consequence, and Moral Dimensions. The results for Multiple Perspectives have been outlined separately in Table 4.16. As noted previously, my unit of analysis was a body of text, visuals and other information which gave a focused historical account of a particular event and/or individual. I determined to what extent each concept was evident by calculating the number of conceptual instances as a proportion of the total instances for better comparison. Cause & Consequence was the only concept which was identified according to more than one sub-category, and so it has been represented in the table according to firstly its overall proportion, and then by the proportion of each sub-category.

*Table 4.14. Number of occurrences of particular concepts in Narrative Text.*

	Maskew Miller Longman		Vivlia Publishers	
	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
i) Historical Significance	4	1	0	2
ii) Continuity & Change	8	7	8	7
iii) Cause & Consequence	21	33	11	32
CA&CO1	9	11	4	9
CA&CO2	12	22	7	23
v) Moral Dimensions	3	3	0	3
Total number of instances	36	44	19	44

Table 4.15 below shows the proportion of Seixas' (2006) concepts found in the Narrative Text based on Table 4.14 above.

*Table 4.14. Proportion of particular concepts found across the Narrative Text.*

	Maskew Miller Longman		Vivlia Publishers	
	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
i) Historical Significance	11%	2%)	0%	5%
ii) Continuity & Change	22%	16%	42%	16%)
iii) Cause & Consequence	58%	75%	58%	73%
CA&CO1	25%	25%	21%	20%
CA&CO2	33%	50%	37%	52%
v) Moral Dimensions	8%	7%	0 (0%)	7%
Total number of instances	36	44	19	44

As can be seen in Table 4.15 above, all four textbooks privilege Cause and Consequence, with CA&CO2 being present more than CA&CO1. That is to say, the Narrative Text across all four textbooks presents Cause & Consequence in a way which highlights the “various types of causes for a particular event” as opposed to highlighting “the interplay of intentional human action and constraints on human actions in causing change” (Seixas, 2006, p. 6). However, students are exposed to both ways of addressing this concept.

After Cause & Consequence, all four textbooks privilege Continuity & Change. VP1 is the only textbook which does not present all four concepts, having no instances of Historical Significance nor Moral Dimensions in its Narrative Text. Overall, the concepts of Historical Significance and Moral Dimensions are overshadowed by the texts’ focus on Cause and Consequence and Continuity and Change.

Table 4.16 presents the findings for the Perspectives across all four textbooks. As outlined in the Methodology chapter, Perspectives in the Narrative Text were identified either as being single or multiple. As with Seixas’ (2006) other concepts, the unit of analysis for this was a body of text, visuals and other information which gave a focused historical account of a particular event and/or individual.

*Table 4.15. Proportion of Historical Perspectives.*

Category	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
Single perspectives	39 (41%)	44 (43%)	26 (31%)	47 (34%)

<b>Multiple perspectives</b>	57 (59%)	58 (57%)	59 (69%)	91 (66%)
<b>Total number of units analysed</b>	96	102	85	139

Table 4.16 above shows that all four textbooks present multiple Historical Perspectives more frequently than presenting a single perspective. Vivlia presents a greater proportion of multiple Perspectives than MML, with both publishers having very high similarity between its textbooks respectively.

Figure 4.9 shows a paragraph which gives multiple perspectives about how missionaries viewed their role. It provides the perspective of Moffat and then contrasts it against that of Philip.

After the Battle of Dithakong, Moffat changed his mind about the role of missionaries. After witnessing the bloodshed of the battle, he came to believe strongly that missionaries should not be involved in political and military activities. Other missionaries of the time, however, disagreed with him. Dr Philip, for example, was a missionary who believed that missionaries should be involved in political and military activities.

*Figure 4.9. Instance of Multiple Perspectives in one paragraph (MML1, p. 202 - 203).*

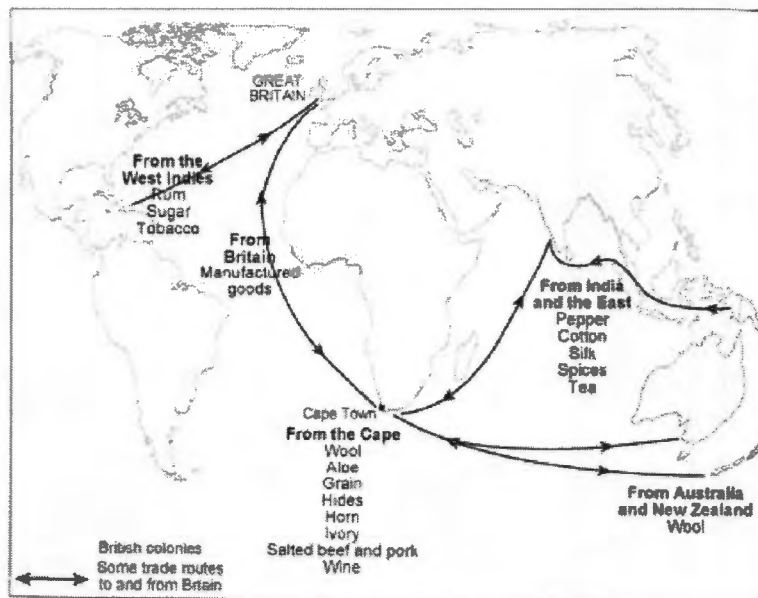
I have provided extracts from the Narrative Text which I coded as being historically specialised for each concept below.

**4.3.2.1. Historical Significance.** Figures 4.10 and 4.11 below both show instances of Historical Significance. All three were coded for this concept in the Narrative Text. Figure 4.10 draws students' attention to Chief Maqoma as a significant individual in the Frontier Wars and suggests this through the use of the adjectives 'greatest', 'brave', 'skilled', 'masterful' and 'brilliant'.

Some say that Maqoma was the greatest **military commander** in Xhosa history. He fought the growing Cape Colony in three frontier wars. All sources agree that he was a brave warrior, very skilled at planning military tactics, a masterful politician and a brilliant public speaker.

Figure 4.10. Instance of Historical Significance (MML1, p. 186)

Figure 4.11 refers to the Cape as significant in terms of its position and therefore suitability as a trading station for trade. It signals this concept through the use of the word 'importance'. While Figure 4.10 shows Historical Significance in the Text, Figure 4.11 makes use of a map as a Visual to illustrate this.



This map shows the importance of the Cape to trade routes from Europe to India.

Figure 4.11. Instance of Historical Significance (MML2, p. 216)

**4.3.2.2. Continuity & Change.** Figures 4.12 and 4.13 below exemplify instances of Continuity & Change. Both emphasise the changes which occur in the period. Figure 4.13 presents a short summary of the textbook chapter and emphasises the continuous control of European forces.

During the 19<sup>th</sup> century the British used their professional army and superior weapons to wage war against the indigenous people living on the borders of the Cape Colony. As you will learn, the eastern frontier was an area of conflict between Xhosa and European settlers. By the end of the century the Europeans had defeated most of the independent African kingdoms in southern Africa, and divided the land up among themselves.

*Figure 4.12. Instance of Continuity & Change (VP2, p. 217).*

Figure 4.13 provides a summary of the Great Trek as a result of European control in the Cape, and emphasises the changes which occurred over 10 year period.

From 1836, for the next 10 years, thousands of Voortrekkers, as they were now called, left the Cape and moved into the South African interior. They grouped themselves into a number of trek parties under various leaders. The trekboers were used to moving around in search of land for grazing. They packed their belongings into ox wagons, gathered their servants and slaves, and headed north in search of new homes. These journeys became known as the Great Trek.

*Figure 4.13. Instance of Continuity & Change (MML2, p. 191).*

**4.3.2.3. Cause & Consequence.** Figures 4.14 and 4.15 show instances of Cause and Consequence which exemplify the way in which CA&CO1 and CA&CO2 were presented across textbooks. Both examples show Cause been underlined in light blue and Consequence underlined in dark blue.

Figure 4.14 below shows two instances of Cause & Consequence, both of which were coded as CA&CO2. The text therefore identifies various causes for a particular event, using one or more account of the event (Seixas, 2006). The first instance deals with the

Voortrekkers on the Groot Trek (Cause), resulting in them encountering other groups which they then fought with (Consequence). The Voortrekkers moving into the area resulted in them requiring land due to their way of life. As a result, they fought with the indigenous people over this land.

The second instance notes that the Voortrekkers had superior weapons (Cause), and so they often won these battles, took over the land, and “ruined the indigenous people’s traditional way of life” (Consequence). In this instance, students are given access to an understanding of the ‘traditional way of life’ of the indigenous people – without their land, they could not continue with life as they knew it. Through Cause & Consequence, students are given insight into the Historical Perspectives and day-to-day life of indigenous people in the interior.

As they moved into the South African interior, the Voortrekkers met many groups of indigenous people. The battles over land continued and, because the Voortrekkers had horses and guns, they often won these battles. As a result, they took over occupied land and ruined the indigenous people’s traditional way of life.

*Figure 4.14. Instance of Cause & Consequence (MML2, p. 191).*

Figure 4.15 presents one instance of Cause & Consequence. Students who read this passage below are exposed CA&CO1, where the text identifies how the interplay of intentional human action – and constraints on this action – cause change (Seixas, 2006). It describes how due to fears of losing their trade routes (Cause), Britain sent soldiers to “take over the Cape from the Dutch” (Consequence). In this example, students are given an explicit Cause & Consequence relation through the use of the word ‘because’. They additionally learn to situate the intentional human action of the British with the context of war in Europe.

### The arrival of the British in 1795

In 1795 there were wars between various countries in Europe. France was fighting against Britain. Britain sent soldiers under General Craig to take over the Cape from the Dutch in 1795 because they wanted to protect their trade routes to the East.

*Figure 4.15. Instance of Cause & Consequence (VP1, p. 192).*

**4.3.2.4. Perspectives.** Figure 4.16 below presents two perspectives, that of Stockenström and that of the other Europeans in the same paragraph. Stockenström is described as being interested in building “respect and trust”, as opposed to the other Europeans who were only concerned with getting land which belonged to the Xhosa. This unit therefore presents multiple perspectives. By positioning these perspectives in the same unit, students’ attention is drawn to different ways in which individuals in the past viewed the world and events occurring at the time. It additionally creates a contrast between the ‘other Europeans’ and Stockenström, and positions Stockenström as a ‘good guy’.

He introduced a new system of **treaties** to keep the peace and stop stock theft. Stockenström believed that colonial officials and Xhosa chiefs could work together. He wanted to build a frontier policy based on respect and trust not fear and hatred. Unfortunately, many of the other Europeans were only interested in capturing the Xhosa land.

*Figure 4.16. Instance of Multiple Historical Perspectives (VP2, p. 223).*

**4.3.2.5. Moral Dimensions.** Figures 4.17 and 4.18 both present instances of Moral Dimensions typical of that found in three out of the four textbooks. Figure 4.17 below presents the British strategy of “total war” which is described as “brutal”, presenting the authors’ moral judgment of British’s actions. This is an explicit moral judgment on the part of the authors, and so students learn how judgment can be made explicitly.

The Xhosa forces were determined to protect their ‘western frontier’ against attacks from the British. The British adopted a strategy of ‘total war’. This was a very brutal method of warfare where they set fire to and destroyed crops, seized cattle and killed women and children.

*Figure 4.17. Instance of Moral Dimensions (VP2, p. 219).*

By contrast, Figure 4.18 is subtle in its judgment. It gives the argument used by white farmers that they were not “stealing” children and that they were not being sold as one would do with slaves. It then notes how these children were bartered, implying that they were viewed in the same way as slaves. Students are therefore given access to an implicit way of making a moral judgment, potentially allowing them to recognise this in other accounts.

The white farmers claimed that they were not stealing the children from their parents, because they were orphans. They also said that they were not using the children as slaves, because they were not selling them for money. But in fact they traded the children for goods or cattle.

*Figure 4.18. Instance of Moral Dimensions (MML2, p. 192).*

**4.3.3. Glossary.** I identified 80 definitions in total, with 33 from MML and 47 from Vivlia Publishers. As noted in the Methodology chapter, I then categorised these as being either general/linguistic or historical in nature. Each definition was coded as one unit. I determined the proportion of general and historical definitions according to each textbook’s total number of definitions to allow for comparison. Table 4.17 below presents my findings.

*Table 4.16. Glossaries with number of units and proportion of total.*

Category	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
<b>General</b>	12 (80%)	16 (89%)	9 (64%)	24 (73%)
<b>Historical</b>	3 (20%)	2 (11%)	5 (36%)	9 (27%)
<b>Total number of units</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>33</b>

As can be seen above, all four textbooks privilege general definitions over historical ones, with VP2 providing significantly more definitions – specifically general – than the other three textbooks. Figure 4.19 below exemplifies the type of Glossaries which can be found in MML2. MML2 presents the largest proportion of linguistic definitions in relation to its historical definitions. All three definitions are ‘general’ in that they clarify *language* as

opposed to *historical concepts*. It is possible that this textbook is therefore for students who are second language learners and who require more vocabulary support.

**buffer** an area of land  
between two groups  
that prevents them  
fighting  
**guerrilla** fighting  
by making sudden  
attacks in small  
groups  
**gallant** brave

Figure 4.19. Glossary with general definitions (MML2, p. 186).

By contrast, Figure 4.20 shows a Glossary with historical and general definitions from VP1. Here “Zuurveld” and “Boer” are given a contextually based definition which is related to the historical time period, and so are historical definitions. Despite the frequent use of “frontier” in the chapter, the definition given for it (“an area where different groups struggle for control of the land”) is more general.

#### **New words**

- **Zuurveld** – an area on the edge of the summer rainfall area, which had good grazing all the year round.
- **frontier** – an area where different groups struggle for control of the land; an expanding frontier is one that moves or becomes bigger as one group takes control of more of the land
- **Boer** – a Dutch farmer more settled than a trekboer

Figure 4.20. Glossary with general and historical definitions (VP1, p. 192).

**4.3.4. Activities.** As noted above, two aspects of Activities were analysed, namely Sources and Questions. Questions were analysed in three ways, namely Source-Based, Non-Source-Based and Conceptual Level. By examining the components of Activities, I hoped to address Bertram's (2008) concerns about 'doing history' in terms of the required historical concepts and knowledge that students must use in order to engage in historical thinking.

**4.3.4.1. Sources.** As outlined in the Methodology section, Sources were part of the Activities and were analysed according to the number of Smuts' (2006) context-setting markers provided by the textbook's authors. As noted previously, the purpose of this category of analysis was to get a broad idea as to how fully the textbooks' Sources had been contextualised with the expectation that students would be required to comment on authorship.

Table 4.18 below presents my findings. As can be seen, MML1 presents significantly more Sources than the other textbooks, with MML2 presenting significantly less, providing only 6 Sources. In addition, MML2 only provides 45% of the context-setting markers for these Sources, despite it having an average of 2 markers per Source. It is therefore doubtful that students would be able to engage critically with issues of authorship or bias in MML2, as they are not provided with enough contextual information to do so.

MML1, VP1 and VP2 all present between 61% and 63% of the context-setting markers identified by Smuts (2006). When translating this into the average number of markers, all three present 3/5 for Sources depicting individuals, and 3/4 for those not depicting individuals. By contrast, MML1 presents 2/4 for Sources which do not depict individuals. In the case of these three textbooks, it is likely that the provision of these markers allows students opportunities to engage with issues of authorship or bias. The provision of these context-setting markers increases "students' ability to make sense of [these] primary sources]" (Barton, 2005, p. 749).

*Table 4.17. Total number of Sources, average level of contextualisation and average number of context-setting markers provided.*

	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
No. of sources	28	5	13	17
Ave. level of contextualisation	61%	45%	63%	63%
Ave. no. of markers provided				
Depicting people (/5)	3	2	3	3
Not depicting people (/4)	2	2	3	3

Figure 4.21 below shows a Source which D) identifies people (“British”, “Chief Maqoma”) and C) gives a description of the event (“the British attacking Chief Maqoma’s stronghold of Waterkloof”). It additionally includes B) date of creation (“1851”). It therefore was coded as 3/5 and exemplifies the kind of contextualisation seen in MML1, VP1 and VP2 with regards to Sources depicting individuals.



**Source K:** A painting of the British attacking Chief Maqoma’s stronghold of Waterkloof, in the mountains west of the Kat River, 1851. In the 8th Frontier War, Chief Maqoma, with a small army of about 200 Xhosa and Khoikhoi fighting men, resisted and held off a British army of 4 000 for more than a year.

*Figure 4.21. Typical contextualisation of a Source that depicts people in MML1, VP1 and VP2 (MML1, p. 187).*

**4.3.4.1. Questions.** Questions were analysed in three stages. First, I considered Source-Based Questions, namely those which required students to interact with Sources. These were first analysed according to the DoE’s (2002, in Smuts, 2006) rubric of ‘using sources’. Second, I considered Non-Source-Based Questions and Source-Based Questions together, using 5 of Seixas’ (2006) 6 concepts of historical thinking. Third, I analysed both Source-Based and Non-Source-Based Questions again, but for the Conceptual Level which students

needed to use in order to answer each Question. Each of these ways attempted to address a different aspect of historical specialisation in the textbooks identified. Table 4.19 below provides a breakdown of the number of questions which were analysed per category, as well as the analytical tool which was used for each category.

*Table 4.18. Question types per category of analysis.*

Question Type	Analytical tool	No. of Questions per textbook, and proportion of each type of Question per textbook				Total
		MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2	
Source-Based	DoE (2002) 'using sources' rubric AND 5 out of Seixas' (2006) 6 concepts of historical thinking	38 (56%)	7 (17%)	16 (45%)	22 (49%)	83
	Source-work not coded as being conceptually historical	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	2 (5%)	0 (0%)	3
Non-Source-Based	5 out of Seixas' (2006) 6 concepts for historical thinking	30 (50%)	15 (71%)	18 (56%)	30 (71%)	93
	Questions not coded as being conceptually historical	8 (27%)	24 (50%)	6 (15%)	3 (7%)	41
<b>Total number of questions</b>		55 (100%)	48 (100%)	40 (100%)	46 (100%)	

As can be seen in the table above, there are more Questions which were analysed at the Conceptual Level (189) than for the conceptually historical Source- and Non-Source-Based Questions combined (176). This was due to Questions which pertained to historical content – and so did not weaken the classification – but which were more substantive and less conceptual in terms of Seixas' (2006) concepts. There were therefore 44 Questions which were not included in the analysis of historical specialisation. Below I outline the findings from the analysis of the three stages of analysis, first for Source-Based, secondly Non-Source-Based and lastly Conceptual Level.

*i. Source-Based: use of Sources.* This analysis was informed by Seixas' (2006)

concept of 'using primary evidence'. Table 4.20 below is the same table from my

Methodology section and is the analytical tool that I used for this sub-category.

*Table 4.19. Analytical tool for Using Sources (DoE, 2002, in Bertram, 2008).*

Level	
1	Extract evidence from sources.
2	Straightforward interpretations by using evidence from one source and broader knowledge to show an understanding of the period/event/issue.
3	Straightforward interpretations by using evidence from more than one source and broader knowledge to show an understanding of the period/event/issue.
4	Complex interpretations often involving more than one source. These questions look at aspects such as bias, reliability, usefulness, the use of organising concepts (similarity and difference; cause and consequence; chronology; change and continuity) to explain contrasts, comparisons, etc., empathy and extended writing in history.

Table 4.21 below shows the findings from the analysis of the Source-Based Questions.

The most prevalent way in which students were expected to use Sources in MML1 (61%) and VP2 (50%) was at Level 4. By contrast, MML2 privileged Level 1, whilst VP1 (50%) privileged Level 2. Whilst MML1 and VP2 require students to engage with Sources at all levels, MML2 and VP1 do not engage students in Level 3 and Level 4 respectively.

*Table 4.20. Levels for Source-Based Questions across all four textbooks.*

Category	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
Level 1	3 (8%)	4 (57%)	3 (19%)	3 (14%)
Level 2	10 (26%)	2 (29%)	8 (50%)	4 (18%)
Level 3	2 (5%)	1 (14%)	0 (0%)	4 (18%)
Level 4	23 (61%)	0 (0%)	5 (31%)	11 (50%)
Total	38	7	16	22

Figure 4.22 below exemplifies the two most common types of Source-Based Questions

in VP2. Questions 3 and 4 are at Level 2 as they require students to engage in

“straightforward interpretations by using evidence from one source and broader knowledge to

show an understanding of the period/event/issue". By contrast, Questions 2, 5 and 6 are at Level 4 as they ask students to engage in historical thinking such as perspective-taking.

<b>Activity 8.7</b>	<b>Compare and contrast sources about Mzilikazi's meeting with the trekkers (Individual)</b>
Your teacher will mark your responses to these questions as part of your formal assessment for this term.	
1. Why did some Boers leave the Cape? Extract the different reasons mentioned in the text on page 228.	(4)
2. Write two sentences describing the different views of the Great Trek presented in Source C and Source D.	(2)
In History we are not trying to say that actions are right or wrong, but rather to explain why they happened.	
3. Extract two pieces of evidence from Source D that could explain why Mzilikazi's men killed the Boers.	(2)
4. Extract two pieces of evidence from Source E that could explain why Mzilikazi's men killed the Boers.	(2)
5. Why do you think that the Aboriginal Protection Society chose to present the version of this event in Source E and not Source D to the British Parliament?	(2)
6. What has this activity taught you about the difficulty of writing history? Discuss the problem of dealing with biased sources in groups, and then write your own ideas in full sentences in your workbooks. Be prepared to share your ideas with the class.	(3)
<b>[15]</b>	

Figure 4.22. Source-Based Questions – Levels 2 and 4 (VP2, p. 229).

By contrast, Figure 4.23 below exemplifies the kinds of Source-Based Questions which can be found in MML2. Questions 1 and 4 are at Level 2 as they ask students to interpret one source and to use their broader knowledge of the period in answering these. Questions 2 and 5a, b and c are all at Level 1, as they ask students to extract evidence from the sources without interpretation. Question 3 was not coded as being a Source-Based Question as it does not require students to use a Source.

**Activity 4** Getting information from a picture

1. Look at the picture of Chief Maqoma and write a sentence about how he is feeling and why. Use the information that you have been given about Chief Maqoma to help you.
2. Read Source A. Write down one word that tells us that Chief Maqoma was feared by the British.
3. Who won the Eighth Frontier War? Quote two separate sentences to support your answer.
4. Choose the most correct answer below: Both sources A and B speak of Chief Maqoma with:
  - a) great respect
  - b) great fear
  - c) hatred
  - d) fondness.
5. Which words in source A and source B tell you the Chief Maqoma was:
  - a) brave
  - b) loyal
  - c) fearless.

Figure 4.23. Source-Based Questions - Levels 1 and 2 (MML2, p. 187).

MML1 and VP2 demand engagement with Sources at all levels, while MML2 and VP1 only engage students at the first two levels. Students who use MML2 will be predominantly asked to simply extract evidence from Sources. This represents a low level of specialised activity with regards to Source-Based work in history. Overall – with the exception of MML2 – the most predominant level of questioning is at Level 4, where students must engage with Sources in ways which consider aspects such as reliability, bias and Historical Perspectives.

*ii. Non-Source-Based and Source-Based: conceptual demands.* This sub-category used Seixas' (2006) concepts to analyse the degree of historical specialisation in Questions which presented a historical concept. Students are therefore required to provide an account. Table 4.22 below shows the results from the analysis.

Table 4.21. Seixas' (2006) concepts in the Source- and Non-Source-Based Questions across all four textbooks.

Categories	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
I. Historical Significance	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
II. Continuity & Change	2 (7%)	0 (0%)	3 (17%)	5 (17%)
III. Cause & Consequence	8 (27%)	8 (53%)	6 (33%)	11 (37%)
CA&CO1: Intentional human action	0 (0%)	3 (20%)	5 (28%)	0 (0%)
CA&CO2: Various causes	8 (27%)	5 (33%)	1 (6%)	11 (37%)
CA&CO3: Counterfactuals	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

IV. Historical Perspectives	17 (57%)	7 (47%)	8 (44%)	12 (40%)
HP1: Recognising context	4 (13%)	6 (40%)	7 (39%)	6 (20%)
HP2: Explaining actions	13 (43%)	1 (7%)	1 (6%)	6 (20%)
V. Moral Dimensions	3 (10%)	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	1 (7%)

The only textbook which tapped all of Seixas' concepts was VP2, as the other three had no instances of Historical Significance. Additionally, the most prevalent concept for MML1 (57%), VP1 (44%) and VP2 (40%) was Historical Perspectives. By contrast, MML2 privileged Cause & Consequence (53%).

Figure 4.24 below exemplifies the concepts which were addressed by MML2. Question 1 is a Source-Based question which does not require any historical concepts to answer. The Source required to answer this Question has been included above as Figure 4.28 in the contextualisation of Sources section. Questions 2 and 3 are both Cause and Consequence, with students being required to give the Causes for two Consequences (i.e. the moving of the settlers out of the Cape, and the British seizure of the Cape). Questions 4 and 5 were both coded as addressing Historical Perspectives (HP1), as student have to adopt the perspective of the Xhosa of the period in order to answer the questions.

### Write down the answers

1. Look at Figure 8.2 on page 183. Write down who each person is.
2. Why did white settlers start moving out of the Cape?
3. Explain why Britain seized control of the Cape from the Dutch.
4. Explain who owned the land according to Xhosa tradition.
5. Give two reasons why cattle were so important to the Xhosa.

*Figure 4.24. Activity with Cause & Consequence and Multiple Perspectives (MML2, p. 184).*

Figure 4.25 is an example of how questions on Moral Dimensions are asked in VP2 which differs from the other textbooks. In the other textbooks, the questions on Moral Dimensions are integrated in Activities with questions that tap other historical concepts. The question in Figure 4.25, however, is an Activity on its own, where students have to consider

the actions of Andries Stockenström and make a moral judgment. They need to consider the present day notion of peace and Stockenström's actions towards this goal.

**Activity 8.4** Consider the life and work of Stockenström (Groups)

The Nobel Peace Prize is a prize which is awarded every year to the person or people who have worked hard to bring about peace. It has been given out every year since 1901.

In your groups, discuss whether or not you would give Andries Stockenström the Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts to bring peace between the Xhosa and settlers.

Present your arguments to the class.

Figure 4.25. Moral Dimensions in an Activity (VP2, p. 224).

Figure 4.26 below is an example of how Continuity & Change appeared in VP2. It directs students to two maps, both of which are Sources, and so was coded as a Source-Based Question as well as a Non-Source-Based Question. It asks students compare two maps showing the southern Cape in 1806 and southern Africa in 1860. Students are able to note the shift in land ownership and how different groups settled in different areas 54 years later. At the same time, students must identify continuity in land ownership.

3. What differences can you observe in the size and number of African kingdoms in southern Africa if you compare Map 2 and Map 3?

Figure 4.26. Question which taps Continuity & Change (VP2, p. 218).

All four textbooks privilege Cause & Consequence (CA&CO2) and Historical Perspectives (HP2) in their Activities. For Cause & Consequence, this entails students being able to “identify various types of causes for a particular event, using one or more accounts of the event” (Seixas, 2006, p. 6). For Historical Perspectives, students are required to “use evidence and understanding of the historical context, to answer questions of why people acted the way they did (or thought what they did) even when their actions seem at first irrational or inexplicable or different from we would have done or thought (Seixas, 2006, p. 7).” The

emphasis on these two concepts results in the underrepresentation of Seixas' other historical concepts of Historical Significance, Continuity and Change, and Moral Dimensions.

*iii. Conceptual Level.* As noted in the Methodology chapter, this category attempted to capture the level of difficulty of all questions using Armbruster and Ostertag's (1989) notion of 'level of thought'. Table 4.23 below is a reminder of the different levels of thought.

*Table 4.22. Armbruster & Ostertag's (1989, pp. 14 - 15) level of thought.*

Level
<b>1. Little to no inferencing</b> 1.2. Explicitly stated in the text within a single sentence 1.2. Assumed to be an intact part of memory (i.e. stored in exactly the required form)
<b>2. Some inferencing required</b> 2.1. In the text but must be transferred across sentences or paragraphs, 2.2. Assumed to be part of prior knowledge but probably not stored in exactly the required form.
<b>3. Applying information from the text or prior knowledge to novel situation</b>
<b>4. Putting together information in order to make predictions, generate hypotheses and form analogies.</b>
<b>5. Making value judgments about events or situations based on information presented in the text and internal criteria.</b>

Table 4.24 below shows the findings from the analysis of the Conceptual Level of all questions in the four textbook chapters that I studied. MML1 and VP1 are the only textbooks which have questions on every Level, whilst MML2 shows very low proportions of Levels higher than Level 2.2. By contrast, VP2 does not include Questions which are lower than Level 2.1, nor Level 2.2. Across all four textbooks, Level 2.1 is the most prevalent Conceptual Level of questioning, namely where students are required to make some inferences which are in the text but which must be transferred across sentences or paragraphs. MML1 and VP2 both show high proportions of Levels 5 and 4 respectively; this suggests increased Conceptual engagement by students in MML1 and VP2.

*Table 4.23. Number of Questions and proportion (%) of Conceptual Levels across all four textbooks.*

Conceptual Level	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
1.1	2 (4%)	6 (13%)	3 (8%)	0 (0%)

1.2.	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
2.1	18 (33%)	35 (73%)	23 (58%)	17 (37%)
2.2	3 (5%)	2 (4%)	1 (3%)	0 (0%)
3	7 (13%)	3 (6%)	4 (10%)	6 (13%)
4	9 (16%)	1 (2%)	6 (15%)	15 (33%)
5	14 (25%)	1 (2%)	2 (5%)	8 (17%)

Figure 4.27 below exemplifies the Conceptual Level for VP2. Questions 1, 2 and 4 are at Level 2.1, as they both require students to simply extract information from Sources and the Narrative Text. Questions 5 and 6 are at Level 3 as they require students to apply the knowledge that they have learned to a new situation. Lastly, Question 3 is at Level 4 as it asks students to infer why some ex-slaves decided to join mission stations.

**Activity 8.6**    **Analyse source material (Individual)**

Write the answers to the following questions in your workbook:

1. Why does Manisa in Source A believe that the slave days were 'not good'?
2. What choices were available to a slave like Manisa after she had been freed?
3. Why did some slaves choose to stay with their old masters?
4. Why do you think that some ex-slaves chose to join a mission station?
5. Choose two words that you think best describe the attitude of the slave in Source B.
6. By referring to aspects of the source, clearly explain why you chose these words.

Figure 4.27. Conceptual Levels 2.2, 3 and 4 (VP2, p. 227).

#### 4.4. Summary of Structure of Historical Knowledge.

The results show that the textbooks privilege historical knowledge in different ways. Two categories of difference stand out: the Narrative Text and the Non-Source-Based Questions found in the Activities. Both of these were analysed using Seixas' (2006) concepts of historical thinking. Table 4.25 presents a comparison between the prevalence of these concepts in the Narrative Text and the Non-Source-Based Questions.

*Table 4.24. Conceptual focus of Narrative Text: number of instances of specific concepts and their proportion of the total number of concepts across chapter extract.*

Category	Maskew Miller Longman		Vivlia Publishers	
	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
<b>Narrative Text</b>				
Historical Significance	4 (11%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	2 (5%)
Continuity & Change	8 (22%)	7 (16%)	8 (42%)	7 (16%)
Cause & Consequence	21 (58%)	33 (75%)	11 (58%)	32 (73%)
Historical Perspectives (Multiple)	57 (59%)	58 (57%)	57 (69%)	92 (66%)
Moral Dimensions	3 (8%)	3 (7%)	0 (0%)	3 (7%)
<b>Non-Source-Based Questions</b>				
Historical Significance	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)
Continuity & Change	2 (7%)	0 (0%)	3 (17%)	5 (17%)
Cause & Consequence	8 (27%)	8 (53%)	6 (33%)	11 (37%)
Historical Perspectives	17 (57%)	7 (47%)	8 (44%)	12 (40%)
Moral Dimensions	3 (10%)	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	1 (7%)

While MML1 and MML2 both have instances of Historical Significance and Continuity and Change in their Narrative Text, they don't present these concepts in their Non-Source-Based Questions. Despite the fact that all four textbooks present large portions of Cause & Consequence in their Narrative Text, only MML2 requires students to engage in this concept at a similar level in its Non-Source-Based Questions. The overwhelming proportion of Questions focus on Historical Perspectives in MML1, VP1 and VP2, with very little emphasis placed on Historical Significance, Continuity & Change and Moral Dimensions. There is therefore a lack of congruency between the Narrative Text and the Non-Source-Based Questions in terms of the development of historical thinking according to Seixas' concepts.

Table 4.26 provides a summary of the analysis from the Structure of Historical Knowledge for the Glossary in the Narrative Text. As can be seen, all four textbooks privilege general definitions over historical ones, possibly as a pedagogical tool to assist students in acquiring a more sophisticated vocabulary in order to discuss the content and

context being studied. Alternately, this may have been done to assist comprehension in students for whom English is a second language.

*Table 4.25. Summary table showing proportion (%) of definitions found in the Glossary.*

<b>Glossary</b>	<b>MML1</b>	<b>MML2</b>	<b>VP1</b>	<b>VP2</b>
<b>Historical</b>	20	11	36	27
<b>General</b>	80	89	64	73

Tables 4.27 below provides a summary of the contextualisation of Sources, while Table 4.28 provides a summary of the Questions (excluding Non-Source-Based).

*Table 4.26. Activities: Total number of Sources, average level of contextualisation and average number of context-setting markers provided.*

<b>Category</b>	<b>MML1</b>	<b>MML2</b>	<b>VP1</b>	<b>VP2</b>
<b>Sources (contextualisation)</b>				
No. of sources & average level of contextualisation	28 (61%)	5 (45%)	13 (63%)	17 (63%)
<b>Ave. no. of markers provided</b>				
Depicting people (/5)	3	2	3	3
Not depicting people (/4)	2	2	3	3

**Table 4.27. Activities: Levels included and most predominant Level for Source-Based Questions and Conceptual Level.**

<b>Category</b>	<b>MML1</b>	<b>MML2</b>	<b>VP1</b>	<b>VP2</b>
<b>Source-based</b>				
Levels included	All	1 – 3	1, 2, 4	All
Most predominant	4	1	2	4
<b>Conceptual Level</b>				
Levels included	All	1.1, 2.1 – 5	All	2.1, 3 – 5
Most predominant	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1

MML1 and VP2 present high proportions of Source-Based Questions at Level 5, and they each present on average 62% of Smuts' (2006) context-setting markers. The increased level of contextualisation therefore assists students in engaging deeply with Sources in these textbooks by providing information about sources of bias and reliability. MML1 and VP2 additionally present a larger number of Sources than MML2 and VP1, increasing students' exposure to Sources without reducing the historical specialisation of their Source-Based tasks.

In terms of the Conceptual Level, MML1 and VP1 are the only textbooks to ask Questions at all levels. Across all four textbooks, Level 2.1 is the most prevalent level of thought required from students, which requires that students transfer information across sentences or paragraphs, with a bit of inferencing required.

In the next chapter I discuss these findings and link them to literature in the field in an attempt to answer my research question of how historical knowledge is specialised in these four Grade 7 textbooks under CAPS.

## Chapter 5. Discussion

In this chapter I discuss the results from Chapter 4 and link these findings to literature presented in Chapter 2. This chapter is therefore concerned with answering my research question of how historical knowledge is specialised in four Grade 7 textbooks under CAPS. I have organised this chapter according to two broad categories of the General Structure of Text and for the Structure of Historical Knowledge. After each of these categories has been discussed, I present my concluding remarks.

### 5.1. General Structure of Text

The analysis of the General Structure of the Text showed that all four textbooks strongly privilege the historical knowledge of the chapter (C<sup>+</sup>), with few instances of the weakening of classification being found with regards to interdiscursive and intradiscursive relations. As noted in Chapter 4, this suggests that Grade 7 History under CAPS is a well-bounded subject, which may result in an increased ability in students to think historically (Firth, 2013). This stands in contrast to Bertram and Bharath's (2011) findings of weak classification of historical knowledge, with everyday and other subject knowledge being present in the textbooks they studied. As their work considered textbooks under C2005 and RNCS, it is possible that this shift is due to the new curriculum of CAPS.

With regards to selection and sequencing, there is clearly strong external framing (F<sup>+</sup>) over the textbooks by the CAPS curriculum for the chapter. All four textbooks provide almost verbatim phrasing of their sub-topic headings as the curriculum document (see the Appendix), and these sub-topics are sequenced identically across all four textbooks. As noted previously, MML1 is the only textbook to include an additional case study, showing slight deviation from the curriculum's selected sub-topics to be studied. The inclusion of this

additional case study suggests that the textbook's authors consider the abolition of slavery to be a particularly useful section of study, hence their deviation.

With regards to weighting under selection, all four textbooks privileged the same section, but different emphasis is placed on different sub-sections. This was the only source of 'mismatch' between the textbooks in terms of General Text Structure. While MML1 and MML2 chose separate sub-sections to emphasise, VP1 and VP2 both emphasise the same sub-section, namely the Kora and Griqua. When I re-examined this sub-section in both textbooks, I found that this was due to the inclusion of larger portions of descriptive text, or text which provided content knowledge of the period but which was devoid of any historical concepts. This may be due to the authors' desire to include more information on indigenous groups which are not the Xhosa, or it may be due to the authors' perception that these two groups are unknown to students and that they needed to include more information as a result. This is not problematic in and of itself, as "historical thinking' only becomes meaningful with substantive content" (Seixas, 2006, p. 2).

The General Structure of Text category therefore demonstrates that overall, historical knowledge is privileged in these textbooks and that textbook authors adhere strongly to the selection and sequencing of the curriculum. As the curriculum does not specify weighting apart from the inclusion of hours to be spent on each sub-section, there is greater variation with regards to the weighting of these sub-sections.

## **5.2. Structure of Historical Knowledge**

**5.2.1. Narrative Text.** The analysis of the Narrative Text considered the density of historical concepts. These concepts were taken from Seixas' (2006) and were namely: 1) Historical Significance, 2) Continuity & Change, 3) Cause & Consequence, 4) Historical Perspectives, and 5) Moral Dimensions.

All four textbooks privilege Cause and Consequence primarily, followed by Continuity & Change. The other concepts, namely Moral Dimensions and Historical Significance are either underrepresented or not represented at all. This is concerning when considering the literature which suggests that students are able to identify and use Cause & Consequence and Continuity & Change fairly easily (Oppong, 2012; Resendes & Chuy, 2010), but struggle with Historical Significance (Barton, 2005; Levesque, 2008; Resendes & Chuy, 2010) and Moral Dimensions (Morgan, 2010; Oppong, 2012; Resendes & Chuy, 2010). The conceptual instances in the Narrative Text across all four textbooks therefore create a hierarchy of concepts, with Cause & Consequence and Continuity & Change being shown as the dominant historical concepts. Students may not even be aware that instances of Moral Dimensions or Historical Significance have been presented to them, as these are so embedded that to the untrained eye, these may not become evident, unless drawn out by an expert teacher.

All four textbooks do, however, present instances of multiple perspectives more frequently than they do single perspectives. If students are provided with instances of multiple perspectives, it is likely that they will learn to be able to adopt them (Kohlmeier, 2006). This is in contrast to Morgan (2010) and Morgan and Henning's (2011) work which found increased instances of single, presentist perspectives in the textbooks they studied. The predominance of multiple perspectives in these textbooks is therefore positive as students often struggle to adopt them (Resendes & Chuy, 2010).

The Narrative Text therefore privileges certain concepts over others. Students who engage with these Narratives are therefore exposed to a few of the total number of historical concepts which make history specialised.

**5.2.1.1. Glossaries.** General definitions are presented most predominantly across all four textbooks. As suggested in Chapter 4, this is likely to be a pedagogic move on the part of the authors to enhance comprehension. In the case of MML2 which presents overwhelmingly

more general definitions than the other textbooks, I would argue that the textbook authors have written for a second language audience. While it is important that students are able to understand the substantive content of the Narrative Text, it is concerning that the ratio of general to historical definitions is so high. This is particularly so in a topic such as the one in this chapter, namely conflict on the eastern frontier in the 1800s, which is temporally so far removed from the experiences of Grade 7 students.

**5.2.2. Activities.** Activities comprised of Sources and Questions. Sources were examined according to the number of context-setting markers in order to determine how able students would be to comment on authorship. Overall, textbook authors tended to provide a description of the Source as a context-setting marker across all four textbooks. This was most likely done to ensure that students were aware of links between the Sources and the Narrative Text which was provided.

MML1, VP1 and VP2 all presented a sufficient number of Sources and provided on average 62% of the context-setting markers. This was correlated with higher Levels in response to Source-Based Question in these textbooks. MML2, by contrast, provided only 5 Sources and required students to extract evidence from one Source at a time (Level 1), and only provided 45% of the context-setting markers. This is problematic as it has the potential to become a comprehension exercise as opposed to historical inquiry (Bertram, 2008), and counters literature which suggests that students are capable of engaging with Sources in more historically specialized ways (Oppong, 2012). Students who use MML2 will therefore most likely engage in Source-Based Questions on a superficial level, and fail to pay attention to issues such as bias, reliability and representations of individuals.

As with the Narrative Text above, Non-Source-Based Questions privileged some concepts while neglecting others. Cause and Consequence and Historical Perspectives dominated the Activities. However, this was done in different ways in different textbooks.

CA&CO1 was privileged over CA&CO2 in VP1, whilst the reverse was true for the other three textbooks. Therefore students using VP1 may focus on individual actions and restraints in causing change, while students using the other textbooks may dissociate between individual and societal changes, as suggested by Barton (2001a). Additionally, CA&CO3 – being able to create counterfactuals – was completely neglected over all textbooks. Students therefore don't learn to think in terms of the hypothetical.

With regards to Historical Perspectives, HP1 is privileged over HP2 for MML2 and VP1, with the reverse being true for MML1. Students who engage in HP1 learn to identify and understand past perspectives, whilst HP2 links these perspectives to actions by individuals. VP2 presents both of these ways of mastery equally, benefitting students by providing all aspects of the concept.

As a result of the above, few questions were asked that related to Historical Significance, Continuity and Change, and Moral Dimensions. While Historical Perspectives and Cause & Consequence are definitely important, the emphasis of one type of mastery of these concepts overshadows the 'wholeness' of the concept. The privileging of certain concepts over others results in students 'doing' history in specific ways, namely being able to adopt Historical Perspectives and identify Cause & Consequence. This is only part of historical thinking.

In terms of the Conceptual Level, students are mostly required to infer information across paragraphs or sentences, or Level 2.1. As noted previously, MML1 is the only textbook to ask Questions at all Conceptual Levels. Overall, students are required to engage in a superficial way with the Sources.

**5.2.3. Narrative Text and Activities.** The Narrative Text and the Activities show a lack of congruency with regards to Seixas' historical concepts. Some concepts are presented in the Narrative Text, but not in the Non-Source-Based Questions found in the Activities.

This can be seen for MML1 and MML2 for Historical Significance and Continuity & Change. Some concepts are absent in the Narrative Text, but present in the Non-Source-Based Questions, namely VP1 for Moral Dimensions. There is therefore an overall lack of consistency with regards to historical thinking between the Narrative Text and the Activities.

### 5.3. Concluding Remarks

The four textbooks under study in this dissertation all present a certain degree of historical specialisation which is shared. All four textbooks are strongly classified with regards to interdiscursive and intradiscursive relations – that is, they strongly privilege the historical knowledge of the chapter and therefore of the topic. Similarly, there is strong external framing ( $F^{e+}$ ) over the textbooks with regards to selection and sequencing, suggesting strong adherence to the CAPS documents. With the exception of MML2, the textbooks provide at least 3 context-setting markers on average for Sources, showing a certain degree of Source contextualisation. All four textbooks privilege multiple perspectives over single perspectives, presenting students with varied accounts of events.

The conceptual focus in the Narrative Text according to Seixas' (2006) benchmarks is Cause & Consequence across all four textbooks, with all textbooks focusing on CA&CO2, namely the identification of various causes for events. This results in the privileging of one form of mastery over the other, suggesting to students that this is the predominant 'way' of thinking of Cause & Consequence.

In the Activities, with the exception of MML2, the conceptual focus shifts to Historical Perspectives. While MML1 focuses on HP2 – using past perspectives to explain individuals' actions – VP1 focuses on HP1 – identifying past perspectives. VP2 does this equally, providing students with both aspects of the concept, increasing students' awareness of the full 'form' of Cause & Consequence.

Despite the similarities above, there is variation as to how these textbooks specialise historical knowledge. As noted previously, due to the emphasis on Cause & Consequence and Historical Perspectives, there is less focus on the concepts of Historical Significance, Continuity & Change, and Moral Dimensions across all four textbooks. At this level, through these textbooks, students are exposed to an understanding of history as a subject which examines only Historical Perspectives and Cause & Consequence. This is in contrast to Seixas' (2006) understanding of all six concepts as interrelated and important.

Despite a relatively high level of contextualisation of Sources, there is variation across the textbooks in relation to Source-Based Questions. MML1 and VP2 required students to engage with Sources predominantly at Level 4 where complex interpretations involving issues of authorship are required. By contrast, VP1 provides the same proportion of context-setting markers as MML1 and VP2, but requires students to engage with Sources at Level 2 where they need to interpret information from one Source in a straightforward way.

Clarifications in Glossaries are made for the sake of linguistic comprehension as opposed to historical comprehension. Due to the nature of a textbook as a pedagogic tool where comprehension is necessary for learning, this was to be expected. However, MML 2 stands out as having a considerably larger proportion (89%) of general or linguistic definitions and a generally weaker historical specialisation of its Narratives and Activities, as seen in its reduced conceptual demand. It may be that this textbook was intended for second-language learners. If this is the case, it raises the issue of shifting content and Conceptual Level for learners towards greater linguistic simplicity rather than lower cognitive and level.

The Conceptual Level of the majority of Questions was at Level 2 across all four textbooks. Students were mostly required to engage with Questions at a level of comprehension and use little inference. However, MML1 presents higher proportions of Level 5 Questions (25%), where students are required to "make value judgments about

events". The same is true of VP2 for Level 4 (33%), where students have to "make predictions, generate hypotheses and form analogies". Therefore across all four textbooks there is reduced specialisation of the subject with regards to the Conceptual Level of Questions, but MML1 and VP2 indicate increased specialisation in this respect.

Therefore, two of the four textbooks studied here can be considered more historically specialised, but for different reasons. While MML1 presents a Narrative which is focused, concise and with a high conceptual density – namely it addresses a high number of historical concepts in a certain amount of text - the Activities in VP2 encourage students to engage with Sources and with Non-Source-Based Questions in a way which fosters a range of Seixas' (2006) historical concepts. VP1 is less conceptually dense when compared to VP2.

The least specialised of the books is MML2, which has weakly contextualised Sources, a low Level of Source-Based Questions and a low Conceptual Level of with regards to Non-Source-Based Questions. It also neglects a range of historical concepts. If MML2 is indeed a textbook for second-language English students, I would argue that its lack of historical specialisation further disadvantages students by failing to give them access to the concepts which underpin the school subject of history.

There is a difference between the two textbooks produced by the publishers in relation to how history is specialised, and this relates most notably to the range of historical concepts that students are exposed to in the text, and the Conceptual Level which underpins the Activities.

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Appendix

Curriculum Document	MML1	MML2	VP1	VP2
<p>Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century</p>	<p>Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introduction</li> </ul>	<p>Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Key concepts</li> </ul>	<p>Chapter 8: Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus</li> <li>• Chapter overview</li> </ul>	<p>Term 4 Chapter 8: Co-operation and conflict on the frontiers of the Cape Colony in the early 19<sup>th</sup> century</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What am I going to learn about this term?</li> </ul>
<p>Arrival of the British and the expanding frontiers of European settlement</p>	<p>Chapter 1: Arrival of the British and the expanding frontiers of European settlement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unit 1: The British at the Cape 1795                             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◦ The arrival of the British at the Cape, 1795</li> <li>◦ Expanding frontiers of European settlement</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p>Unit 1: The arrival of the British and the expanding frontier</p>	<p>Unit 1: The arrival of the British and the expanding frontiers of European settlement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>◦ Expanding frontiers before 1795</li> <li>◦ The arrival of the British in 1795</li> </ul>	<p>Unit 8.1: Arrival of the British and the expanding frontiers of European settlement</p>
<p>The Eastern frontier of European settlement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frontier wars on the eastern frontier of European settlement</li> </ul>	<p>Unit 2: The eastern frontier of European settlement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frontier wars on the eastern frontier of European settlement</li> </ul>	<p>Unit 2: The eastern frontier of European settlement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frontier wars on the eastern frontier of European settlement</li> </ul>	<p>Unit 2: The eastern frontier of European settlement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frontier wars on the eastern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>◦ The British take control of the Zuurveld in 1812</li> <li>◦ The British control the land</li> </ul>	<p>Unit 8.2: The eastern frontier of European settlement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Frontier wars on the eastern frontier of European settlement</li> </ul>

# Appendix

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Chief Maqoma (1798 – 1873) and Xhosa resistance to British Rule</li> <li>Soldiers and officials</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Chief Maqoma (1798 – 1873) and Xhosa resistance to British rule</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Unit 3: Soldiers and officials             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tension between the British and trekboers on the frontier</li> <li>Khoikhoi soldiers</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Chief Maqoma and Xhosa resistance to British rule</li> <li>Soldiers and officials</li> </ul>	<p>between the Fish and Keiskamma Rivers, 1836</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Chief Maqoma and Xhosa resistance to British rule</li> <li>Soldiers and officials</li> <li>Soldiers</li> <li>Officials</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Chief Maqoma (1798 – 1873) and Xhosa resistance to British Rule</li> <li>Soldiers and officials</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792 – 1864) and his involvement on the Eastern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>British immigration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792 – 1864) and his involvement on the Eastern frontier of European settlement</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792 – 1864) and his involvement on the Eastern frontier of European settlement</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792 – 1864) and his involvement on the eastern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>Soldiers and officials</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792 – 1864) and his involvement on the eastern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>British immigration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Andries Stockenström (1792 – 1864)</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Abolition of slavery 1836</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Unit 4: British Immigration             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The 1820 settlers and farming</li> </ul> </li> <li>Unit 5: Abolition of slavery 1836             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Why were slaves freed?                 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Humanitarian reasons</li> <li>Economic reasons</li> <li>Slave rebellions</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Abolition of slavery in the Cape</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Abolition of slavery</li> <li>Why was slavery abolished?             <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Humanitarian reasons</li> <li>Economic reasons</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Abolition of slavery</li> <li>British immigration</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Abolition of slavery</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Boers migrate and move into the interior: Great Trek</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: Cape wine farmers support an end to slavery</li> <li>Unit 6: Boers migrate and move into the interior: Great Trek</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Boers migrate and move into the interior: The Great Trek</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Boers migrate and move into the interior: The Great Trek</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>When was slavery abolished?</li> <li>What happened when the slaves were freed?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Boers migrate and move into the interior: The Great Trek</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Boers migrate and move into the interior: The Great Trek</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Why the boers left the Cape Colony</li> <li>The boers move into the interior</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: The lives of Inboekselings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: The lives of Inboekselings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: The lives of Inboekselings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: The lives of Inboekselings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: The lives of Inboekselings</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Case study: The lives of Inboekselings</li> </ul>
<p><b>The northern frontier of European settlement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expanding trade relationships on the northern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>Kora and Griqua (groupings of people of mixed descent and runaway slaves who had escaped from the Colony): traded manufactured goods, tobacco and pack oxen</li> </ul>	<p><b>Chapter 2: The Northern frontier of European settlement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Unit 1: Expanding trade relationships on the Northern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>Unit 2: Kora and Griqua</li> </ul>	<p><b>Unit 3. The Northern frontier of European settlement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expanding trade relationships on the Northern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>The Kora and Griqua and what they traded</li> </ul>	<p><b>Unit 3. The Northern frontier of European settlement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expanding trade relationships on the Northern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>Kora and Griqua (Groupings of people of mixed descent and runaway slaves who had escaped from the Colony): traded manufactured goods, tobacco and pack</li> </ul>	<p><b>Unit 3. The Northern frontier of European settlement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expanding trade relationships on the Northern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>Kora and Griqua</li> </ul>	<p><b>Unit 3. The Northern frontier of European settlement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expanding trade relationships on the Northern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>Kora and Griqua (Groupings of people of mixed descent and runaway slaves who had escaped from the Colony): traded manufactured goods, tobacco and pack</li> </ul>	<p><b>Unit 8.3. The Northern frontier of European settlement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expanding trade relationships on the Northern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>Kora and Griqua: traded manufactured goods, tobacco and pack oxen from the Cape</li> </ul>

<p>from the Cape</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o The Kora</li> <li>o The Griqua</li> </ul>		<p>oxen from the Cape</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o The Kora</li> <li>o Griqua traders</li> <li>o Griqua settlers north of the Gariep</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o The Kora</li> <li>o The Griqua</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The southern borders of the Tswana world: traded ivory, hides, skins and furs, iron and copper with Kora and Griqua</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unit 3: The Southern borders of the Tswana world</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The southern borders of the Tswana world</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The southern borders of the Tswana world: traded ivory, hides, skins and furs, iron and copper with Kora and Griqua</li> <li>o The Tswana world</li> <li>o Stone-walled towns</li> <li>o Tswana trade</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The southern borders of the Tswana world: traded ivory, hides, skins and furs, iron and copper with Kora and Griqua</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Missionaries and traders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unit 4: Missionaries and traders</li> <li>o Missionaries</li> <li>o Traders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Missionaries and traders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Missionaries and traders</li> <li>o Missionaries</li> <li>o Traders</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Missionaries and traders</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o Case study: Robert Moffat (1795 – 1883) at Kuruman</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o Case study: Robert Moffat (1795 – 1883) at Kuruman</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o Case study: Robert Moffat at Kuruman</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o Case study: Robert Moffat (1795 – 1883) at Kuruman</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>o Case study: Robert Moffat (1795 – 1883) at Kuruman</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The arrival of the British and the expanding frontier</li> <li>• The eastern frontier of European settlement</li> <li>• The northern frontier of European settlement</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What have we learnt in Chapter 8?</li> </ul>