THE VIEWS OF SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY TEACHERS ON SCHOOL HISTORY AS SPECIALISED SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE

By

MBUSISENI CELIMPILO DUBE

submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (HISTORY EDUCATION)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

SUPERVISOR: PROF. J.M. WASSERMANN

2018

DECLARATION

I, Mbusiseni Celimpilo Dube, hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and that it has not previously been submitted for a degree at any other institution of higher learning. Furthermore, all sources used in this study have been acknowledged accordingly by means of complete references.



Signature

Date: 31 May 2018

As the student's supervisor, I Johan Wassermann, hereby approve the submission of the thesis for examination.

Signature:

Date: 25 May 2018

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to express my most sincere gratitude and appreciation to the following for their ongoing support and inspiration:

- ➤ Professor Johan Wassermann, my supervisor, my mentor and my father for his patience, indefatigable guidance and expertise in helping me achieve my dream of changing my title from Mister to Doctor.
- ➤ The 2013 cohort team led by Dr I Naicker, Prof D Pillay and Professor T Msibi. Without you guys I was clueless.
- Angela Bryan for her assistance with the final editing of my study.
- > Special thanks to Drs N Fru and L Buhigiro with whom I travelled the PhD journey. You guys were always willing to help and guide.
- > Special thanks to all my participants from the different schools I contacted. Without your willingness to engage with me this study would have not been completed.
- ➤ To my sons Siyanda and Sehlule and daughters Andiswa and Amahle -thank you for your love, tolerance and moral support.
- Last but not least my wife, Hlengiwe. I must thank you for being patient and understanding during the hectic and challenging times when I would not sleep before 24:00. You tolerated and understood.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my late father Mnikezeni "Mafikay'theza" and mother, Monica for forcing me to go to school, while conditions were terrible. They persisted that I attend school regardless of the family socio-economic conditions.

ABSTRACT

THE VIEWS OF SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN HISTORY TEACHERS ON SCHOOL HISTORY AS SPECIALISED SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE

The deteriorating number of learners doing History in schools around Empangeni or King Cetshwayo distric after the introduction of Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) led to the omission of History in most of the schools' curricula. This omission affected some history teachers who had to be displaced to other schools. However, the views of History teachers pertaining to this omission have never been fully explored in order to understand how they look at the specialised subject knowledge that School History offers, which may be a contributing factor to this deterioration. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to understand the views of History teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. This study adopted the qualitative research approach and interpretivism paradigm because they both help to understand the phenomenon under scrutiny. I purposively sampled with seven professionally qualified history teachers. For data generation, I used document analysis, card sort and semi-structured interviews and analysed data thematically.

The study revealed that School History develops knowledge in different aspects. These aspects are historical knowledge, common or general knowledge, political knowledge, generic and historical skills, as well as character education. The findings further revealed that the views of History teachers were influenced by a deep rurality as experience, their primary training as history teachers in a different era under apartheid when School History as a memory discipline under apartheid was the key as is borne out by their teaching experience of more than 20 years, different curricula they endured over two political eras, their lack of exposure and understanding of the specialised subject knowledge of School History, History serves as a utilitarian value to the society, their possession of strong views and they were set in their views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. The findings revealed that School History is significant and has a potential to develop the knowledge for learners. Therefore, the study has contributed to the literature on how history teachers view School History as specialised subject knowledge as well as why they viewed it the way they did. The study has also alluded to the impact of the views of history teachers on the teaching of School History as specialised subject knowledge through the CAPS curriculum.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	II	
Acknowledgements	III	
Dedication	IV	
Abstract	V	
List of tables	XII	
List of appendices	XIII	
List of figures	XIV	
Acronyms	XV	
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STU	DY	
1.1. Introduction		1
1.2. Context and background		2
1.3. Rationale and motivation		13
1.4. Purpose and focus of the study		18
1.5. Research questions		18
1.6. Key concepts		19
1.7. Theoretical and conceptual framework		19
1.8. Research design and methodology		20
1.8.1. Research paradigm		20
1.8.2. Research approach		20
1.8.3. Research sample		21
1.8.4. Data generation		22
1.9. Data analysis method		23
1.10. Outline of the study		24
1.11. Conclusion		26

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction	27
2.2. The nature of School History as specialised subject knowledge	28
2.3. The aims of School History as specialised subject knowledge	34
2.4. The views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	39
2.4.1. Views related to social aspect of School History as specialised subject knowledge	39
2.4.2. Views related to educational aspect of School History as specialised subject	
knowledge	44
2.4.3. Views related to political aspect of School History as specialised subject	
knowledge	49
2.4.4. Views related to cultural social aspect of School History as specialised	
subject knowledge	51
2.5. Niche for my study	52
2.6. Conclusion	52
CHAPTER 3: FRAMING THE STUDY THEORETICALLY AND CONCEPTUAL	LLY
3.1. Introduction	51
3.2. Theory underpinning the study – Teacher Knowledge	55
3.3. Specialised subject knowledge	60
3.4. Conclusion	66
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	
4.1. Introduction	67
4.2. Research design	67
4.2.1. Qualitative research approach	69
4.2.2. Research paradigm	71
4.2.3. Ontological and epistemological assumptions	73
4.2.4. Research sample	75
4.3. Research Methodology	78
4.3.1. Case study as a research methodology	79
4.3.2. Data generation	80
4.3.2.1. Card sorting	81
4.3.2.2. Semi-structured interviews	83
4.3.2.3. Document analysis	84

4.3.3. Data analysis	85
4.3.3.1. Analysis of CAPS document and literature	86
4.3.3.2. Analysis of card sorting	86
4.3.3.3. Analysis of the semi-structured interviews	86
4.4. Ethical issues	88
4.5. Trustworthiness of the study	89
4.5.1. Credibility of the study	89
4.5.2. Transferability of the study	92
4.5.3. Dependability of the study	92
4.5.4. Confirmability of the study	93
4.6. Methodological limitations	94
4.7. Conclusion	95
CHAPTER FIVE: THE VIEWS OF HISTORY TEACHERS ON SCHOOL	HISTORY
AS SPECIALISED SCHOOL SUBJECT	
5.1. Introduction	97
5.2. The views of history teachers and their ranking order	98
5.2.1. Zanele's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	98
5.2.1.1. Zanele's own views on history as specialised school subject	98
5.2.1.2. Zanele's views in relation to the literature and CAPS	99
5.2.1.3. Zanele's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS	103
5.2.1.4. Consolidating the views of Zanele	106
5.2.2. Sizwe's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	107
5.2.2.1. Sizwe's own views on history as specialised school subject	107
5.2.2.2. Sizwe's views in relation to the literature and CAPS	108
5.2.2.3. Sizwe's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS	110
5.2.2.4. Consolidating the views of Sizwe	112
5.2.3. Sipho's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	113
5.2.3.1. Sipho's own views on history as specialised school subject	113
5.2.3.2. Sipho's views in relation to the literature and CAPS	114
5.2.3.3. Sipho's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS	117
5.2.3.4. Consolidating the views of Sipho	118
5.2.4. Joseph's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	119
5.2.4.1 Joseph's own views on history as specialised school subject	119

5.2.4.2. Joseph's views in relation to the literature and CAPS	121
5.2.4.3. Joseph's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS	124
5.2.4.4. Consolidating the views of Joseph	126
5.2.5. Siyanda's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	127
5.2.5.1. Siyanda's own views on history as specialised school subject	127
5.2.5.2. Siyanda's views in relation to the literature and CAPS	128
5.2.5.3. Siyanda's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS	130
5.2.5.4. Consolidating the views of Siyanda	132
5.2.6. Bethel's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	133
5.2.6.1. Bethel's own views on history as specialised school subject	133
5.2.6.2. Bethel's views in relation to the literature and CAPS	134
5.2.6.3. Bethel's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS	137
5.2.6.4. Consolidating the views of Bethel	138
5.2.7. Jonathan's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge	139
5.2.7.1. Jonathan's own views on history as specialised school subject	139
5.2.7.2. Jonathan's views in relation to the literature and CAPS	139
5.2.7.3. Jonathan's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS	142
5.2.7.4. Consolidating the views of Jonathan	144
5.3. Conclusion	145
CHAPTER 6: AN ANALYSIS OF THE VIEWS OF THE HISTORY TEACH	ERS
6.1. Introduction	147
6.2. Themes from the personal/own views of history teachers on School History as	
specialised subject knowledge	148
6.2.1. Knowledge	148
6.2.1.1. Historical knowledge	148
6.2.1.2. Common/general knowledge	150
6.2.1.3. Political knowledge	152
6.2.1.4. Character education	153
6.2.1.5. Skills	154
6.2.1.6. Careers	156
6.2.1.7. Conclusion	157
6.3. History teachers' ranking of the views from literature and CAPS	158
6.3.2. The composite rank order of views from literature and CAPS	160

6.3.3. Conclusion	163
6.4. The views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge	
when blending their personal views with views from literature and CAPS	164
6.4.2. Composite rank order of the blended personal views, literature and CAPS	164
6.4.3. Conclusion	168
6.5. Conclusion	168
CHARTER 7. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS	
CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS 7.1. Introduction	170
7.1. Introduction 7.2. The views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge	170
7.2.1. Historical knowledge	171
7.2.2. Common/general knowledge	171
7.2.3. Political knowledge	173
7.2.4. Skills	180
7.2.5. Character education	182
7.3. The views of history teachers in relation to literature and CAPS	183
7.3.1. Historical knowledge	184
7.3.2. Common/general knowledge	187
7.3.3. Political knowledge	190
7.3.4. Skills	192
7.3.5. Character education	194
7.3.6. Conclusion	195
7.4. The factors that influenced the views of history teachers on School History as	
specialised subject knowledge	195
7.4.1. A deep rurality as experience	196
7.4.2. The primary training history teachers received in a different era when memory	
discipline under apartheid was the key	200
7.4.3. History teachers had to endure numerous curricula over two political eras	201
7.4.4. Lack of exposure and understanding of the specialised subject nature of School	
History	202
7.4.5. History should serve a utilitarian value to society	206
7.5. Theorising the findings of the study	208
7.6. The implications of history teachers' views on School History as specialised	
subject knowledge	210

7.7. Conclusion	212
CHAPTER 8: CONCLUDING THE STUDY	
8.1. Introduction	213
8.2. Summary and review of the study	213
8.3 Relating the findings to the research questions	216
8.3.1. Research question 1: What are the views of South African history	
teachers?	216
8.3.2. Why do South African history teachers have the views that they have?	217
8.3.3. How do views of South African history teachers impact on teaching of	
School History as specialised subject knowledge?	218
8.4. Methodological reflections on the study	219
8.5. Personal-professional reflections on the study	221
8.6. Contribution of the study	223
8.7. Limitations	222
8.8. Recommendations based on the study	225
8.9. Conclusion	226
9. References	228
10. Appendices	248

List of Tables

Table 4.1 Summary of the research design	82
Table 5.2.1.2.: Zanele's ranking of views in relation to the literature and CAPS	104
Table 5.2.1.3.: Zanele's blended personal, literature and CAPS views on School	
History as specialised school subject	108
Table 5.2.2.2.: Sizwe's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS	112
Table 5.2.2.3.: Sizwe's blended personal views, literature and CAPS	115
Table 5.2.3.2.: Sipho's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS	118
Table 5.2.3.3.: Sipho's blended personal, literature and CAPS	121
Table 5.2.4.2.: Joseph's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS	125
Table 5.2.4.3.: Joseph's ranking of personal, literature and CAPS	129
Table 5.2.5.2.: Siyanda's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS	132
Table 5.2.5.3.: Siyanda's ranking of personal, literature and CAPS	135
Table 5.2.6.2.: Bethel's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS	139
Table 5.2.6.3.: Bethel's ranking of personal views, literature and CAPS	141
Table 5.2.7.2.: Jonathan's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS	144
Table 5.2.7.3.: Jonathan's ranking of personal, literature and CAPS	147
Table 6.3.1. History teachers' consolidated ranking order of their views from literature	
and CAPS	163
Table 6.3.2.: Composite ranking order of views from literature and CAPS	164
Table 6.4.2.: Composite rank order of the blended personal views, literature and	
CAPS views	169

List of Appendices

Appendix A: Table 6.4.1.: Individual teacher's ranking of their blended personal, literatur	e
and CAPS views	252
Appendix B: Ethical clearance	254
Appendix C: Cards with views from literature and CAPS	256
Appendix D: Report from Turnitin	257

List of figures

Figure 1: Map of Empangeni and surrounding areas	07
Figure 2: The visual representation of theorisation	213

Acronyms

CMC - Circuit Management Centre

NCS - National Curriculum Statement

DoE - Department of Education

CAPS - Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

DOBET - Department of Basic Education and Training

BHA - British Historical Association

WWII - World War II

PCK - Pedagogic Content Knowledge

CK - Content knowledge

NAEME – National Agency for Education and in the Ministry of Education

HTA – History Teachers Association

SMK - Subject Matter Knowledge

SCK - Specialised Content Knowledge

FET - Further Education and Training

UKZ - University of KwaZulu-Natal

AHE-Afrika - African Association for History Education

EMASA – Education Management Association of South Africa

SASE – South African Society for Education

OBE - Outcome-Based Education

HOD – Head of Department

UN - United Nations Organisation

AU - African Union

EU - European Union

IMF - International Monetary Fund

WB - World Bank

TRC – Truth and Reconciliation Commission

USA - United States of America

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

People have views on almost everything. Not only are the views of people informed by the way they see or look at things but people's views encapsulate the way they interpret things. Similarly, teachers have their own views that affect the way they teach their subjects of specialisation. Consequently, the way teachers view their subjects has a bearing on the way they teach. This influence emanates from their own views that they have of their specialist subjects. Hence, the views teachers have can make them view their subjects as irrelevant or sometimes less important, or relevant or most important. Therefore, if teachers believe that their subject is important and has value, based on their views, teachers will do their best to support their stance during teaching and learning. On the contrary, if views of teachers make them view their subjects negatively or as having little value, they will teach the subject because they have to, not because they love teaching or believe in it. History teachers are not strangers to having their own views about School History. This study aims to explore the views of South African history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

In this chapter I provide an overview of my study on the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge in order to understand their views. In order for their views to be understood clearly, I first present and explain the background and context for my study where I highlight issues relating to teaching of School History by history teachers. Furthermore, I present the background and context in order to illuminate the conditions and contexts that shape the teaching of School History. I also present and elaborate my rationale and motivation and describe my position as a researcher in the study in relation to the phenomenon under investigation.

I also clarify the purpose and focus that guided the study by outlining what the study intends to achieve. In other words, I used purpose and focus to shed light on the expected end product of this study. In addition, I also describe the research questions posed. The mentioned research questions were formulated taking into account the purpose and focus of my study. The theoretical underpinning of the study and key aspects of the literature are also introduced. Reviewing the literature enabled me to identify and indicate the niche that is to be filled by this study. I further highlight the problem statement, theoretical and conceptual framework of the

study as well as the key concepts used. Lastly, I give a brief outline of research design and methodology of my study as well as the organisation of the thesis.

1.2. Context and Background

I was born and grew up in a deep rural area called Manzamnyama, Ongoye around Empangeni in the King Cetshwayo District municipality in the Zululand region of what is now known as KwaZulu-Natal. This area is affected by a number of socio-economic and political conditions. The socio-economic conditions were never conducive for proper schooling. The long distance that I travelled bare-footed to school made me arrive at school tired but still I had to learn. Also, Mr Mnikezeni Dube, my father, and Mrs Monica P Dube, my mother, was both illiterate. My father never attended school and never knew how to write. At least my mother attended school up to standard two, nowadays known as Grade four. So, there was no way they could assist me with schoolwork. I had to depend only on my teachers and my friends for guidance, learning and assistance. Furthermore, sometimes I had to go to school on an empty stomach therefore I struggled to concentrate and participate effectively during teaching and learning activities because I never had anything to eat before going to school. These were the factors that affected me and other learners before we could even get into school and before any teaching-learning activities took place.

In Standard A, nowadays Grade 1, learning was difficult because by then we were using slates to write on as there were no exercise books. A learner was expected to have one slate where all the subjects were written on. For instance, one would write on it during Mathematics and when the isiZulu teacher or any other subject teacher came what had been written had to be erased in order that the next subject could be recorded. So there was no way we, as learners could revise what he had learnt at school because everything was erased immediately so as to write the new material for the following teacher and his/her subject.

The situation improved when the government decided to supply stationery. For the first time learners used exercise books when writing - this was a sign of improvement. At least learners could see if they made a mistake when writing or doing an activity and could do corrections thus learning from their mistakes. This made learning less grim.

At a later stage the government decided to provide food for schools and we received a cup of soup and a slice of bread daily. Receiving a cup of soup and slice of bread helped a lot since

even if learners never had anything to eat at their homes they would not be hungry the whole day. It was not enough but better than nothing. Also, this helped to improve concentration during teaching and learning. Unfortunately, this feeding scheme did not last for long because after sometime it stopped and we were back to square one.

The functioning of the school was also affected by some contextual factors. Siyabonga High School, my secondary school, had its own problems or factors that affected teaching-learning activities. Amongst these factors was the shortage of classrooms which brought about overcrowding in classes. Like other rural schools, Siyabonga High School did not have sufficient infrastructure that could enable effective teaching and learning. For instance, there was a dearth of desks and classes. Also, there was no electricity hence no electrical appliances were to be found in school, including photocopying machines. Additionally, since the school did not have enough textbooks, learners had to share the little that the school had. So, it was difficult if not impossible to study and do schoolwork the way we wanted as learners. I remember when I was doing Standard 10 (nowadays Grade 12) our English teacher took us to the University of Zululand so as to use facilities there to watch the prescribed drama at that time, Romeo and Juliet. This was done because my school did not have a television set or video player so that this drama could be displayed in our school and learners watch it. Learners had to pay a transport fee in order to go to the University of Zululand. As a result, learners only watched it once and that was good enough to enable them to write and pass English Literature. Some of our classmates who did not manage to go and watch this drama never got a chance again. We, as learners had to appreciate that because our English subject teacher improvised for the sake of learners.

Moreover, the location of school far away from a town or urban area made it very difficult to have proper and better support from other stakeholders like companies or sponsors. These difficulties could also be attributed to the conditions of the roads to school which were not navigable. Consequently, most of the teachers were compelled to leave their homes and stay in cottages close to the school because of the long distance they had to travel from their homes to school as well as the bad conditions of the road. In this context the only mode of transport that was available was the community or public bus. Due to the bad conditions of the road, teachers left their cars at home or at a town nearby and used the community or public bus to get to schools. Also, due to public buses sometimes coming earlier in the morning and afternoon, schools were forced to break early and dismiss earlier than the normal or stipulated time

because a failure to catch the bus in the afternoon would make it difficult for teachers to get to their homes. Therefore, the conditions of the road also contributed to the low standards of education in schools far away from towns.

During heavy rainfalls rivers would overflow which resulted in teachers and learners finding it difficult to get to schools and sometimes did not even try because it was impossible to cross rivers which also affected teaching and learning. One day when we were supposed to write Business Studies during the final examination for senior certificate there were heavy rainfalls. Since the Gugushe River overflowed its banks our principal organised another venue for us where we could write on the other side of the river. This organisation of another venue was because it was difficult to cross over the river with question papers to our school. We made means to cross over the river so that we could be able to write the final examination. Obviously, these conditions were not conducive to good examination preparation since we were not sure whether we would be able to get to the new venue on time travelling long distances barefooted.

Due to the high number of illiterate people within the community, the community did not value education as an important thing because they did not know anything about education. For example, one day we did not have exercise books that our subject teacher needed for Health Education activities. She sent us back home to go and ask our parents to buy exercise books for us. Her intention was to alert our parents that we were losing lessons if we do not have exercise books to do activities. My two cousins and I decided to go together from one home to another, passing the message to our parents, then returned to school. When we got into one of my cousin's home, my cousin explained to his father why we were there at the time when we were supposed to be at school. Instead of my uncle attending to that, he simply told us to go and look for cattle from the veld and bring them home. He never took our absence from school seriously. Therefore, it ended just like that and that day we were not able to return to school but went the following day.

In some cases, if there had been a ceremony or gathering in the community over the weekend, some learners did not bother going to school. Consequently, most of the learners did not go to schools on Mondays and some even on Fridays. These learners would be drunk and spent their times in these homes within the community where the ceremony was held. Therefore, these socio-economic factors impacted negatively on teaching and learning thus denting the effectiveness of teaching and learning.

Also, the political situation was characterised by so many inequalities. Our situation, as rural schools, was worse than the so called 'Model C' schools by then. Even the way the government funded schooling, was altogether different. These inequalities led to a poor and low standard of education in deep rural schools compared to urban and semi-urban schools. The deep rural schools were politically side-lined until a later stage when I was doing Standard 8, nowadays Grade 10. This was the time when there were talks about the formation of a government of national unity. These talks gave rise to democracy which, amongst other things, promoted equal education. Therefore, drastic changes were made in education and one of these changes was the equal distribution of resources to schools.

However, the political situation grew worse when I was doing my Standard 10 (now Grade 12) in 1993. Those were the times in preparation for the first democratic elections that took place on 27 April 1994. The skirmishes between the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) and the African National Congress (ANC) members, in particular, broke out and impacted negatively on teaching and learning activities. Consequently, the teaching and learning activities took place under terrible conditions. Since my school was in a deep rural area which was IFP dominated, everybody was forced to be IFP members. If one was suspected to be an ANC member, whether a teacher or learner, one had to change and become an IFP member otherwise he/she would be at risk of being killed regardless of whether in school or not. Some learners who were suspected to be ANC members or were ANC members ran away from school in order to save their lives. The prevalence of home-made guns, known as *oghwasha* was rampant and consequently, killing someone was not a difficult thing at all. Sometimes, while we were in classes, we would see people who are not even learners coming to school looking for a certain learner in order to kill that learner. It was very difficult to have enough time to engage with schoolwork or study because even at home it was not safe at all for us. One could be attacked while at home at any time of the day let alone at school. Sometimes we slept in bushes and forests in order to save our lives and if one was literate one was viewed as ANC aligned or an associate. Subsequently, one would be hated and even be killed on the basis of being an ANC supporter. Consequently, some teachers were chased away from the school and others decided to leave the school and look for jobs somewhere else in fear of death.

This political situation affected us adversely since Standard 10 (now Grade 12) candidates had to sit for the external final examination. At this critical time for us the area was patrolled by soldiers; day and night. Sometimes soldiers had to escort us to and from school. There was no

good time and space to study or prepare for examinations because it was risky. Since there was no electricity by then, it was difficult to use candlelight at night and study because one would never know whether someone was watching you from outside and could shoot you while studying because that was the order of the day. Fortunately, I managed to pull through such terrible circumstances and passed my Grade 12.

This study was conducted in South Africa, in a deep rural area of Zululand in the north of KwaZulu-Natal in and around Empangeni under King Cetshwayo District municipality where I grew up and was educated. In short, this study took place in the area where I grew up and hence I deemed it opportune to describe it in detail while also positioning myself as a researcher in it.

The two prominent cities in the King Cetshwayo District are Empangeni and Richards Bay. Otherwise most schools are situated in deep rural areas surrounding these two cities. King Cetshwayo District municipality has five Circuit Management Centre for education namely: Nkandla, Umlalazi, Umhlatuze, Mthonjaneni and Imfolozi. Nkandla CMC, in turn, comprises Chwezi Circuit, Sigananda Circuit, Sibhudeni Circuit, Godide Circuit and Ntolwane Circuit. Umlalazi comprises Eshowe Circuit, Samungu Circuit and Mbongolwane Circuit. Umhlathuze CMC consists of Esikhalenisenkosi Circuit, Ongoye Circuit, Ngwelezane Circuit and Ensingweni Circuit. Mthonjaneni CMC consists of Ndundulu Circuit, Obuka Circuit, Ntambanana Circuit and Ndlangubo Circuit. Umfolozi CMC is made up of KwaMbonambi Circuit, Mhlana Circuit, Umbiya Circuit and Richards Bay Circuit. Therefore, based on the number of CMCs and Circuits' location King Cetshwayo District municipality encapsulates the following areas namely: kwaMthethwa, kwaMbonambi, Ntambanana, Obuka, Melmoth, Eshowe, Nkandla, Ndlangubo, Ensingweni, kwaDangezwa and Esikhalenisenkosi. These are the areas that form part of King Cetshwayo District municipality and most of them are situated in deep rural areas (see the map in Figure 1 below).

⊙ St. Lucia Babanango Estuary Mtuba Ridge River View Mtubatuba Bayala Maphelana Sangoyana Riversmeet Mfuyeni Nkiya KwaMawanda Mfolozi arthoogte Welkom Klonge Teza Umfolozi Bambela ndanani Journey's End Ndodwane, Randalhurst Melmoth KwaMbonambi Nkandla Acme Saxonyo Mabuyeni^o Kortbegrip Ndundula St. Paul's Wilderness Bavete River View Veldenvlei Nkwalini Empangeni Mdimela Inkunzana Ohubandaba · Alton Richards Bay Umzimbete Oyemeni Sobamdlovu Ntumeni Ongoye ela eSikhawini Brooklyn Good Hope ngolwane Nsingweni Delville Highfield Endulinde aMatikulu Gingindlovu Samungu Ngutweni Dokodweni Sitebe Dunbarton olumuq Sundumbili Andrews lapumulo Tugela

Figure 1: Map of Empangeni and surrounding areas

Downloaded from: South African places, KwaZulu-Natal map (https://www.google.co.za/search?q=map+of+empangeni+and+surrounding+areas&dcr)

Most of these areas continue to face a unique set of challenges, due to amongst other factors, geographic location of schools, diverse backgrounds of learners, socio-economic challenges, rurality and diverse learning styles at various schools (Nkambule, Balfour, Pillay, & Moletsane, 2011).

Most learners from where the study was undertaken stay with parents and relatives who are semi-literate or illiterate hence they cannot assist learners with schoolwork. Moreover, parents cannot motivate learners about studying and schoolwork because they do not necessarily understand the value of education. As a result, learners do not have a good support structure at home to fall back to if they encounter problems relating to schoolwork. Additionally, most of the schools are situated in areas that are difficult to reach due to infrastructural and environmental issues. This makes it difficult for service providers and officials to reach these schools. The learners from these schools find it challenging to liaise and relate to other learners from other schools because of the road conditions. From personal observation the schools in King Cetshwayo District municipality are not fully furnished with enough resources that equate to quality teaching and learning. The dearth of resources and inadequate infrastructure in most

of the schools also affect the quality of teaching and learning. In short, the above-mentioned socio-economic and socio-political conditions affect teaching-learning activities adversely. History teachers also had to teach school history under this context outlined.

In order to bring a deeper understanding of the socio-economic and socio-political conditions in the above-mentioned rural areas it is necessary to elaborate on some characteristics that delineate rurality and rural education. Acker and Gasperini, (2009) posit that rural means human settlements with small populations or former Bantustans or Homelands and in geographical spaces often dominated by farms, forests, coastal zones, mountains and or deserts. The *Report of the Ministerial Committee on Rural Education* (2005), in turn, regard 'rural' as a space where human settlements and infrastructure occupy only small patches of the landscape, and economic activity is dominated by primary production. The setting in these areas is not conducive for most of the activities as may be the case with urban or semi-urban areas. It is possible that the above-mentioned features of rurality manifest themselves in the type of education presented to learners in schools.

The Ministerial Seminar on Education for Rural People in Africa: Policy Lessons, Options and Priorities (Country Report: South Africa, 2005) tabled different characteristics that define rural education. These characteristics are a lack of basic services which affects access to and quality of schooling. The inadequate physical and infrastructure conditions of the rural schools, together with the long distances children have to walk with no adequate transport provision, greatly affect the quality of education. The quality of education is further characterised by the lack of qualified educators, irrelevance of the curriculum, large classes and lack of teaching aids. Quality education is greatly undermined by some poor approaches of teachers, for example rote learning with little understanding themselves of what they are teaching. Lack of resources such as textbooks exacerbates the already grim situation which is not made any easier by the competing priorities between education and domestic chores. Furthermore, most families rely on social grants for survival. The above-mentioned characteristics are not strange to education in King Cetshwayo district; the setting for this study.

However, as much as teaching-learning activities are affected by the features stated above, some rural teachers do become creative in order to ensure that these socio-economic conditions do not affect teaching and learning activities drastically. Sometimes learners are sent to fetch water from rivers or waterholes in order to provide for this basic need. Some parents organise

motor cars that take learners to schools. Also, teachers stay in cottages around school in order to save their cars against the terrible road conditions so as to spend more time with learners. Most of these teachers have afternoon and evening classes meant to assist learners to obtain better results at the end of the year. Other schools also enforce English communication language by forcing learners to speak English in schools. Subsequently, in some schools, teachers do not communicate with learners in any other language except in English. This is one of the means to better the understanding of English language and learners obtaining better results.

The living environment, be it rural or urban where learners live plays a pivotal role in forming their personal identities and memories. Furthermore, the environment shapes the values and identities of learners. A rural environment is characterised by "different occupational base, more sparsely settled, some are geographically remote from many resources and services". Also, "aspects of rural environment and culture, rural values are all important in contributing to the reminiscences and life stories of rural dwellers" of which learners are part (Dorfman, Murty, Evans, Ingram & Power, 2004, p.189). When rural teachers teach School History they are subjected to most if not all the above-mentioned socio-economics conditions.

The environment where the learner grows up is a manipulative factor for learning. Hence, if the environment is characterised by lack of formal education, learners may not see the value of education thus lack motivation. Therefore, an environment may affect the way learners learn and sometimes determines the need of learning. As a result, Balfour, Mitchell & Moletsane, (2009) regard a rural environment as a construct of a learners' life rather than a context. In this regard, Nkambule et al., (2011) submit that rurality cannot only be about people and space, but also about the manner in which the space shapes community and individual behaviour. The argument of Nkambule et al., (2011) seems fair because normally learners want to mimic adults since they look up to them. Consequently, if the society is dominated by people who are professionals or academically qualified even the learners can be motivated and strive to be like professionals. Subsequently, rural social issues shape teaching and learning of subjects. The rural environment is thus not a static force but rather an active one that influences teaching and learning. Accordingly, these are some of the political, social and economic factors that affect schooling in rural areas where this study was undertaken.

The kind of knowledge that School History provided under the National Curriculum Statement, (2003) makes learners understand and evaluate how past human actions impacted on the present and influenced the future. In this regard, School History was designed to encompass processes of historical enquiry and production of historical knowledge. The knowledge acquisition for School History was based on four Learning Outcomes. These Learning Outcomes were enquiry skills, historical concepts, knowledge construction and communication, and heritage (NCS History Grades 10-12, 2003). In other words, this was the kind of envisaged specialised subject knowledge for School History. Consequently, the NCS hoped to produce learners that were cognisant of values and act in the interests of a society based on respect for democracy, equality, human dignity and social justice as promoted in the constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Department of Education (DoE), NCS History Grades10-12, 2003). Furthermore, School History was expected to produce the kind of learners who could think logically and analytically, holistically and laterally (DoE, NCS History Grades10-12, 2003).

Subsequently, Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) was introduced in 2011 to replace and improve the NCS. CAPS outline skills and concepts to be achieved by learners. In relation to School History, CAPS emphasised the kind of knowledge that was emphasised by the NCS 10-12. Thus continuity exists from the one curriculum to the next regarding specialised subject knowledge for history. To ensure that the kind of knowledge envisaged through the study and teaching of history was achieved, CAPS introduced skills and the manner in which they could be achieved. For example, one of the skills is to "extract and interpret information from a number of sources". For learners to achieve this they are expected to "select relevant information for the topic being investigated or from the question being answered and by making sense of information within its context" (CAPS, History, 2012, p.12). The above curricula were the basis of the intended specialised subject knowledge for School History and this was the specialised subject knowledge the Department of Basic Education and Training (DOBET) wanted learners to achieve through studying School History. This envisaged specialised subject knowledge did not take into account the social conditions of the areas where the school was situated. Whether they were rural or urban meant nothing. Therefore, it means that regardless of the socio-economic conditions, specialised subject knowledge should still be achieved by learners and exhibited by teachers.

Notwithstanding the positive attitude and importance of School History as presented by NCS and CAPS, the report by the History/Archaeology Panel to the then Minister of Education, Professor Kader Asmal, presented a different angle of School History. This report stated categorically that the manner School History was treated in schools did not equate to its importance, as per NCS and CAPS. This report stated that there was a need to promote the importance of the study of History and Archaeology (*Report of the History/Archaeology Panel*, 2000). This was a clear indication that the number of learners opting for history was deteriorating and it was noticeable. Also, this report further stated that School History was important because "knowledge of the past is crucial to an understanding of the present" (Report of the History/Archaeology Panel, 2000, p.7). So, the view of Asmal was that School History brings learners to terms with what happens in the world. Therefore, without the specialised subject knowledge of School History, it might be impossible to understand and interact with the world successfully.

Moreover, there were campaigns to secure the survival of history teaching in schools through 'save history campaigns' (Arthur & Phillips, 2000). These campaigns were an indication that School History was marginal (Hutton & Burstein, 2008) across many countries. Also, there was an indication that the report to Asmal was realistic; School History was really 'suffering'. Evidence of this not being only a local phenomenon is that the British Historical Association launched campaigns in early 2000 whose aims were to secure the survival of School History (Phillips, 2000). There were also debates in Canada pertaining to the learning of history at schools. Amongst the issues that were debated, was the marginalisation of history in the curriculum (Osborne, 2003). Debates were also, undertaken in the United States which were about aspects or themes to be included in the curriculum (Nakou & Barca, 2010). However, one of the issues that surfaced was history retaining its place in the curriculum (Nakou & Barca, 2010). The argument was that School History faced a challenge of relevance and ability to fill the background to current affairs. As a result, it was declared irrelevant and unimportant.

There were some positive views in England from many quality graduates who were interested in School History. However, they also argued that the time allocated for it in the school timetable was not pleasing at all for subject specialists (Haydn, 2004). They also submitted that School History had to fight for its place in the curriculum and also fight to find its place in the option pool (Haydn, 2004). Again, this was an indication that School History was fighting for survival even in countries like England. Against these issues and concerns, I did not come

across a study that addressed the views of history teachers on School History as specialsied subject knowlegde. Therefore, it was against this context that I decided to engage history teachers so as to understand their views.

My childhood life up to my completion of school education was bleak. The challenges that I faced, emanating from socio-economic and political conditions affected my life. The influence of these contextual factors manifested themselves when I became a professional teacher. However, on a positive note, the contextual factors created a deep love for history. This love for history continued and grew such that it became my major subject. Therefore, this positive attitude and love for history also influenced my position as a researcher. Ritchie, Zwi, Blignault, Bunde-Birouste & Silove, (2009) suggest that the position of the researcher is the 'enquiry from inside'. Enquiring from inside allows the researcher to explore issues that are complex (Merriam, Johnson-Bailey, Lee, Kee, Ntseane & Muhamad, 2001). In other words, the position of the researcher is to conduct enquiry while participating or being part of the phenomenon. In effect, this was the case with me in this study. I am a professionally qualified history teacher and have taught and lived in a deep rural area and consequently, I have interest in issues or matters relating to School History teaching in a rural area. For this reason, I could not claim to be neutral or disinterested in the phenomenon under investigation. As a result, I had my own assumptions regarding the issue under study which were shaped by the very context as outlined above. Therefore, there is a great likelihood that my assumptions might influence my interpretation. Thus, I cannot claim to be neutral because I have interest in what I am studying about. However, I seriously took the views of participants into cognisance and these views formed the core for this study rather than my experiences and understanding or preconceived viewpoints.

Considering all the issues that I raised above, there was a necessity for this study to be undertaken. The systematic omission of history in many schools in the King Cetshwayo district created an impression that there were causal factors leading to this omission. Furthermore, the fact that government treated or addressed all subjects the same shows that government saw potential of and significance in School History. Therefore, the question was if School History was omitted from school curricula and yet the government took a solid stand in favour of it, how did subject specialists view their subject of specialisation? Another question could be: could this omission be attributed to the views of history teachers? Hence this study intended to establish views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge in order

to understand their views in this regard. The views in this study represent the way history teachers looked at and saw School History. In other words, this study wanted to find out what history teachers would say if asked to share their ideas on School History as specialised subject knowledge. Therefore, the way history teachers look at School History helped me to understand the views of School History teachers thus understanding the value, significance and potential of School History.

1.3. Rationale and motivation

Looking at the way my history teachers in Standard five (now Grade 7) and Standard 8-10 (now Grade 10-12) handled School History, and the way they valued and taught us, developed a love for history in us learners. It was clear to us, as learners, that these history teachers had immense interest in School History from the way they presented their lessons to us. Not only were they dedicated to teaching School History but we could see from the way they taught and explained that they knew what they were talking about. In keeping with their exquisite knowledge and love, they even took us to visit some places of historical interest and importance.

One day our Grade 12 teacher organised for us to go and watch the video Soweto uprisings of 1976 at the University of Zululand. While we were watching he analysed it superbly and clearly for us. He made us understand how this uprising unfolded. He prepared us very well for any question that we could encounter at any given time; I took note of that. Not only did he insist and ensure that all history learners wore traditional attire during heritage days but, he also insisted that they present any aspect pertaining to Zulu history. These presentations helped us to prove in public how much we knew history that he taught us. Consequently, all of us as learners never wanted to disappoint him, and we all cooperated and that bore good results for us because we studied and learned history with positive mind-sets. Additionally, he organised debates for us on some topics that were within the curriculum and were debatable. One of the topics we debated was: "Hitler was responsible for the outbreak of the World War II in 1939". He grouped us into two, one arguing 'yes' he was responsible while the other was arguing 'no' he was not responsible. It was so interesting to see how we threw our points debating while citing the same incidents in which Hitler was adversely involved like the breaking of the Treaty of Versailles and withdrawal from the League of Nations. He enriched our vocabulary because he came with new terms almost every day hence we called him 'Mr Bombastic'. When we were debating as a school or classes within the school, as historians we were identified and

known by using bombastic words and it was because of how he taught and groomed us. So, he instilled love for history and made sure that we had its love deep in our hearts. Therefore, my love for history was strengthened by this teacher.

My love for history enabled me to view it as an important subject in inculcating values like tolerance, respect, *ubuntu*, democracy and many skills including communication, investigation and analysis, to mention some. These values and skills are important because they underpin all personal, social and political relationships. Also, these values define who we are and how we should conduct ourselves ethically as human beings as values shape people's characters. Since history is about, amongst other things, people's achievement, struggles and activities, I viewed it as an important subject that makes learners know people who played important roles in shaping conditions that they witness in their daily lives. School History also helps learners identify their role models based on the manner role models conducted and behaved themselves. I remember one of my classmates in Grade 12 called himself Stalin. Obviously it was because of the way Stalin led and governed Russia. Moreover, learning about how our predecessors worked their way up was a very important thing for me to learn and know.

Teachers have more than enough time to influence or shape the characters of young ones or learners at school. Therefore, knowing people of high calibre and different characters makes it easy for teachers when they have to mould the characters of learners. It was for this reason that I decided that when I get a chance I would become a history teacher so as to mould learner characters. This was fulfilled when I acquired my professional degree in 1999.

When I enrolled at the University of Zululand for a teaching qualification I opted for history and found it very interesting. For example, for the first time in my life I learnt about the evolution of man and the rise of civilisations. These two themes were an eye opener for me since I realised that learners who did not do history missed out on most important historical knowledge. These learners missed out on a number of issues like how human beings came into existence, studying about *Homo Sapiens* and knowledge about when, where and how first civilisations started and unfolded. Acquiring this important knowledge bolstered my decision to study history and made me not regret specialising in it.

The content that I acquired from the University of Zululand also made me bold enough to teach whatever level of class at any school at any given time. Seeing the way my lecturers at the

Faculty of Arts i.e. Mrs G Gule, Mr V Shongwe, Mr F A van Jaarsveld, Professor J de Villiers, Professor T Cubbin and Professor SJ Maphalala lectured us, my love for teaching history grew rapidly. Not only did they boost my confidence but they also strengthened my love for the subject. Due to the confidence that I had for history, I opted for BA Honours in history and that was because of the manner these above mentioned lecturers influenced and guided me as these lecturers enabled me to see the value, potential and significance of history.

I also admire my method lecturers at the Faculty of Education, University of Zululand, i.e. Ms N Chalufu, Prof. DP Ngidi and the late Mr BB Mkhwanazi. After acquiring the content from the Faculty of Arts, I was supposed to get method of teaching in order to relate the content very well and effectively to learners and the above-mentioned lecturers furnished me with methods of teaching history. They did not only make everything easy by teaching me how to convey the content to learners but, they also made me realise how crucial and critical it was to teach history.

My primary and high school history teachers and university lecturers bolstered the way I viewed School History thus helping me to develop my own epistemology for it as specialised subject knowledge. They made me realise that if the subject teacher loves his subject and shows that love to learners, learners will love it and do well. Furthermore, they made me realise that it is good to engage learners in teaching and learning activities outside the classroom.

I was first employed as a history teacher in 2000 after completing my B. Paed, nowadays B.Ed. degree at the University of Zululand in 1999 at Welabasha High School in a deep rural area in King Cetshwayo District. I was the only history specialist and loved my subject as I still do. At this time my love grew rapidly because I knew that I had a chance to mould learners' characters, knowledge and abilities using the knowledge that I had acquired through learning history. Welabasha High School was situated in a deep rural area which was almost equivalent to where I grew up and went to school. The way my history class responded to my teaching was amazing. They liked the way I explained history content to them and even came out openly to say that I was teaching them so clearly. Also, the way I used bombastic words made me famous and characterised as a historian. Some of them even tried to mimic me during debates they held within and outside school. Not only was I a teacher to them but father as well such that even if they had personal problems, it was easy for them to reach out to me. Thereafter, I would help or advise them accordingly and through the way I taught them I managed to create lasting

relationships with them. They did not only come in time for my history lesson but, they also scored good marks when I gave them activities and tests. In light of this, I developed a strong bond with my history class. Sometimes they would come to me for clarity with other subjects as well in case they were not sure. I could see that it was due to the way I treated them, we were like friends.

Fortunately, Welabasha High School had electricity, so it was easy for me to organise learners some videos of history events to watch. I made them debate some of the topics that were debatable. For once I thought that they never wanted to disappoint me for the way I taught them and the way I showed them love for School History. I therefore concluded that the way the teacher handles his subject and conducts him/herself before learners, due to his epistemology, has a serious bearing on the way learners learn or perform. Learners, in return, strive to impress the teacher at all costs. In fact, learners do not want to disappoint the teacher who is committed towards them and the subject. Needless to say, I copied these strategies and techniques from my high school history teacher as well as my lecturers; hence I became a 'star' at Welabasha High School and surrounding schools.

I am currently employed at the University of Zululand as a history lecturer in teacher education and I teach history methodology. My job is to prepare history student teachers at a tertiary level. My history students are normally around ± 120 a year. This on its own indicates that there are people out there who still see the need for School History. On the other hand, I stand in a position where I have to bridge the gap between how these student teachers view School History in relation to what was happening in schools by creating certain views. One of my former students approached me asking why universities continue to offer School History because there were no job opportunities, in other words there was no need for history teachers. She had graduated but could not be employed with School History. The view of this student complemented what was happening in most schools in Zululand hence they decided to omit the subject from the curriculum. I had a strong belief that making my students aware of history teachers' views on school history as specialised subject knowledge would have an impact in the manner they looked at School History. Despite School History being marginalised, researching and understanding the views of history teachers would help me during the engagement with my students who are history teachers to be. Additionally, these student teachers would know the value, potential and significance of School History; they would have

the ability to inculcate the same meaningful knowledge to learners thus enabling them to understand the role that School History plays in learners' lives.

In light of the above context and background, my personal reasons for conducting this study are to understand how School History is viewed by those in the profession. This desire is informed by the way schools treated School History in King Cetshwayo district. Their omission of School History proved that many schools regarded it as insignificant and irrelevant. However, the views of the history teachers would help clarify if this is the way they also viewed it. Further than that, I want to understand if the context shapes the views of teachers. This is because context played a huge role in shaping my character as a child, learner and a teacher. The views of the history teachers will clearly define the extent to which the context influences their views. Moreover, I wanted to understand how history teachers develop the learner perception of School History since the way I perceived School History was influenced by my teachers from primary and high school which means that school teachers can shape the manner learners perceive subjects.

Professionally, undertaking this study will help me in my career as a lecturer as knowing the views of history teachers will impact on my facilitation of lectures. I will be able to address my student teachers about the status of School History so that they know what to expect after completing their studies. This study will also influence my research outlook and will deepen and ameliorate my research abilities, skills and expertise. As a lecturer, I need skills and expertise so that I can inculcate them to my student teachers. Furthermore, this research will affect my epistemology as a teacher and lecturer thus being able to influence the merging views of my student teachers. My undertaking of this research will also hopefully introduce me to another world of intellectuals and develop my academic understanding and competencies. Most importantly, this study will help to introduce me to the research fraternity since I will research on and unveil knowledge that has never been there before. It is also this study that will pave a way for my transition to a scholar and then contribute to the academic community. In accordance with the above, this study will help to enhance my in-depth understanding of the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge and the impact of this on teaching and learning activities. With this in-depth understanding, I will hopefully become an expert in my area of history education as well as issues pertaining to teacher views.

1.4. Purpose and focus of the study

The purpose of my study is to understand the views of South African history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. In relation to the purpose I also want to understand factors that shape the views of rural history teachers. The views of the history teachers are important in this study in order to fully understand the kind of knowledge that history teachers hold for School History. Consequently, this study focuses on understanding on the views of South African rural history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

1.5. Research questions

In order to ascertain that the purpose and focus of my study are aptly addressed, they are informed by responses to critical or research questions. Since research questions are "interrogative statements that narrow the purpose statement to specific questions that researchers seek to answer in their studies" (Creswell, 2014, p.11), I decided to frame my research questions in relation to the purpose and focus of this study. Research questions arise from things that we are curious about or even things that we do not know but we like to know. Hence, it can be argued that research questions are "autobiographical in the sense that they reflect interests and 'life' of the researcher' (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014, p.38). Research questions are important because they focus the research problem (Mouton, 2001). Furthermore, research questions answer questions about meanings attributed by participants to situations, events, behaviours and activities. Also, research questions answer questions relating to the influence of context on participants' views, actions and behaviours (Maxwell, 2005). In order for my study to succeed it had to provide answers to questions of interest to a scholarly community (Maree, 2012). Research questions provide a clear statement of what it is that the researcher wants to know or find out (Bryman, 2012).

Research questions are part of the study in the sense that they assist the researcher to find data he/she is looking for in order to understand the phenomenon. Research questions also, contribute a lot to the completion of the study since they guide the researcher pertaining to what he is looking or must look for. It begins to say that there is a strong bond among research questions, focus and purpose. This bond exists because research questions, purpose and focus should talk to each other in order to ensure proper flow of the study and quality findings.

The research questions for this study are:

- 1. What are the views of rural South African history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge?
- 2. Why do rural South African history teachers have the views they have on School History as specialised subject knowledge?
- 3. How do the views of rural South African history teachers impact on the teaching of School History as specialised subject knowledge?

1.6. Key concepts

Specialised subject knowledge; history teachers; School History; views; epistemology

These concepts have a pivotal role to play in the entire study. Since they relate to both purpose and focus, it means that they guide the study. The inclusion of 'specialised subject knowledge' explains clearly that the study focus is on the nature and content of School History. Also, epistemology specifies the aspect of history teachers on which the study focuses.

Furthermore, the inclusion of views as one of the concepts is because the views of history teachers will be understood through the analysis of their views. Therefore, these concepts were included because of their role in the study. Without serious consideration of these concepts, the study might deviate from the research questions. These concepts address and relate to the focus and purpose of the study.

1.7. Theoretical Framework

In order to understand the views of the participating history teachers, this study was grounded in a theory of teacher knowledge. The theory of teacher knowledge was introduced by Shulman (1986 & 1987). Shulman postulates that teacher knowledge comprises pedagogic content knowledge (PCK) and content knowledge (CK). PCK is about knowledge blending of both content and pedagogy so that learners can understand topics, issues and problems, bearing in mind interests and abilities of learners. CK, in turn, refers to the body of knowledge generated by a discipline for the benefit of learners (Anderson & Clarke, 2012). In keeping with this, for a teacher to be competent and effective in his teachings, PCK and CK should complement each other. PCK and CK constitute epistemology that teachers should have in order to teach effectively. Therefore, epistemological beliefs, epistemic value, epistemic assumptions and epistemic cognition are all encapsulated in both PCK and CK that enable teachers to exhibit

their views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. In addition, teacher knowledge includes declarative knowledge 'knowing that', procedural knowledge 'knowing how' and conditional knowledge 'knowing how and why' as types of knowledge (Jűttner, Boone, Park & Neuhaus, 2013).

1.9. Research design and methodology

In order to ensure that research questions, purpose and focus of the study are adhered to, I had to make proper choices in relation to the research paradigm, research approach and design, research sample, data generation and data analysis methods. As a result, I briefly elaborate on each of the above aspects in the next section in order to explain how they are appropriate and relevant in this study.

1.9.1. Research paradigm

This study was guided by the interpretivist paradigm because it stipulates that the researcher should not be someone who predicts what people will do or say but describe and understand how people make sense of their worlds, and how people make meaning of their particular actions (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The interpretive paradigm is flexible because it allows a researcher to be personally involved and be in a position to interpret the specifics (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The interpretive paradigm was appropriate for me as it supported me to develop a greater understanding of how history teachers make sense of the contexts in which they live and work (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In summary, the interpretive paradigm was significant in this study because it helped me understand views of history teachers subsequently understanding how they look at School History as specialised subject knowledge.

1.9.2. Research approach

This study approached the views of history teachers qualitatively. This approach assumes that even though interviewees are involved during data generation the researcher is the key instrument (Creswell, 2013). In other words, without the researcher, data cannot be generated. The qualitative approach was apposite for my study since I wanted to understand history teachers and their views "with a view to explaining the subject of study" (Carr, 1994, p.716). To this effect, with this approach I succeeded in interpreting history teachers' views of School History as specialised subject knowledge (Merriam, 2009). In a nutshell, the qualitative approach helped me to understand, examine and interpret the views of history teachers.

Methodologically, this study adopted a case study because it complements the interpretive paradigm in a sense that it is "a very great description and a detailed examination of a single unit or bounded system such as individuals, program, event, group, intervention or community and process" (Henning et al., 2004, p.41). Most importantly, a case study studies "a particular instance" (Rule & John, 2011, p.3); this particular instance was the views of history teachers. Case studies are useful because it allows the researcher to conduct an investigation on the unit of study hence the case study is the product of investigation (Rule & John, 2011). School History is the unit that made this study distinct and singular from other studies whereas views were the product of this case study (Rule & John, 2011). Also, this case study was convenient and appropriate because it allowed me interact with history teachers hence I had to establish a good relationship with them (Rule & John, 2011). In summary, the case study assisted me to gain a deeper understanding of the views of the participating history teachers (Henning et al., 2004).

1.9.3. Research sample

A research sample is elements chosen in a population in order to obtain information needed to complete the study (Loseke, 2013). It can be selected people that can be used as participants in the study from the whole population (Newby, 2010). However, "there is no clear-cut answer, for the correct sample size but it depends on the purpose of the study, the nature of the population under scrutiny, level of accuracy required, the anticipated response rate, the number of variables included in the research, and whether the research is quantitative or qualitative" (Cohen et al., 2011, p.144). To this effect, researchers use their own discretion for the sample size. In line with that, this study was sampled with seven history teachers who shared similar characteristics. These characteristics are discussed below.

The sampling procedure used in this study was purposive sampling which is a form of non-random sampling. Purposive sampling was useful because it allowed me to handpick participants based on possession of particular characteristics (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Since a sample is chosen for a specific purpose, purposive sampling was used to access knowledgeable people with and assumed in-depth knowledge of School History (Cohen et al., 2007). The criteria for sampling in this study were that participants should come from rural areas in King Cetshwayo district, be professionally qualified and be history teachers in the FET band for at least five years.

1.9.4. Data generation

My purpose was to use a range of methods: document analysis, card sorting and interviews were adopted in this study. The first method was document analysis which is about scrutinising documents in order to understand what they entail and thus making meaning of what they say (Cohen et al., 2007; Cohen et al., 2011). Document analysis is valuable because it encourages researchers to analyse text in order to elicit themes and patterns (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Furthermore, document analysis is significant because it requires that data be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning and gain understanding (Corbin & Strauss, 2008 as quoted by Bowen, 2009). The document that was analysed in this study was CAPS for History. I analysed this document because it was the significant and official document from the DOBET that talked about and provided guidelines for the teaching and learning of School History in line with the national education policy. This document was useful because it proclaimed the expectations of the DOBET as the end-product of teaching and learning activities of history.

The second method was card sorting. It has been suggested that card sorting is not only about sorting a number of cards about a given subject into response categories but, is also a method for generating data about views of people (Cataldo, Jonhson, Kellstedt & Lester, 1970; Dubois, 1949-1950; Harloff, 2005). Observations suggest that closed card sorting allows the researcher to predetermine categories to be produced (Harloff, 2005). Hence, closed card sorting was useful and was thus employed in this study. To this effect, I only gave participants instructions and they started writing and sorting their cards/views. Card sorting is significant because it enables the researcher to obtain responses without making it difficult for participants by asking a long sequence of closed-ended questions (Dubois, 1949-1950). Furthermore, with card sorting, there are no misinterpretations of questions as may be the case with interviews and through this method I managed to eliminate prestige bias in answers (Dubois, 1949-1950). In summary, card sorting was appropriate in this study because it allowed history teachers to give me the data regarding views in a relaxed and convenient atmosphere.

The last method was interviews. As the concept suggests, interviews enable the researcher to generate data by asking questions from the participant. Literature has presented that interviews can take place either face-to-face or telephonically (Appleton, 1995). Therefore, for this study face to face interviews were employed. Interviews are valuable because they allow questions and follow-up questions to be asked and participants enjoy freedom to express themselves, and they allow flexibility because there are no restrictions pertaining to how questions could be

asked (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Check & Schutt, 2012; Creswell, 2013). In line with this, this study adopted a semi-structured interview style because it allows a researcher to predetermine questions, modify order of questions, change the order of questions, omit inappropriate questions for a particular interviewee and include additional ones (Van Teijlingen, 2014). In summary, semi-structured interviews allow the researcher and participants to be free and flexible during their engagement aimed at generating data.

In this study, interviews took place in three stages. Firstly, participants presented their views on blank cards, secondly, after participants sorted cards I issued them with views from literature and CAPS. Lastly, after sorting cards I issued them with two sets of cards i.e. own views and views from literature and CAPS, which they had to blend into one set of cards. After these three stages I interviewed participants so that they give the reasons they sorted cards the way they did.

In summary, these blended methods were significant in this study because they enabled me to generate quality data that I analysed and thereafter understood the views of history teachers.

1.10. Data analysis method

This study was analysed thematically. Thematic analysis is effective because it enables the researcher to extract themes and subthemes, and identify and analyse patterns of meaning in a dataset (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Joffe, 2012; Clarke & Braun, 2013). Previous research has shown that thematic analysis is also a systematic process of coding, examining meaning and providing a description of the social reality through the creation of themes (Vaismoradi, Jones, Turunen & Snelgrove, 2016). Thematic analysis guides researchers because it enables them to discover the truth using interpretations (Malhojailan, 2012). It has been suggested that thematic analysis works better for those who want to employ a lower level of inference interpretation, rather than more abstract interpretation (Vaismoradi et al., 2016). Thematic analysis was essential and convenient because it allowed me to glean knowledge of the meaning made about School History and provided necessary groundwork for establishing a model of history teachers' thinking (Joffe, 2012) pertaining to School History.

Some studies have revealed that thematic analysis consists of six phases: Phase 1, the researcher is familiarized with data analyse. To this effect, I read and re-read data and noted all relevant and important points relating to my phenomenon. Phase 2, I coded every data item and

collated all the codes and relevant extracts. Phase 3, I looked for coherent and meaningful patterns in the data thus forming themes. Phase 4, I reviewed themes to ensure their appropriateness. Phase 5, I made a detailed analysis of each theme, defined and named all the themes. Phase 6, I wrote an integral element of the analytic process (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Clarke & Braun, 2013; Alfsen, Moller, Egerod & Lippert, 2015). In summary, thematic analysis is significant because it allows the researcher to weave all the narratives, work out patterns from data and develop themes that will be used to tell a coherent and persuasive story about the phenomenon.

1.11. Outline of the study

This study is organised into eight chapters. Chapter one is an introduction where I give an overview of the whole study. With the overview, I start by clearly discussing the context and background of the study with a description of the environment where it took place. Thereafter, I discuss my rationale and motivation where I answer the rhetorical question of what motivated me to conduct the study. This is followed by explaining the purpose and focus that guides my study. I present and clearly elaborate on research questions that my study tries to answer. Furthermore, I explain the research objectives that the study aims to address. I also, present the key concepts of the study. Thereafter, I clarify some of the concepts presented in section 1.6. and lastly discuss the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that also, guide the study. I elaborate on the research design where I indicate the research approach, research paradigm and research sample that were used in the study. Lastly, I present how the study is outlined and then the conclusion.

In chapter two, I review the literature relating to the views of School History teachers. This review of the literature is central only to views and School History. I explain, in detail the nature of School History and create a picture of how School History looks. Subsequently, I discuss the existing views on School History and lastly, I analyse the existing views on School History in relation to specialised subject knowledge. In summary, in this chapter I focus on making readers clearly understand the existing issues that make School History distinct before analysing the new ones from history teachers in this study. In chapter three I elaborate on the theoretical and conceptual framework wherein I discuss theories and concepts that guided the study. These theories are social constructivism and teacher knowledge, whereas concepts are epistemology and specialised subject knowledge. In summary, this chapter is about social constructivism, teacher knowledge, epistemology and specialised subject knowledge.

In chapter four, I discuss research design and methodology. I do this by elaborating on the qualitative research approach, interpretive paradigm and purposive sampling as important components of research design. I explain how these components were relevant in this study. I then address the following section, which is methodology and start by alluding to the case study as the methodology for this study. Thereafter, I fully discuss document analysis, card sorting and interviews as the methods that helped to generate data. Subsequently, I explained how I implemented these methods to generate data. Furthermore, I identify and discuss the thematic analysis method that I used to analyse data. Lastly, I present how I took ethical issues into account in this study. In summary, in chapter four I clearly presented components of research design, methodology and methods, data analysis method and ethical issues.

In chapter five, I take the first step of data analysis. I do this by transcribing the recording of interviews I conducted with seven history teachers. These views are categorised into three sections. Section one consists of views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. Section two describes views after sorting cards with literature and CAPS statements while section three presents data after blending cards with own views and after blending literature and CAPS statements. Therefore, I present everything history teachers mentioned substantiating the manner in which they sorted cards/views.

In chapter six, I divide the views of history teachers into three sections. In the first section, I identify and discuss themes that emerged after analysing the views of history teachers. In the second section, I present the consolidated ranking order of the views from literature and CAPS that history teachers sorted. I did this by analysing the ranking order of each individual history teacher, thereafter I brought these different rankings together and worked out the common ranking order thus forming a single ranking of all the views. In the third section, I do as I did in section two. The only difference is that in this section, history teachers were blending both their own views, and literature and CAPS views. In summary, chapter six contains the ranking summary of all the views history teachers were expected to rank.

Having developed these three ranking orders in chapter six, I bring them together and establish a single ranking order in chapter seven which indicates three categories i.e. most important, important and least important views. Obviously, the ranking order of history teacher showed these categories. While discussing these categories, I coupled them with the literature. By so

doing, I present what already exists in line with what is new confirming if what history teachers presented was consistent or inconsistent with the literature.

Chapter eight is the last chapter where I present the conclusion of my study. I conclude by presenting a summary and review of the stages I went through in order to elicit findings and how I reached my conclusions. I also, provide a summary of findings in relation to the research questions as presented in chapter one. Moreover, I reflect on the appropriateness and usefulness of methodology and methods used in this study when generating data. Furthermore, I reflect on the impact that the study had on me, personally and professionally in terms of my development as a scholar. In addition, I present the contributions and reflect on the limitations of the study. Lastly, I highlight my recommendations and then conclude my study.

1.12. Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an introduction of this study. In line with this, I provided an overview of my entire study by presenting, in a nutshell, what each chapter entails or contributes to the entire study. Having done that, I presented the context and background for this study in order to indicate where the study was conducted as well as present the socio-economic conditions that determined the context for this study. Subsequent to that, I came out clean and clearly about the reasons that necessitated the undertaking of this study. To this effect, I presented my rationale and motivation so that the reasons and issues that informed my enthusiasm for conducting this study are clearly understood. Furthermore, I described the purpose, focus, research questions and key concepts that guided this study since if these four issues are not taken into account, the study may go astray.

It was in this chapter also, that I elucidated the theory that underpins this study as well as the concepts that are central to this study. Additionally, I outlined the research design and methodology in this chapter so that it is clear how the study was framed and data generated. To this effect, I briefly explained the research paradigm, approach and sample which concerns research design. I also, put clarity on how data would be generated by presenting the methods I would use and clarified the method I would use to analyses the generated data. Lastly, I presented the outline of the study.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

It must be noted that this study aimed at understanding views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. For this reason, in this chapter I review the literature in order to ground my study and find a niche in the scholarship for my research. When I reviewed the literature, I found a basis for interpreting and discussing findings in relation to my study. Also, when I presented the background to my study in chapter 1, I elaborated on the central concepts to the phenomenon under investigation and one of them was 'epistemology'. Therefore, in this chapter, I expound deeply on issues relating to School History. These issues range from the nature of School History, views on School History as well as views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. In summary, my literature review was structured thematically.

It has been claimed that a literature review is a thorough, critical analysis of others' thoughts, theories, and research on a particular topic that should eventually lead to research questions of the study to be undertaken (Schreiber & Asner-Self, 2011). In line with this, a researcher should consult a "written summary of articles, books, and other documents that describe the past and current state of knowledge about a topic" (Creswell, 2014, p.7). So, it can be argued that research questions can be formulated after identifying issues that have not been addressed in the literature. Mouton, (2001) concluded that a literature review is a review of existing scholarship or available body of knowledge to see how other scholars have investigated the research problem in which the researcher is interested. To this effect, Bertram & Christiansen, (2014) argue that a literature review helps the researcher to discuss important research that has previously been done in the field being researched.

In a different study, Gray (2009) suggests that a literature review serves the following purposes: provides up-to-date understanding of the subject, its significance and structure; identifies significant issues and themes; guides the development of research topics and questions; assists future researchers by making them understand why the research was undertaken in terms of its design and direction, and presents the kinds of methodologies and tools that were used in other studies. Furthermore, previous research has shown that a literature review serves the following

purposes: it avoids the replication of the study; it proves that the researcher engaged with the literature; it shows that the researcher is conversant with issues relating to the topic, it clarifies the key concepts, issues, terms and the meanings of these for the research; it shows the gap in the literature; it provides a rationale for conducting a study; it indicates the researcher's own critical judgement on prior research in the field and it sets the context for research and establishes key issues to be addressed (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). In summary, a literature review assists the researcher to know the relevant information in relation to the phenomenon under scrutiny.

A literature review is thus significant because it helps the researcher understand the body of work previously published by other scholars relevant to the study to be undertaken (Hofstee, 2010). A study by Hart, (1998) suggests that a literature review is significant because it helps the researcher to understand the research topic. A significant feature of a literature review is that it brings clarity to the research problem, "improves methodology", and broadens knowledge base within the research area and "contextualises findings" (Kumar 2005, pp. 30-31.). In addition, a literature review guides the researcher in a sense that to discover what the most recent and authoritative theorising about the subject is; to find out about the most widely accepted empirical findings in the field of the study; to identify the available instrumentation that has proven validity and reliability; and to understand the widely accepted definitions of key concepts in the field (Mouton, 2001). Therefore, a literature review helps the researcher understand what is expected when he/she undertakes the study. The above aspects help the researcher not deviate when conducting the study.

2.2. The nature of School History as specialised subject knowledge

School History, in this study, refers to history that learners learn in school or history that teachers teach learners in schools. That is Academic History that has been decontextualized for use in schools based on an official curriculum. History teachers do not teach any or every history instead they teach selected themes of history based on a curriculum. This is confirmed by Husbands, Kitson and Pendry (2003) when they postulate that School History is prescribed and approved by the government and in the South African context, it is the DOBET. Furthermore, School History takes into account the needs and conditions specific to schools (Audigier & Fink, 2010). Since schools are situated in communities, this implies that the construction and transmission of School History considers the needs of communities (Arthur & Phillips, 2000). This also implies that School History aims to achieve particular goals which

are deemed useful and important in the lives of learners. In South Africa, School History contains a certain content or body of knowledge and a certain pedagogy that the DOBET identified and saw the need of cascading it down to the learners under the guidance of education officials. This is confirmed by Chervel, (2010) when arguing that School History is made up of a shared knowledge, specific exercises, and procedures of motivation and evaluation. All these aspects were stated categorically in the CAPS document for each grade. Consequently, no one was allowed to teach something else except the content approved and prescribed by the educational authorities.

School History contains history of a particular country emphasising major features of the past including historical developments (McCulloch, 1997; Grever, Pelzer & Haydn, 2011), significant events and characteristic features of lives of people for that particular country (Husbands et al., 2003). With proper understanding of these issues, learners can be critical citizens. Furthermore, with this historical knowledge, learners can know and identify historical actors who played a significant role in the development of the country and facilitated events that shaped societies. This implies that events of historical significance form part of School History since they are part of each and every country. As a result, it is important for adults-to-be to understand and know the history of their country. This point proves that historical knowledge is significant.

Previous research has shown that School History does not only make learners know and understand their relationship with the past but, goes further to let them know and understand their relationship with other communities and other societies be it national or international (Haydn, Arthur & Hunt, 2001). In line with this, it can be argued that School History made black learners aware of the relationship between South Africa and England, and the reasons English is a universal mode of communicating whereas their vernaculars are mostly isiZulu, isiXhosa, isiNdebele, seSotho, to mention some. Additionally, School History made learners understand circumstances and reasons that made South Africa a colony of Britain in earlier times. In summary, School History furnishes learners with appropriate knowledge that can develop their understanding of world issues.

Observations by Husbands et al., (2003) suggest that School History encapsulates the impact of government's reforms. This implies that learners become aware of the role of government in bringing about reforms in the country. The prosperity and growth of any country depends

on the commitment of government to effect reforms. If learners understand how reforms occurred, they can understand their roles of maintaining and promoting changes in their communities.

Recent evidence suggests that School History is constructed by historians through interpretation of facts (Lévesque, 2008; Yilmaz, 2008/2009). This view is supported by Voss and Carretero, (1998) when they argue that School History is subjective. So, if history is constructed it means that it is an art. School History is therefore architecture which see historians bringing all the possibly fundamental knowledge which is meant to change learners' lives. This is confirmed by Sunny, (1998) when arguing that School History can be made with available ingredients and according to certain rules. The rules for constructing history should be adhered to, at all times. One of these rules is that a historian should provide evidence in support of the claim or argument. In contrast, Lewy, Wolff & Shavit, (1974) submit that if School History was a science it would have its own data that has meaning without interpretation but this is not the case because history has a meaning if sources have been interpreted and learners can detect relationships between events rather than simply memorising.

It has conclusively been shown that the best version of School History should have identity, cohesion and social purpose (Stearns, Seixas & Wineburg, 2000). So, School History is noteworthy because it is about identity. This implies that School History teaches learners about who they are and where they come from. Knowing who they are will make it possible for them to live with other learners in harmony. Besides shaping the identity of individuals, School History also shapes group identity through common experience and beliefs in the community. If group identity can be defined, then School History can provide social cohesion. This can be made possible by the fact that experiences and beliefs are core factors for School History because they help to identify groups and individuals in the society.

The study by Taylor, Young, Hastings, Hincks, Brown, Hooton & Dooley (2003) has revealed that School History encompasses historical knowledge which is about knowledge of history as a valuable storehouse of information about how people and societies behaved. This implies that historical knowledge focuses and addresses achievements and struggles of people in the past and their societies. Consequently, one can conclude that historical knowledge makes learners understand and be aware of activities of their predecessors. This is confirmed by Gilbert, (2011) when suggesting that historical knowledge deals with the reasons that caused complex species

to behave the way they did in the social settings. In addition, learners develop understanding of the motives that precipitated historical actors to behave the way they did. Therefore, the significance of historical knowledge manifests itself when learners become aware of the reasons that South Africa has public holidays like Human Rights Day on 21 March and Youth Day on 16 June, for example. Historical knowledge has taught learners Human Rights day resulted from South African workers demanding better working and living conditions and better salaries. Due to riots that escalated, some of these workers were shot dead, hence this day was declared a holiday in order to commemorate lives of those who died fighting for their human rights. History learners are also aware that Youth Day resulted from the youth of 1976 who resisted being taught all school subjects in Afrikaans, amongst other factors. Due to riots, some of them were shot dead. In sum, School History embraces knowledge of the activities of historical actors.

Another study conducted by Maraldo (1985) affirms that school history is about historical awareness which makes learners realise that the way they understand history is in itself historically conditioned and what learners try to find in the past reflects their interests that are different from writers of history. If the past reflects interests that are different from those that learners have at present, it is therefore important to know and understand these interests. These interests help learners to make their own assessment of different situations and employ them in other situations, if need be. The building up of history from the past to the present shows that learner's understanding of history is, similarly, historically based. In other words, it is important to be aware of how historical actors thought, so that learners can ameliorate the way they look at things. Also, history makes learners able to evaluate whether the way historical actors attended to issues of the past was appropriate or not. This evaluation helps to judge whether to employ strategies or ways of historical actors in addressing current scenarios.

Browder (1994) also, confirms that historical awareness enables learners to understand the sense of what was important in all human existence; understand that different kinds of factors interact to explain societal phenomena and understand the mainstream values of a particular society. School History deals with issues that were central to lives of historical actors and impacted greatly on the existence of man. Amongst these issues are societal values which define each and every society. It should be noted that values amongst other things promote ethical behaviour. In summary, historical awareness brings about awareness of societal issues and factors.

The arguments of Šubrt, et al., (2013) are confirmed by Taylor et al., (2003) when they argue that school history, via historical consciousness address public history and family stories. The perception of Taylor et al., (2003) on historical consciousness is tantamount to Šubrt et al., (2013) because both of them talk about public history, family stories and collective memory. In other words, history that the society or the public has and stories that families have, contribute towards ensuring historical consciousness. These stories may consist of political and societal actions of individuals. Thus Taylor et al., (2003) bolster their argument by relating that historical consciousness is inextricably linked to political and social actions in any society. This becomes significant because most actions in different societies are due to political actions and due to people of the society working in tandem to achieve their goals. Therefore, the learners' actions form part of historical consciousness in societies.

The study by McCulloch (1997) suggests two aims of historical consciousness. These aims are a close relationship amid education, and national culture and identity as well as to promote the notion of continuous development or evolution towards social improvement through educational reforms. This argument is confirmed by Legassick, (1998, p.7) when arguing that school history is "a key vehicle for understanding the roots, nature, and manifestations of different cultures, identities and trajectories in the making of common societies in our modern age". This is also supported by Davies, (2011) when positing that School History is characterised by cultural heritage that is passed down from generation to generation and is everybody's responsibility to ensure that it is preserved well (Šubrt et al., 2013). In other words, School History ensures that different cultures do not perish but rather are kept alive and preserved from generation to generation (Šubrt et al., 2013). Hence in order to be proud as a nation, people need to know history and School History does that through learners. Also, it should be borne in mind that activities of people are a result of past activities; hence history or the past has a significant impact on the lives of people (Šubrt et al., 2013).

Taylor et al., (2003) argues that school history includes empathy which is about being in someone else's position and understanding the reasons that person reacted the way he/she did when confronted by historical issues. This implies that being in that position makes one understand why that person reacted the way he/she did. In line with this, Morgan (2014) regards empathy as the ability to see and understand events from the point of view of the participants. In further elaboration of empathy, Morgan (2014) argues that it has to do with feeling what the

other person feels, understanding others from a distance or more generally to engage in other people's lives, understandingly. So, it is imperative for learners to look at history from the eyes of the participants. By so doing they arrive at their own understanding of the situation thus imagining what they would have done or how they would have reacted to given circumstances. This understanding helps learners to know what to do if they are faced with similar situations. Possibly, the reactions of these learners can be similar or different from those of the people involved. However, learners can be equipped with proper experience and knowledge of how to handle those situations. Subsequent to that, learners develop historical imagination (Haydn et al., 2001) which requires learners to describe a difficult choice of action which people of the past had to make. In so doing, learners, are expected to examine factors that might have influenced choices made by people of the past. Being engaged with these activities helps learners acquire experience relevant to their daily lives.

Another study by Foster and Yeager (1998) outlines four phases related to empathy. These phases are whereby the teacher introduces a historical event that requires analysis of human actions, followed by the learners' understanding of historical context and chronology. This following phase requires learners to analyse a variety of historical evidence and interpretations. Lastly, learners should construct a narrative framework through which historical conclusions are reached. There are four ways in which learners should be engaged to develop empathy: they should analyse human actions, understand historical context and chronology, analyse available evidence and historical interpretations (Husbands et al., 2003), and thereafter reach conclusions. If learners undergo all these phases, they can learn to put themselves in the shoes of historical actors thus understanding why historical actors reacted the way they did to given situations they had to face.

Previous studies have argued that empathy develops interpretation skills, enquiry skills and intellectual skills (Lee, 1983; Legassick, 1998; Bertram, 2009). This is supported by Arthur & Phillips, (2000) when postulating that these skills develop the quality of open-mindedness thus being able to question assumptions and demand evidence in support of a view. This is further confirmed by several authors (Nsibande & Modiba, (2009; Popkewitz, 2011; Sandwell, & Heyking, 2014) when they posit that these skills result in critical thinking. Nsibande and Modiba, (2009; Popkewitz, 2011) concluded that the above-mentioned skills help learners to challenge any form of prejudice and other stereotypes, and learn to handle sensitive issues. In

summary, empathy manifests itself when learners can apply these skills successfully and appropriately.

Furthermore, Husbands et al., (2003) claim that there are many functions of School History. The first one is self-knowledge whereby learners should think critically. This is followed by the fact that School History is a never ending pursuit of cause and explanation. This implies that learners should be considerate of their actions in order to live better. Furthermore, School History reduces people's understanding and ignorance of the world by placing the world into contexts of change. Lastly, School History supplies learners with procedures for authenticating statements made about other human beings. Therefore, School History is significant because it develops a diverse knowledge for learners ranging from self to global.

Therefore, the nature of School History as specialised subject knowledge puts it clear that it is significant and has potential. However, the views of history teachers can either confirm or not confirm this. Chapter seven of this study will demonstrate how history teachers look at School History in relation to its specialised subject knowledge. School History deals with people, and learners should know the issues that relate to human achievements, activities, experiences and struggles so that they know what is expected of them. The next section outlines the aims of School History as specialised subject knowledge.

2.3. The aims of School History as specialised subject knowledge

Like any other school subject, School History as well has its own aims that it hopes to achieve. These aims explain why History is or should be studied by learners. The aim of School History is to develop awareness about diverse cultures. The teaching of School History makes this possible since it comprises history of different races and ethnic groups with their own dissimilar cultures. This implies that School History does not discriminate in terms of whose history be taught and learnt but only considers the significance and relevance of each and every aspect. This is supported by Haydn et al., (2001) when they submit that School History promotes cultural diversity, celebrates cultural pluralism and combats racism. School History is momentous because it enables people to accept and understand other people's cultures. To this effect, learners can appreciate and commemorate cultures of other people easily because they know and understand these cultures. This understanding of knowledge and cultures emanates from the decent and appropriate manner School History is presented to learners taking these issues into consideration. In a nutshell, School History develops historical knowledge which

has the potential to promote tolerance amongst learners in terms of racial and cultural differences.

School History promotes a moral framework which ties the decisions of individuals and actions to a course of events (Davies, 2011). In line with this, the way learners behave is based on their identity as well as social cohesion. Identity and moral framework play a big role in making and helping learners live better in the society. This may help learners live harmoniously with other members of the society thus social cohesion. In summary, School History plays a critical role in ensuring identity and social cohesion within communities.

Some studies have established that there are intrinsic and extrinsic purposes of School History (Husbands et al., 2003; McCrum, 2013). While Husbands et al., (2003) argue that intrinsic purposes have to do with learning history for its own sake, Slater (1995) regards intrinsic purposes as those purposes that remain within the confines of history as a discipline in learners. This implies that if learners have acquired an in-depth knowledge, they have acquired intrinsic purpose therefore history helps learners acquire historical skills and concepts which are part of intrinsic purpose. According to Husbands et al., (2003) extrinsic purposes relate to developing tolerance, understanding a shared culture and having abilities to participate in a participatory democracy. This is confirmed by Slater, (1995) when arguing that extrinsic purposes have to do with identifying a potential contribution of history to a wider societal change. This begins to say that extrinsic purposes develop skills that learners can utilise in order to cope with and adapt to societal challenges. This is further supported by Slater, (1995) when submitting that extrinsic purposes groom learners to cope with changing society (Slater, 1995). In summary, intrinsic purposes focus on ensuring that learners are well versed in the subject whereas extrinsic purpose ensures that learners are well equipped with relevant, appropriate and sufficient skills and knowledge that can be applied beyond school.

One of the studies by Davies, (2011) submits that one of the aims of School History is to promote democratic modes and provide necessary political literacy. I stated earlier that education promotes policies and ideas of government and one of these policies is democracy. Consequently, if the political system is democracy, the education system could also be crafted to promote democracy. To this effect, Davies (2011) postulates that through School History, democratic modes are promoted which implies that learners become aware of the essence and significance of democracy. Furthermore, School History exposes learners to politics be it local,

national or global thus developing political understanding which leads to political literacy whereby learners become aware of political issues. In a nutshell, School History also develops democratic and political awareness.

One of the previous studies reported that School History promotes social understanding and civic efficacy, and develops reasoning skills by providing learners with historical knowledge, procedures, and skills, learners "understand moral dimensions of history" (Nye, Hughes-Warrington, Roe, Russell, Deacon & Kiem, 2011, p.764). In addition to this, Yilmaz, (2008/2009) submitted learners also learn to detect biases, prejudices, and unwarranted claims and weigh contrasting evidence. These skills amongst other things, enable learners to understand the present and be in a position to predict the future by developing their capacity to make judgements through understanding processes of change (Hillis, 2010). In summary, School History develops diverse skills for learners.

A number of studies have found that School History develops historical thinking (Scharf & Zoslov, 1983; Lévesque, (2008); Yimaz, 2008/2009; Tamisoglou, 2010; Sandwell, & Heyking, 2014). This claim is supported through engaging learners with activities of their predecessors, historical actors and societies. To put further clarity, Seixas & Peck (2004) argue that historical thinking is the ability to approach historical narratives critically by asking and engaging accounts of the past. This implies that historical thinking encourages learners to ask some questions concerning the past and try to find answers thereof. However, learners should engage carefully and be selective because not all past activities bore good and positive results. In other words, historical thinking encourages one to consider the impact of past experiences and ensure that mistakes of the past do not repeat themselves in the present. Historical thinking also means that learners should establish accounts of historical events by verifying documents, considering sources, writer's biases, authenticity and interpreting sources (Yeager & Wilson, 1997). In summary, historical thinking calls for learners to be actively involved with activities that can promote looking at the past issues and events with critical eyes (Sandwell, & Heyking, 2014).

There are six benchmarks of historical thinking (Seixas & Peck, 2004; Seixas, 2006). The first benchmark is the establishment of historical significance where learners should be able to learn and remember issues and events that are historically significant not just anything of the past. The second benchmark is the use of primary evidence. The argument is that when learners engage with primary sources, they should know how to find, select, interpret and contextualise

primary sources which is supported by Reisman & Wineburg, (2008) when emphasising contextualisation as one of the things that learners acquire through School History. This implies that learners learn to put issues and events into perspective. The third benchmark is identification and use of key historical concepts like continuity and change (Stearns, 1993; Haydn et al., 2001; Taylor et al., 2003; Husbands et al., 2003). Learners should be able to identify what has changed over time and what has not changed today or at present. The fourth benchmark is analysis and use of key historical concepts i.e. cause and consequences (Haydn et al., 2001; Taylor et al., 2003; Husbands et al., 2003). Learners should be able to give reasons how and why certain events took place and, how and why events led to others. The third and fourth benchmarks are supported by Haydn et al., (2001) by arguing they represent key historical concepts that learners should be able to understand and use since they are key concepts for School History. The fifth benchmark is historical perspective which relates that learners should be able to take a cognitive act of understanding different social, cultural, intellectual, and emotional contexts that shaped people's lives and actions in the past. The sixth benchmark is about understanding the moral dimension of history. Seixas (2006), states that learners should have the ability to extract issues and can address moral issues from the past by studying School History. In a nutshell, when learners engage with the past or historical events, these benchmarks enable them to develop historical thinking.

When learners have acquired and developed skills through historical thinking, they enjoy social benefits. These benefits are skills and attributes that an individual gain from his/her study and are intellectual skills and sense of personal agency, that learners take home, to the workplace and broader community (Nye et al., 2011). Individuals can apply these skills where ever they go and while these skills and attributes were obtained through study, they are applicable everywhere. Individuals become better persons in their societies because of these skills. Individuals also develop knowledge of how to solve their personal problems. Historical thinking is important since it sharpens and equips learners with diverse skills that learners need for better living. Therefore, if historical thinking skills (Counsell, 2011) of learners are developed and enhanced, learners will be able to recognize when they are being exploited and manipulated by certain interest groups (Yilmaz, 2008/2009).

Not only does School History promote historical thinking, but also develops historical awareness (Scharf & Zoslov, 1983; Fischer, 2010). Historical awareness implies that people should have knowledge about the past and this knowledge should assist them to live a better

life which encourages learners to be considerate when taking knowledge of the past into account. In line with this, Shavit (2007) asserts that historical awareness is a new picture of the past in learners' lives and may promote a different attitude. In other words, historical awareness widens the scope of how a learner can handle issues. If one is aware of pros and cons of past experiences, it is feasible to make informed decisions and choices.

Legassick, (1998) submits that School History promotes historical consciousness. According to Seixas, (2004, p.10.) historical consciousness is "both the individual and collective understanding of the past which is influenced by cognitive and cultural factors". In line with this, Rüsen, (2004, p.66) regards historical consciousness as a "specific orientation applied to deal with present-day situations in life". The submission of Rüsen (2004) is not contrary to how Seixas, (2004) views historical consciousness but rather an extension to it. However, the definition of Šubrt, Vinopal & Vávra (2013) considers society as the main player of historical consciousness hence Taylor et al., (2003, p.4; Šubrt et al., (2013) refer to historical consciousness as the collective memory. Historical consciousness is general impressions of history or simply the state of mind of society which is something that depends on the character of the given age and consequently is variable. Other studies suggest that historical consciousness fosters values of democracy, anti-racism, anti-sexism and general respect for human rights (Taylor et al., 2003; Davies, 2011; Šubrt et al., 2013). These are some of the values that are enshrined in the constitution of the Republic of South Africa. It is good to note that School History enables learners to have a better understanding of these values. Also, Šubrt et al., (2013) regard historical consciousness as the knowledge that exists about certain relationships among the past, the present, and the future or even a form of knowledge that coordinates people's attitudes towards the present and the future. In a nutshell, historical consciousness takes into account the role and view of the collective rather than individuals. It also promotes and enforces good behaviour through empowering learners with values.

School history develops historical literacy which is a systematic process with particular sets of skills, attitudes and conceptual understandings that mediate and develop historical consciousness (Taylor et al., 2003). Historical literacy cannot be detached from historical consciousness because historical literacy informs historical consciousness. For historical consciousness to be possible and exist there is a dire need for skills, attitudes and conceptual understanding. These skills, attitudes and conceptual understandings are acquired and developed through historical literacy. If these skills have been achieved by learners, learners

become historically literate. Subsequently, if the learner is historically literate then the learner has developed historical consciousness. Therefore, the aims, as discussed above, show that School History is an important subject that has a lot to offer learners. The following section deals with different views on School History.

2.4. The views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

In chapter one, I alluded to what 'views' are and what they mean in this study. Thus, having clarified the meaning and conceptualisation of 'views', it is necessary to look at views in relation to School History – that is the disciplinary subject reviewed in the previous section. In this section, I will deal with 'views' that different people have on School History as specialised subject knowledge. In other words, I will review the literature on views that relate to School History. I will begin by addressing general views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. Thereafter, I will specifically review literature on views from teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. The reason for addressing views this way was to generally look at what the literature says about the views on School History before looking at how history teachers look at their subject School History. Views in this study were categorised into social, educational, political and cultural views, and they are discussed in the following section.

2.4.1. Views related to the social aspects of School History as specialised subject knowledge

This section addresses views that have impact on how people live and should live in their society or community. These views prepare learners to adapt and understand their societies as well as know how to live and behave in their societies when they become adults. One of these views was that School History "defines who we are in the present, our relations with others, relations in civil society i.e. nation and state, right and wrong, good and bad, and broad parameters for action in the future" (Stearns, Seixas & Wineburg, 2000, p.21.). School History thus entails ideas on the evolution of human relationships and furthermore, it helps learners understand their relationship within different societies. Hence, when learners know and understand who they are and their relationship with other learners, then School History fulfils what Husbands (1996) refers to as a socialising role. A socialising role is about members of the community knowing and understanding how to conduct themselves in relation to fellow members of the community. Also, through School History people develop knowledge about their ancestors and the roles their ancestors played in history. School History thus makes

learners know what different historical actors did, how they lived, developed and survived in their societies.

A study by Husbands, (1996) suggests that School History furnishes learners with knowledge about intellectual and cultural traditions of society of which they will become members. When studying School History learners learn about different people in different societies. Learners even learn about how different people socialised and lived together even though they came from different backgrounds and from different cultural traditions. It is therefore not archaic to argue that School History teaches learners about their role in society as well as living in integration with other societal members. This is further confirmed by Husbands, (1996) when arguing that School History enables learners to know 'what happened' and how to interpret and apply such knowledge to their daily lives and routines. In summary, School History can assist learners to live well alongside fellow members of an ever changing society.

If people within society live in a well-integrated manner it means that they understand, support and relate to each other well. In this regard, if learners know why changes occur and cite why and how changes occurred in the past, that can help them understand, accept and adapt to changes within the society. Therefore, School History can help learners understand the necessity of change as well as how to handle and cope with changes. As a result, learners can develop a clear understanding of the consequences of changes as they unfolded in different societies.

Another view is that learners need to know the role that historical actors played. If they know the role played by historical actors in the past, learners could have some sense of the role they should still play in keeping and uplifting society. Learners are thus enabled to try and mimic historical actors who performed positive deeds. It is for this reason that learners view School History as a subject that emphasises the role of human activity within society in which they live (Voss & Carretero, 1998). In this regard, the best way of knowing and learning about what historical actors have done for their communities in the past is through studying School History. Therefore, understanding and knowing about the roles of their predecessors in different societies has the potential to enable learners copy or reject some of the strategies for dealing with societal activities.

The social view emanating from a survey of about 400 learners from the Netherlands and England about School History conducted in 2008 also produced some arguments. A majority of these learners alluded to the fact that School History addresses the history of the country they are living in, knowledge of the nation's past, better understanding of themselves, and better understanding of the society of which they are part (Grever, Haydn & Ribbens, 2008). These learners affirmed that most of School History teaches about countries in a nationalistic setting. For learners who participated in this survey, studying history enabled them to know about their country of origin. In the end, these learners could understand themselves as citizens of their country and thus have a better understanding of the society.

If learners have a good understanding of themselves and their society, their societal identity can become clearer. They can also develop knowledge pertaining to themselves in relation to their identity. This is also confirmed by Grever, Pelzer & Haydn, (2011) when they argue that School History equips learners with identity which can speak to the forms of social cohesion. People live better if they know who they are and where they come from. This enables them to understand, know and tolerate others and their cultures. Thereafter, they can live harmoniously and in cohesion because there is mutual understanding. In other words, it is incumbent for learners to know how people of the same society relate to each other. In this case, School History can be pivotal in ensuring that people understand and know their own identities and those of others.

Also, a survey conducted in 2011 wherein Dutch, French and English learners participated had strong and positive views pertaining to School History. The ideas amongst these learners did not differ much from those who took part in the 2008 survey as reviewed above. These learners argued that they had interests in world history, ancient or modern history as well as the meaning of history for their personal lives and for what they believed is relevant for the society (Grever et al., 2011). In this regard School History was viewed as developing learners with issues related to personality and society. For these learners, it is important to have historical knowledge since it enhances their personal lives. With knowledge that these learners acquired from School History they were able to identify what is relevant and good for their society and what was crucial in their lives.

Another view emerged from Swedish Upper Secondary Schools which maintained that School History was not viewed as important in the early 1990s. The reason was that it was viewed as

not being productive or useful in the society. It was further argued that it did not contribute to societal progress (Elgström & Hellstenius, 2010). However, after a report from National Agency for Education and in the Ministry of Education (NAEME) there was a change in the way the Swedish learners viewed School History. As a result, seeing the importance of School History, History Teachers' Association (HTA) and other proponents recommended that School History be made compulsory or at least be made a core subject in Swedish schools. The reasons for proposing School History to be compulsory were that School History helps in fostering an understanding of contemporary societal events. Elgström and Hellstenius, (2010) confirm by arguing that School History helps learners understand the value base of society. Thus, values are important because they determine the way each country envisages its citizens and one of the best way of instilling these values is through School History teaching.

The study by Davies, (2011) suggests that learners have interest in history outside the classroom. They enjoy going out visiting places of historical importance where they can see and witness the remains of human activity in and around their societies. This and other forms of unofficial history such as tales from family members serve to support the official history learnt in school.

The views of UK learners confirm that School History helps them understand the situation of their country and their family history (Haydn & Harris, 2010). This is supported by Meyer, Blignaut, Braz & Bunt, (2008) as they argue that School History develops skills that are key to social literacy and attitudes which any social being needs. The skills they refer to are the ability to reflect on evidence and draw conclusions, consider various interpretations of the same event and develop respect for evidence. The attitudes include tolerance of different viewpoints, critical approach to evidence and respect for reasoned arguments. In summary, School History equips learners with skills and attitudes that may make them better citizens of the society.

The study conducted by Taylor et al., (2003) states that School History constructs a lifelong moral perspective. This moral perspective enables learners to be cautious of how they behave themselves and relate to other fellow members of the society. This implies that School History might help learners identify and develop good morals. Furthermore, after studying School History learners may carefully and systematically examine virtues and vices of humanity through historical perspective (Taylor et al., 2003). When learners have acquired moral lessons

they thereafter may develop an informed moral position. In a nutshell, School History may ensure that learners develop clear understanding of the societal behaviour expected from them.

School History brings the history of a country, which is a basic right of citizens and underpins effective citizenship, to learners (Taylor et al., 2003; Lévesque, (2008). This argument is in agreement with the idea that before one can know and understand other people and other life aspects, one must know him/herself first. Learners should know the history of their country so that they can understand who they are and where they come from (Meyer et al., 2008). When learners know where they come from they also know how events in their country have unfolded. Therefore, School History may assist learners acquire a deep and complex understanding of themselves as citizens of the country.

The study by Taylor et al., (2003) also concluded that School History furnishes learners with knowledge and understanding of the origins and operations of political, economic, legal and social institutions in which learners may participate as citizens. The institutions of the country and society were established a long time ago for pivotal if not valid reasons. The existence and preservation of these institutions indicate that these institutions should be properly managed and organised. Subsequently, it is pertinent for learners to know how institutions came into being, how they are important and how they have been managed. To this effect, School History addresses most if not all types of institutions together with their significance. Therefore, learners should be aware of the prominent institutions within their societies through the study of School History.

The learners should be in a position to evaluate their own life experiences, in other words, they should be able to show an understanding of their life experiences. For them to evaluate their life experiences, they need to have insight into human experiences in other times and societies (Taylor et al., 2003). The study of School History is centred on human activities hence learners are exposed to human experiences of the past in their different contexts and times. This becomes an advantage to learners who have done School History because they have studied about the past human experiences thus equipping themselves with skills from these characters of the past. If they have acumen based on other human experiences, the learners should hopefully be able to evaluate their experiences against those of historical actors. By so doing, learners can acquire ways of dealing and shaping their life experiences.

Another view from history teachers was that awareness of issues of social justice, inequality and protest that learners learn in history may help guide actions of learners today (McCrum, 2013). An immutable fact is that learners will become adults of the society which implies that whatever they learn at school can have an impact on them as adults. In line with this, since School History covers a number of aspects like social justice, inequalities and protests, these aspects are significant because they are clear on how people should behave and what is expected of them. It means that if learners are well conversant with these aspects after studying School History, they may have proper guidelines of how to live well with others. It is significant to be very clear about these issues since they guide learners on conduct.

From the different views above it is clear, a broad section of society sees the significance of School History. It also became clear that learners need School History so that they would be able to value their positions and roles in the societies in which they are living. Once they know their roles and positions, there is a possibility that they might live harmoniously.

2.4.2. Views related to the educational aspects of School History as specialised subject knowledge

The following views demonstrate the role and importance of School History in educating learners. These were the views that developed learners in terms of intellectual capacity or furnish learners with relevant knowledge to grow intellectually. In other words, School History does not only impact socially on learners but also educationally. In line with this, Stearns (1993, p.281) argues School History is the "only available laboratory for studying complex human and social behaviours" or "the only available source of evidence about time". Normally, laboratories are characterised by construction and studying activities that are led and dominated by scientists. However, for Stearns (1993) School History enables learners to study the behaviour of human beings. To elaborate further, Stearns (1993, p.282.) asserts that learners need to know and understand "how factors that shaped the past continue to influence the balance of change and continuity around them". The fact of the matter is that some of the factors which influenced the past still exist and can still influence the present. Maybe the difference can be that the context under which these factors can exact influence has changed. Therefore, knowing how these factors were dealt with in the past is incumbent because learners learn from this. It is through influence of balance of change and continuity that learners can think about the future in whatever they do.

Learners cannot go back to the past and cannot live in the past however, the past is essential because learners and their teachers should learn from it. It is often difficult or even impossible for people to detach themselves from the past. Hence the view arguing that most citizens feel that the past is significant because, in many ways, it influences the present and future (Šubrt et al., 2013) is rational. One of the reasons learners study the past is to understand the present because the present is built on the past. If they understand the present it is much easier to plan or try to influence the future. In other words, having an understanding of the past enables learners to understand the present and thus plan or project for the future. Consequently, there is an interdependence of the past, present and future activities. Therefore, School History can aid learners to draw lessons from the activities of the past and in so doing develop an understanding of the relationship between the past, present and the future.

Literature reveals that School History can make learners wiser when it comes to making choices and at the same time, can make learners more richly human in their private lives (McNeill, 1989). Having been exposed to a number of diverse skills, learners learn, amongst other things, how to make informed decisions. In other words, learners learn to make informed choices that are based on serious consideration of facts relating to real societal issues. To this effect, Pratt, (1974) and Tamisoglou, (2010) posit that School History can help learners understand positive and negative elements of the past in order to make optimal or informed decisions. Learners therefore can learn to live their lives better due to ways of solving problems that they have acquired. In this regard studying School History gives learners unique ways of thinking.

A previous study by Suny, (1998, p.569) suggests that School History "contributes to both how we understand what nations and nationalism are and the intellectual constitution of nations themselves". One of the values that are perpetuated by School History, as mentioned earlier, is tolerance, however, tolerance is impossible without a proper understanding of people's relationships with each other. Having a deep understanding of different nations and nationalism can hopefully make people tolerate each other therefore one can argue that School History generates a national consciousness that can have a positive impact.

Furthermore, Counsell, (2011) affirms that School History can support learners in understanding the grounds on which claims about the past are made. This is valid because history is based on evidence of the past that is analysed and interpreted. Through School

History, claims of the past can be proven. It is therefore important to bear in mind that before one can make a claim, that claim should be grounded in evidence. Consequently, evidence should always be provided. Without evidence, as argued earlier, historical arguments cannot be validated.

Another educational view was that the impact of interpretation may widely differ (Voss & Carretero, 1998; Grever et al., 2011). This is not a surprise because history is produced through interpretation of sources or evidence and the differing conclusions emanate from interpretations that also differ from one context to another. Interpretation allows everyone to arrive at their own conclusion as long as evidence is provided. In other words, all learners should enjoy the liberty of interpreting historical evidence from a specific perspective as long as they can support their arguments with legitimate evidence.

According to Voss and Carretero, (1998) School History is about facts based on evidence that is integrated and presented in an appropriate narrative. School History similarly uses evidence to present a narrative. However, it should be noted that this process comprises of many skills. For instance, before one can gather evidence one should identify, investigate, analyse, evaluate, interpret and communicate the source of reference so that learners are compelled to use all these skills if they are to gather and integrate facts. Therefore, using these skills sharpens abilities.

Furthermore, Voss and Carretero, (1998) argue School History is not a result of a single cause but rather a result of multiple causes. In other words, School History is what it is because of a number of diverse factors and diverse pieces of historical evidence. It is necessary for learners to be exposed to such an understanding because learners will learn through their analysis and evaluation.

Another study by Arthur and Phillips, (2000) suggests School History should be taught in pursuit of ethical values that add to learners' characters. In addition, Pratt (1974) argues that School History clarifies values and illuminates whether or not the behaviour is right or wrong (Wood & Rimmer, 2003; Thiroux & Kraseman, 2012). When learners study School History they learn about different historical characters and their activities or actions so that they can then evaluate the actions taken in the context of the past. By so doing learners can identify the wrong and good things done and thus learn to shape their behaviour towards ethical, good and

or right behaviour. Hence School History can add and clarify values for history learners. Values are principles that guide actions (Lencioni, 2002) and through studying School History learners can develop some understanding of how to behave accordingly.

School History links with the interests and concerns of learners (Grever et al., 2011). This can be attributed to the fact that they see a connection between what they learn from School History and their interests. So, for learners, doing School History is not simply a waste of time but it is viewed as contributing to learners' daily interests. It means that School History addresses concerns for learners as members of society and this proves the significance of School History. For learners studying School History is important because it takes their interest and concerns into cognisance.

A previous study has reported that School History equips learners with creativity and flair, oral communication, and problem solving skills. As learners are engaged in imagination and reasoning activities, their creativity and flair skills are sharpened. As a result, history teachers should give learners activities of this nature so that they may refine these afore-mentioned skills. Some School History activities require learners to present what they discover after research or an investigation. As they present their findings they learn to communicate thus enhancing their communication skill. Communication skills are important because they enable learners to communicate with whomever, accordingly and appropriately.

Sometimes learners are engaged in self-directed research. This type of research affords learners a chance to conduct research the way they like and is convenient for them. While conducting research learners may solve problems which they find independently. The effectiveness of research depends on how quickly they can solve problems that hinder their progress. Therefore, solving problems trains them for their adulthood lives where they will have to solve problems.

Another view was that School History "gives a broader outlook on life" (Oosthuizen, 2006, p.16). I have mentioned before that School History develops a number of skills in learners. One of those skills is critical thinking which allows learners to think carefully about a subject or area without allowing feelings or opinions to affect the way they think. Thinking critically allows learners to look at issues in life in all possible ways. In other words, learners learn to think largely on issues affecting them in their lives. In summary, critical thinking allows learners to develop a number of opinions on a given issue.

It has also been suggested that School History stimulates self-activity and initiative, developing independent thought and judgment and fostering co-operation (Oosthuizen, 2006; Arthur & Phillips, 2000; Davies, 2011). Having mentioned a number of skills that are sharpened through the study of School History, it is also imperative to look at other skills that are crucial and play a pivotal role in enabling learners to live better in their communities. These skills include taking initiative, developing independent thought and judgment and fostering cooperation. In a nutshell, School History promotes cognitive constructivism which is centred on the development of cognition.

Meyer et al., (2008) outline more skills that history learners should take with them. These skills are detecting bias, developing empathy, presenting coherent arguments, understanding logic and many more reading and writing skills and enjoy themselves. The outlining of the above skills shows that School History is significant because it is capable of developing these skills. This implies that as history learners complete or leave school, they have acquired these skills as they train the memory. However, the success of learners acquiring these skills depends on motivation of learners and the positive attitudes of history teachers (Ruto & Ndaloh, 2013).

The study by McCrum, (2013) suggests that School History provides a broader outlook on life and broadens people's perspectives through a diversity of beliefs. It is not only human experiences that are essential in broadening the perceptions of people but also beliefs therefore studying School History may enable learners to analyse and evaluate human beliefs. Thereafter, learners may adopt some of these beliefs they deem significant and relevant for their personalities and societies.

Furthermore, McCrum, (2013, p.78) asserts that School History develops "critical intelligence through cultivating reflexive methodology". School History teaches learners to reflect on their actions at all times. When learners are engaged in activities they normally expect feedback from other fellow learners so that they can improve their actions, in other words, learners do not mirror themselves so easily however, history learners are seemingly able to reflect on themselves. As they study, history learners can develop a way of looking at other learners' actions which are comparable to theirs. Hence learners are able to realise if they do wrong or right because they compare what they do with what was done by historical actors. Hence reflexive methodology is being cultivated in them. In other words, learners can evaluate their actions so easily because of the experiences they have from people of the past and their actions.

It is also important to always consider and find reasons for the occurrence of particular events and what made issues to be the way they are (Haydn & Harris, 2010). In other words, learners should question issues in order to find relevant and good answers as they need to find reasons that led to certain events. Questioning is a skill that learners should have and fortunately, for history learners, School History exposes them to this skill. They are expected to question or find answers from historical evidence that they analyse. By so doing, School History cultivates a questioning disposition which can enable learners not to simply accept what they are told as it is but to question it (McCrum, 2013). Therefore, history teachers engage learners in these kinds of activities so that learners can sharpen this skill of questioning in order to find answers to issues. When learners find reasons or causes they also find consequences for those actions thus learning consequences of actions.

In summary, all the educational views outlined and discussed above demonstrate the relevance and importance of School History for learners. This implies that School History does educate learners in different aspects of life.

2.4.3. Views related to the political aspects of School History as specialised subject knowledge

Besides contributing to learners' lives socially and educationally, School History also, develops learners politically. School History can teach learners to tolerate each other and understand international history (Pratt, 1974) as well as mutual relations between their country of residence and others (Grever et al., 2011). If learners can learn to tolerate each other and have a mutual understanding, even when they have grown up and are adults they will have acquired the skill of tolerance. Furthermore, learners would have developed an understanding of other countries. As a result, they will hopefully tolerate and understand each other as human beings. Since learners learn about international history in schools, they also learn to make connections with international communities through knowledge they gain from School History. Furthermore, learners may develop understanding of relationships between their country and global communities. Additionally, learners can rather learn how these relationships and connections impact on the present and can enable learners to realise that the past helps to understand the present (Pratt, 1974). Understanding the present means that learners should be able to use historical information in a multiple perspective manner (Sims, 1997; Yilmaz, 2008 & 2009). In other words, learners should be able to view the past in different ways.

Previous research has shown that School History enables learners to make a comparison between structures of societies with economic, cultural and political developments (Murphy, 2007). One of the points argued by Husbands et al., (2003) pertaining to the nature of School History is that it should enable learners to understand processes of development. However, in line with Murphy's argument understanding development only is not good enough. In addition to understanding, learners should be able to compare structures of the society with developments. In other words, School History should enable learners to tell how development unfolded looking at the structures in the society.

School History should develop learners who have a sophisticated understanding of the world in which they live (Grever et al., 2011). This view is confirmed by Oosthuizen (2006) who emphasises the understanding of a contemporary situation which is not that different from understanding the world learners live in as per Grever et al., (2011). There are many issues that can contribute towards a sophisticated understanding by learners, for example, their understanding of the relationship between the past, present and future. Understanding the world is one of the most important things that learners should have.

Taylor et al., (2003) argues that School History develops a complex post-school world view. When learners study School History they end up being exposed and furnished with knowledge of other countries' activities and roles in relation to their country. In other words, learners become aware of history of other countries across the globe. Also, learners may develop some attitudes towards countries they learn about. So, if learners are exposed to political knowledge, they can develop political understanding of the political world around them (Galston, 2001; Journell, 2014).

Another study by Shaker, (2012) suggests that learners who do not know about their politics are not mentally prepared to understand their society thus they do not value it. Subsequently, school equips learners with this type of knowledge that can make learners understand their society and the world. Learners acquire political knowledge which enables them to understand their society. This is confirmed and supported by Galston, (2001) when arguing that learners' low level of educational attainment significantly affects their level of political knowledge and character of political participation. Therefore, School History strengthens and enables learners to participate in politics because of the level of political knowledge they have acquired.

Larcinese, (2007) also argues that School History equips learners with political awareness which in the long run develops political understanding which has an impact on voting and political information acquisition. If learners do have proper understanding of politics, they may, for example, also develop love for making themselves heard through voting. Furthermore, this awareness on politics may develop confidence which also may enable them to debate political issues and hold public discussions (Galston, 2001; Larcinese, 2001). In line with this, if learners are politically aware they can learn to base their judgements on issues rather than characters. In other words, these learners may not be scared to partake in political matters.

The previous study by Eveland and Hively, (2009) submitted that School History develops a knowledge density structure whereby learners have the ability to see connections among various concepts within a political domain. It is important for learners to have a good understanding of the concepts that relate to political knowledge as it is this understanding that can enable them to hold debates and publicly discuss political issues. School History also furnishes learners with this kind of knowledge. In summary, School History assists learners in acquiring political knowledge which leads to political understanding and thus resulting in political participation.

2.4.4. Views related to the cultural aspect of School History as specialised subject knowledge

When it comes to cultural aspects, School History can also contribute much in terms of relating or contributing to culture development. School History is a central role player in the transmission of a common culture passing it from one generation to another (Pendry & Husbands, 1998; Arthur & Phillips, 2000; Stearns et al., 2000). This view emphasises the role that School History plays in promoting culture in diverse societies. Pendry & Husbands, (1998) bring another dimension to School History in this regard. They submit that School History helps learners understand how a free and democratic society developed over time. For this reason, it can therefore be argued that School History is viewed as pertinent to the lives of learners who are to become adults since they have to develop political understanding.

It has been suggested that School History is "closely related to issues of power and cultural transmission" (Arthur & Phillips, 2000, p.10). The issues of power in School History are critical and School History, amongst other things, deals with power relations. On the other hand, understanding these power relations might equip learners with knowledge of how

countries relate to each other in terms of their policies and ideologies. Also, School History conveys the manner in which power relations grew or came about and tells learners how culture remained intact or was modified from one generation to another. Hence the person, who controls the past, can powerfully control the future (Arthur & Phillips, 2000). It means that people who played a major role in shaping and chiselling our culture and power issues enabled people to witness these cultures and power issues even now. It is therefore important for learners to know and understand how the issues of power unfolded to date. In a nutshell, School History develops learner knowledge that relates to culture.

2.5. Niche for my study

There have been several studies in the literature reporting and making recommendations about School History. The voices in the literature are dominated by the scholars who share their views and debate issues that pertain to School History. For example, scholars and historians repeatedly debated the relevance and importance of School History for learners. However, having heard the views shared by different stakeholders, I have not come across studies that entail the voices of history teachers about their subject of specialisation. In other words, after all history teachers are hands on when it comes to history teaching. They are the ones who know what is going on or happening in schools. However, I believe that they have never been given enough opportunity to make their voices heard about School History as specialised subject knowledge. In other words, history teachers seldom had a platform where they can present their views. Therefore, I strongly believe that since my study will deal with the views of history teachers, it will add value to the literature and academic community.

2.6. Conclusion

I began this chapter by explaining the meaning of a literature review. I went further to clarify the purposes of a literature review. Thereafter, I explained why literature is important when conducting a study. Having dealt with issues relating to literature review, I discussed themes that underpinned School History. These themes were the nature and views on School History which were informed by subthemes which were social, educational, political and cultural aspects. This was followed by the views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. These views were also categorised into social, educational and political views. The penultimate issue, I attended to was the niche for my study. All these themes were addressed and alluded to using local, national and international literature. The following chapter will deal with theoretical and conceptual frameworks.

CHAPTER 3 FRAMING THE STUDY THEORETICALLY AND CONCEPTUALLY

3.1. Introduction

In my introduction of chapter one I included a description of and elaboration on 'views' which helped me understand views of School History teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. In chapter two, I gave a more detailed description of School History as a phenomenon in this study. In this chapter, I focus on reviewing the theoretical literature in order to describe the theory that guided my study. I also give an explanation of a conceptual framework so as to clarify concepts that are central to my study. Taking into cognisance that this study is about the views of School History teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge, it is important to fully discuss the theory that will be used to understand the views of the participating teachers on teacher knowledge (Kumar, 2014). Thus, the nature of epistemology and theory of teacher knowledge provided me with a theoretical framework, whereas specialised subject knowledge provided me with a conceptual framework for this study.

It is imperative to identify and describe the theory on which the study is based because every research is and should be informed by a certain theory (Maxwell, 2010) unless the study aims at developing its own theory. A theory can postulate the existence of previously unknown phenomena (Cohen et al., 2011). In other words, a theory can help a researcher to develop a new theory. "A theory is a statement or a collection of statements that specify the relationships betwixt variables with a view to explaining phenomena such as human behaviour in some or other population" (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005, p.21). Subsequently, this study looks at the relationships between views of School History teachers and School History, the former being the phenomenon and latter being the variable. I used theory in order to explain the phenomenon (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2011). Without a theory, it is difficult if not impossible to explain a phenomenon because theory guides a study hence every study should be grounded on or develop a theory.

It has been suggested that a theoretical framework is important because it develops a focus for the study and also provides a guide as a researcher reads the work of other scholars (Kumar, 2014). If the study is not guided by any theory, the researcher can end up deviating from the focal point and be "bogged down in a great deal of unnecessary reading and note-taking that may not be relevant to the study" (Kumar, 2014, p. 56). As a result, one of the mechanisms of avoiding deviating and making unnecessary detours is through using a theory as a guide and focus. Another study has submitted that a theory is important because it broadly frames a study (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). By framing a study, it allows the theoretical framework to influence the study in order to make sense of data generated (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

It is not only a theoretical framework that is essential for guiding a study but also a conceptual framework that guides the study or research (Savin-Baden & Howell, 2010; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In line with this, a conceptual framework determines what relevant literature to be read by the researcher. Like a theoretical framework, a conceptual framework also helps to focus a study in terms of key ideas or concepts (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014) that inform and drive the research questions posed (Wisker, 2005). One of the previous studies concluded that a conceptual framework starts with a set of ideas about the nature of the phenomenon, determines questions to be answered by research and shows how empirical procedures can be used to find answers (De Vos et al., 2011). It means that concepts are crucial in any study because they are the foundation of communication, introduce a perspective, means of classification and generalisation, and they are components of theories (Welman et al., 2005).

A study by Wisker, (2005), states that a conceptual framework is important for researchers because it aids in establishing theoretical underpinnings of a study. This implies that there is a close relationship between a conceptual and a theoretical framework. As a result, a conceptual framework is a shaping and scoping tool for any study (Cooksey & McDonald, 2011). Conceptual frameworks give the scope of how far the research can be undertaken in terms of concepts. Furthermore, while a theoretical framework describes and provides the theory underpinning the study, a conceptual framework shows the conceptual status of a study (Punch, 2009). Moreover, Wisker, (2005) argues that a conceptual framework is a scaffold of work that will run throughout the study. If the scaffold helps the builder to build a house, it therefore means that without a conceptual framework a researcher cannot construct a clear study. The reason is that concepts, like a scaffold, enable the researcher to move from start to finish using the framework that enables him/her to have a foundation from which to build. In other words, the researcher uses concepts that run through the study up to its completion.

This chapter is organised into four main sections. The first section is the introduction which encapsulates, amongst other things, a clear description of a theoretical and conceptual framework. The second section deals with theories of knowledge which inform or underpin teacher knowledge on specialised subject knowledge on which this study was grounded. The third section consists of a discussion of concept specialised subject knowledge. The fourth and the last section is composed of a conclusion where I draw the argument proposed in the chapter together.

3.2. Theory underpinning the study – Teacher Knowledge

I have explained above that this study was guided by two theories which are teacher knowledge and social constructivism. Subsequently, these theories will be discussed in detail in the next section.

I highlighted in chapter one that this study was underpinned by teacher knowledge as founded by Shulman, (1986 & 1987). Therefore, this section will elaborate on issues that inform teacher knowledge some of which are theories of knowledge. Looking at such theories of knowledge helped me to understand aspects and issues that inform knowledge. Furthermore, theories of knowledge explain how knowledge should be constructed and imparted to learners during the teaching and learning process.

Theory of knowledge or epistemology "is a branch of philosophy that deals with questions of the nature, scope and sources of knowledge" (DeRose 2002, p.1). This claim is confirmed by Lehrer (1990) who asserts that knowledge encompasses epistemology and thus is a theory of knowledge. According to DeRose, (2002) epistemology is simply what we know and knowledge is what people have in their minds. In other words, knowledge is informed by reality. For this reason, epistemology or a theory of knowledge is used in this study to establish the knowledge that history teachers have. School History teachers have their own views but the most important question is, where do those views come from? Therefore, epistemology helped me to know the kind of knowledge that School History teachers have, the extent of their knowledge as well as establishing the bases of their knowledge.

Previous research has shown that epistemology is about aspects that are required in order to have rational beliefs and knowledge (Pollock & Cruz, 1999). This is not far-removed from the views of DeRose (2002) and Lehrer (1990). The only difference is that Pollock and Cruz,

(1999) add the importance of belief in epistemology. All in all, the argument of Pollock and Cruz, (1999) is that for teachers to say that they know something they must have acquired evidence to qualify the claim or have met some requirements for claiming that they know something. So, one cannot claim that he/she knows something without fulfilling some requirements for making that claim.

A study by Baehr (2006) emphasises a belief as one of the requirements for knowledge formation and talks about virtue epistemologists. Baehr (2006) categorises virtue epistemologists into "reliabilists" and "evidentialists" in order to place more clarity on the role that belief plays in knowledge construction (Lévesque, 2008). Baehr (2006) claims that reliabilists look at belief as informed or maintained in a reliable or truth conducive way, whereas evidentialists maintain that a belief is maintained on the basis of good grounds or evidence or justification. In this regard, virtue epistemologists argue that knowledge should constitute a belief which is informed by truth and evidence for without evidence and truth there is no knowledge. In other words, epistemology or theory of knowledge needs to be analysed from the concepts of knowledge, belief, justification and observation (Feest & Sturm, 2011). For teachers to claim that they know something there must be truth or reliability as well as evidence. In this regard, knowledge is built upon truth and evidence. Once truth and evidence are there or can be provided, that leads to belief which leads to knowledge formation. Therefore, one cannot claim that he/she knows something if he/she does not have a belief.

In light of the above, many researchers (Pollock & Cruz, 1999; Stoddard 2010; Molla, 2010) have argued about epistemic or epistemological beliefs. Epistemic or epistemological beliefs are those beliefs that teachers have based on the knowledge they have on, in the case of this study, School History as specialised subject knowledge. Epistemic beliefs influence choices and decisions a teacher makes in the classroom in terms of teaching and learning (Molla, 2010; Stoddard, 2010). The kinds of beliefs that teachers have on School History make teachers incorporate their beliefs when teaching in order to fulfil those beliefs. In order to ensure that beliefs are achieved, even teaching methods are aligned to those beliefs. It means that Cresswell (1998) was correct when arguing that knowledge is within the meaning people make of it and is gained through people talking about the meaning it has for them. Thus meanings that School History teachers make out of knowledge is critical since it shapes the way they look at School History thus determining the way knowledge is cascaded down to learners. In summary, one cannot detach beliefs from knowledge and one cannot separate beliefs from instructional

methods. The beliefs, knowledge and instructional methods are all interwoven if not interdependent.

DeRose (2002) distinguishes between epistemic internal belief and epistemic external belief that teachers have. He argues that epistemic internal belief is the kind of a belief that depends primarily on factors internal to believer's point of view, whereas epistemic external belief encapsulates issues of knowledge that depend primarily on how belief was caused. For example, if one has a certain view or attitude towards School History, that attitude automatically shapes the way he/she looks at School History. On the contrary, if one's attitude is influenced by external factors that teacher develops knowledge that matches external factors. It is not easy to find a situation whereby teachers' views are neutral, but a great possibility is that teachers' views are influenced either internally or externally. Therefore, the way teachers' views are influenced is the same way learners' knowledge is influenced. Obviously, views of teachers have a bearing on teaching and learning.

Knowledge is created through interaction between the space and interpretation of people's thoughts and actions. To this effect, knowledge is developed by building on and advancing from what people know and what others have known (Hautala & Jauhiainen, 2014). Space, like for example rurality, plays a major role in knowledge creation. This begins to say that rurality, as the space or context, influences teacher knowledge because rurality was the context where this study was conducted. Since teacher knowledge is inseparable from multiple dimensions of space, it shows that teacher knowledge is "complex and comprehensive" (Hautala & Jauhiainen, 2014, p.656).

The epistemology or theory of knowledge comprises three different senses of knowledge which are propositional knowledge, acquaintance knowledge and practical 'how to' knowledge. While propositional knowledge is about knowledge of facts and a relationship between subject and a proposition, acquaintance knowledge is about being acquainted with a particular thing or someone meaning that one has met that person or seen that thing. For example, the first democratic elections in South Africa that took place in 1994 could be propositional knowledge because there are facts about these elections. The course of WWII, could be an example of acquaintance knowledge and 'how to' knowledge since most people know how it took place. Whereas 'how to' knowledge is about the ability to know how to do a thing or what a thing

looks like (Moser & van der Nat, 1987; Lehrer, 1990; Lemos, 2008). If one has propositional knowledge, it means that one has an epistemically justified true belief about something.

In addition to true belief, Russel (1948, p.171) adds the necessity of sound evidence to support a belief. To him evidence consists of "certain matters of fact" and "principles of inference". Furthermore, he asserts that coherence theory is one of the theories of knowledge. He argues that there are groups of beliefs which make up the whole of knowledge and truth. Russel's coherent theory affirms truth and belief as characteristics of knowledge (Chisholm, 1977; Russel, 1948; O'Connor & Carr, 1982). In addition to truth and belief, Halpern, Samet & Segev, (2009) argue by referring to justified truth belief or the fact that knowledge is justified through evidence.

However, the above senses of knowledge must not be viewed separately, instead they must be viewed in conjunction with declarative knowledge or 'knowing that', procedural knowledge or 'knowing how' and conditional knowledge or 'knowing how and why' as types of knowledge (Jüttner et al., 2013). These types of knowledge apply to both CK and PCK. This means that CK and PCK are underpinned by these types of knowledge of teacher knowledge (Shulman, 1986 & 1987). The difference is that declarative knowledge for PCK has to do with knowledge about understanding of the subject or instructional strategies while procedural knowledge for PCK is about knowledge of models or knowledge about how to act in a specific situation. Conditional knowledge for PCK relates to knowledge about concepts and their application or 'knowing how and why' as structural knowledge (Barba & Rubba, 1993).

There seems to be a relationship between propositional knowledge and declarative knowledge since they both deal with facts or knowing something. Also, acquaintance knowledge and procedural knowledge speak to each other in a sense that they both focus on being aware of certain issues and knowing how it took place. 'How to' knowledge also relates to conditional knowledge which focuses on knowing how and why particular events took place. Therefore, it means that having propositional knowledge, acquaintance knowledge and 'how to' knowledge is like fulfilling the purposes of declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge and conditional knowledge.

There are two forms of knowledge and they are *a priori*, 'what is prior' and *a posteriori*, 'what is posterior' knowledge (O'Connor & Carr, 1982; Bird, 2008; Tahko, 2011; Bo, 2011). There

are many debates about the difference between these two above-mentioned forms of knowledge. Bo (2011) argues that both forms are concerned with the way people acquire information so they belong to epistemology. Hence he argues that there may be an overlapping of contingent *a priori* propositions and necessary *a posteriori* propositions. Previous studies by Tahko (2008) and Bo (2011) bring experience as a deciding factor between these two forms of knowledge. They argue that a priori knowledge is what is known independent from experience. Instead of putting more emphasis on experience, metaphysical modality can be used as a determinant of *a priori* (Tahko, 2011). The argument is that one needs not to have experience before it can be said or declared that one knows something. This begins to say that it is impossible for learners and School History teachers to have experience of what they teach and learn respectively but that does not mean that they do not have knowledge. On the other hand, *a posteriori* is deemed to be restricted to pure perceptual information and anything that one can deduct from perceptual information is *a priori*. For one to make a deduction on anything, teachers need relevant concepts from perceptual information and that is *a posteriori*. Furthermore, *a posteriori* is characterised by empirical elements (Tahko, 2011).

I indicated earlier that this study was also guided by social constructivism (Vygotsky, 1962). According to Vygotsky, as learning takes place, learners construct their own knowledge based on the experiences and realities they are exposed to in their societies. To put more clarity on social constructivism, some proponents of social constructivism (Kim, 2001; Adams, 2006; Scotland, 2012) contend that learning is socially constructed. In other words, during teaching and learning activities learners construct knowledge based on historically significant issues. They construct their own realities based on the exposure they receive from their societies as well as teachers who guide them. This suggests that during teaching and learning activities, learners construct truth and meaning (Gray, 2009). Constructivists maintain that meaning is constructed; it is not lying 'out there' to be uncovered. So, history teachers and learners create their own meanings in different ways (Mason, 2002) when constructing meaning and knowledge. For this reason, Gray (2009, p.18) affirms "a theoretical perspective linked to constructivism is interpretivism". Constructivists claim that knowledge and meaningful reality are constructed through the interaction of human beings and the world (Crotty, 1998). Subsequently, Packer and Goicoechea (2000) assert that a person is an incomplete animal hence he is constructed to become a social and or historical product. Learning results in construction and qualitative reorganisation of knowledge structures. As history teachers presented their views, they were informed by their epistemologies and how they constructed knowledge they cascade to learners. So, teacher knowledge and social constructivism complemented each other as theories for this study.

The selected history teachers had their own epistemologies that informed and shaped the way they looked at and taught School History as specialised subject knowledge. Teacher knowledge or epistemologies for history teachers determined the kind of views they held as well the manner they cascaded historical knowledge to learners. In other words, teacher knowledge plays a big role in the manner history teachers conduct teaching and learning activities. If their epistemologies are negative or shallow, they may not be able to present effective history lessons. Furthermore, as history teachers conduct teaching and learning activities, the construction of knowledge comes into play. On the other hand, for learners to master historical knowledge they need to construct their own knowledge based on the experiences and realities history teachers expose them to. As a result, for history lessons to be effective, teachers need to construct their own knowledge guided by the epistemologies they have. Therefore, teacher knowledge and social constructivism influence the type of historical knowledge that learners may receive from teachers.

3.3. Specialised subject knowledge

Having looked at epistemology, it is incumbent to review the literature relating to specialised subject knowledge. There are concepts that are used in relation to specialised subject knowledge which are, amongst others, content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, subject matter knowledge, subject content knowledge, specialised substantive knowledge, subject-specific pedagogical knowledge, subject specialist knowledge and specialised procedural knowledge. These concepts will be discussed below in relation to School History.

Shulman (1986 & 1987) asserts that teacher knowledge consists of PCK and CK. He argues that PCK is about knowledge blending of both the content and pedagogy so that learners will be able to understand topics, issues and problems, bearing in mind interests and abilities of learners. In contrast CK refers to the body of knowledge generated by a discipline for the benefit of learners (Anderson & Clarke, 2012). The success of School History, in the case of this study, lies in the proper application of both CK and PCK. So, it means CK and PCK are interdependent in the sense that for content knowledge to succeed there must be a proper way of making learners understand and this is done using PCK. Therefore, CK and PCK are

important for teaching-learning activities to take place since they form part of teacher knowledge.

Also, (Anderson & Clarke, 2012) argue that Subject Matter Knowledge (SMK) encapsulates content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge which complements the idea of Shulman (1987) who believed that SMK consists of both syntactic and substantive knowledge. Syntactic knowledge is about understanding whereby ideas are developed and become accepted within the discipline whereas substantive knowledge refers to understanding the body of knowledge generated by a discipline, for example, School History. In further elaboration, subject-matter can be viewed as a "ready-made systematised classification of facts and principles of the world of nature and man" (Dewey, 1916, pp.164-165). Therefore, in order to present the subject matter to learners, teachers use pedagogy.

On the other hand, (Bertram, 2011; Bertram & Bharath, 2012) use the concepts Specialised Subject Knowledge (SSK) and Specialised Pedagogic Knowledge (SPK). They went on to clarify that substantive knowledge or content knowledge entails what happened when, where, how and why. In other words, specialised substantive knowledge answers or addresses the afore-mentioned questions. On the other hand, specialised procedural knowledge or PCK refers to procedural concepts that are used to give coherence to events in School History such as time, empathy, cause and consequence and historical significance. In other words, substantive knowledge is the kind of knowledge that relates to content that teachers should teach (Smith & Neale, 1989). The specialised procedural knowledge is important for teaching in the classroom. Furthermore, it is not only about correct content knowledge that School History teachers should have but School History teachers should also have abilities to "lead discussions, provide examples and explanations, and generate problem solving applications" (Smith & Neale, 1989, p.3). History teachers can only lead discussion by providing examples and explanations only if they have enough SSK for School History. Since, subjects exist in substantive forms (Green, 2008), teachers need to engage with "various substantive manifestations of a subject on a metacognitive level to acquire a substantive knowledge of a subject" (Green, 2008, pp.134-135). Accordingly, teachers should always and continually develop their substantive knowledge so that they are updated about new curriculum changes, teaching strategies and tools to make teaching-learning activities effective.

SSK is the kind of knowledge that is only specialised to a particular subject. In other words, it is the kind of knowledge that can only be found in one particular subject and is unique to that subject. In other words, SSK identifies and characterises a particular subject. Furthermore, SSK is a sound knowledge that teachers have for their subject of specialisation (Kempe, 2009) and teachers use it for teaching (Kazima & Adler, 2006). McAuliffe and Lubben (2013) refer to SSK as SPK and they submit SPK as specialised knowledge with its unique skills and concepts (Smith, 2001). For instance, School History equips learners with specific skills. It means that a learner who has done School History, can be expected to have developed in terms of skills, concepts and abilities and is able to apply these skills in various contexts independently. Furthermore, Specialised Content Knowledge (SCK) "requires unique understanding and reasoning and entails knowledge beyond that being taught to learners" (McAuliffe & Lubben, 2013, p.159). Also, SCK involves daily tasks of teaching like "giving explanations, choosing examples and representations, working with learners' questions and responses, selecting and modifying tasks, and posing questions" (McAuliffe & Lubben, 2013, p.159).

In addition to what McAuliffe and Lubben (2013) mentioned, Gallant (2013) adds the need for SSK in correcting learners' misconceptions, noticing merits and demerits of using different representations in any subject teaching. Even though the focus was mainly on mathematics teaching this view applies to all subjects including School History. Wu (2005) strengthened the argument of Gallant (2013) by asserting that whether one has a well-defined pedagogical decision but due to faulty or without proper specialised knowledge, teaching and learning activities cannot succeed. SSK helps the teacher to make interconnections within subject and be able to interpret different modes of representation in each subject and these interconnections cannot be recognised between topics without a deeper understanding of SSK. Therefore, SSK, in the case of this study, enables the history teacher to establish links between aspects of School History to be taught to learners. Moreover, SSK enables the teacher "to make decisions about what topics to teach, in what order and how to teach them" (Gallant, 2013, p 36). In summary, SSK furnishes history teachers with enough knowledge that allows them to know what and how to teach.

If a teacher does not have strong SSK it may be impossible for that teacher to relay knowledge very well to others, who in this case are learners. Some studies have suggested that for a history teacher to be able to comprehend knowledge, the history teacher must have a strong conceptual understanding (Even & Tirosh, 1995; Kazima & Adler, 2006; Bansilal et al., 2014). On the

contrary, poor SSK distorts information and makes explanations incoherent and illogical. This poor understanding makes the teacher miss key ideas and present convoluted explanations (Bansilal et al., 2014). No one wants the situation whereby the teacher misses key ideas and presents convoluted explanations more especially in schools where future citizens are nourished. Therefore, it is incumbent for history teachers to have and demonstrate deep understanding of SSK of School History.

Content and pedagogy are not enemies (Seixas, 1999). Aspects that make content and pedagogy enemies or that come between content and pedagogy are professionalization and specialisation. Consequently, "educators are pedagogy specialists since they work out the pedagogy" (Seixas, 1999, p.318). The biggest responsibility of history teachers is to take knowledge that comes with historians put it together and use strategies or methods or pedagogy acquired from the university or college for the benefit of learners. There is a CK that is specifically unique to teaching a certain kind of subject-matter-specific-professional knowledge and it intersects epistemology, content and learning (Harris & Bain, 2011). Furthermore, teachers' CK is the only and most important factor that guides curricular decisions (Cunningham, 2007). Teaching cannot be effective unless the teacher has a proper and sufficient CK. Hence, teachers make most of the classrooms' decisions that affect their students in one way or another. The decisions of history teachers are based on knowledge, beliefs, and experiences (Grant, 2003) that they have.

History teachers cannot only conduct effective School History instruction by using substantive and syntactic components, but in addition they must have a generic and subject-specific pedagogical knowledge that can help them transform the subject knowledge into effective experiences for learners (Yilmaz, 2009). Consequently, School History teachers should have an ability to acquire and organise knowledge in their minds, and go beyond knowing facts or concepts but also understand structures of the subject matter (Shulman, 1986). Additionally, Shulman (1987) argues that there should be a knowledge base for teaching effectively. This implies that there must be something substantial to be learnt. School History teachers are therefore expected to provide substantial knowledge expected from them by learners of School History, in particular. For standards to be raised and a system of examinations to be examined, there must be an existing body of knowledge and skills to examine (Shulman, 1987) and this body of knowledge is specialised subject knowledge. Therefore, there is a connection between

how teachers teach and how teachers examine. History teachers should have proper specialised subject knowledge that they will be able to examine in the end.

It is not enough to know that a particular event occurred without knowing why that particular event took place. Therefore, teacher knowledge must help School History teachers understand causes of events. Even learners must go in as far as establishing why certain historical events took place after knowing what those events are. Even and Tirosh (1995) argue that there are many factors that affect teacher's PCK. These factors are "teacher's own experience both as a learner and a teacher", "exposure to relevant departmental and cognitive research", and "nature and depth of teacher's own SMK" (Even & Tirosh, 1995, p.1). In summary, PCK encapsulates teachers' experiences, teachers' research and SMK.

Wineburg, (1997, p. 257) argues that specialised subject knowledge offers an in-depth knowledge for teachers. This in-depth knowledge enables teachers to "separate the peripheral from the central, see the forest for the trees, and possess knowledge organised in interconnecting networks of meaning and significance". In order to explore in-depth knowledge, Wineburg (1997) talks about four categories which are differentiation, elaboration, qualification and integration. Differentiation, is about individual's understanding of multiple facets of a concept or event, while elaboration refers to a detailed knowledge about an event. Qualification has to do with an ability to locate knowledge within an epistemological framework, speaking to issues of historical context and the uncertain and tentative nature of historical knowledge. Integration on the other hand addresses causal and thematic linkages (Wineburg, 1997). Therefore, School History teachers need to acquire in-depth knowledge and this in-depth knowledge can be acquired through thorough and correct specialised subject knowledge.

Many researchers (Poulson, 2001; McCarthy & Youens, 2005; Ubuz & Yayan, 2010) have argued that if history teachers have in-depth knowledge of history, they will have good understanding of all topics that they are supposed to handle with learners. It is therefore important for history teachers to have specialised subject knowledge because "teachers who know more teach better" (Poulson, 2001, p. 41). Without an in-depth knowledge, history teachers may find it difficult to make learners have and acquire the desired historical knowledge. There is thus a close relationship between and interdependence of PCK and specialised subject knowledge. The interdependence is that, in order for history teachers to

develop a good and strong PCK he/she should have a strong understanding of the accepted modes of enquiry in a discipline (Poulson, 2001). Also, SMK provides a basis from which PCK develops thus making SMK contribute to teaching successfully (Kind, 2009). Furthermore, successful teaching relies on the bond between SMK and PCK. Even 'novice teachers' with little subject knowledge need some initial input of subject knowledge in order to give them something to teach before they could begin developing pedagogic skills (Lucas, Loo & McDonald, 2005). Therefore, for any School History teacher to be successful, subject knowledge and pedagogic knowledge should be melded together.

Specialised subject knowledge is the kind of subject matter entailed in the context of teaching particular topics within the curriculum (Deng, 2007). Subsequently, for any effective teaching to take place history teachers must have acquired specialised subject knowledge which enables them to explain the framework or paradigms of School History (Deng, 2007) and allows them to furnish learners with proper, correct and relevant subject content knowledge (Childs & McNicholl, 2007). Furthermore, with good specialised subject knowledge teachers are able to identify deficiencies of learners during subject knowledge development (McCarthy & Youens, 2005). Therefore, real teaching is not only about content delivery but also identifying factors that hinder learners from grasping and understanding content.

A clear understanding of subject matter by teachers puts teachers in a better position of understanding concepts and principles to be taught or formulated in a psychological plane, how to develop interest, experience, and prior knowledge of learners (Deng, 2007). The knowledge of the specialised subject knowledge motivates learners thus developing interest. In addition to what Deng mentioned, Dewey, (1990) further argues that having acquired a correct and sound SMK enables the teacher to 'psychologize' a particular concept or principle. If the teacher psychologises he takes the content and develops it within the range of the child's life (Childs & McNicholl, 2007). Also, psychologising involves the use of examples, questions, and models that are within the realm of students' experience and knowledge.

Previous studies reveal that in order to describe a lesson as successful that should be attributed to the teacher's ability to transform SMK significantly, being confident and be able to answer subject-related questions (Childs & McNicholl, 2007; Kind, 2009) and also to pick up or identify learners' misconceptions (Hashweh, 1987; Tobin & Fraser, 1990). It is not easy for the teacher to identify misconceptions if there is a gap in the SMK that the teacher possesses.

However, teachers with sound SMK have a wider knowledge of the same subject and are able to relate a topic to other aspects of the subject (Kind, 2009). When teachers have a sound SMK they may be able to identify integration of knowledge within and across the subject. It is notable that specialised subject knowledge equips teachers with knowledge that enables them to master content in ways that reflect the manner in which they should teach it (Slekar & Haefner, 2010). If the teacher has a substantive knowledge the teacher can teach learners effectively. It is therefore a prerequisite that School History teachers are conversant with relevant SMK for School History. Therefore, good School History teachers are measured with the quality of the specialised subject knowledge they have.

3.4. Conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed the meaning, relevance, and importance of theoretical and conceptual frameworks in general and their relevance in this study. The reason for discussing theoretical framework was to clarify theories that informed my study. I also discussed all the related issues to teacher knowledge and social constructivism, theories of this study. Thereafter, I expounded on conceptual framework. Taking into account that each study should identify and discuss concepts that are key concepts to it, I identified and elaborated on key concepts for my study. With the awareness that this study aimed at understanding views of School History teachers, I found it incumbent to expound on the concept 'epistemology' and specialised subject knowledge. It was essential to discuss and explain what I meant by epistemology in relation to my study. In doing this, I based my argument on theories of knowledge which are part and parcel of epistemology.

I also found it imperative to clarify what I meant by specialised subject knowledge since it was one of the key concepts of this study. This study focussed on specialised knowledge of School History. Some people would be exposed for the first time to this concept; specialised subject knowledge. For this reason, I saw it important to put clarity on what is meant by specialised subject knowledge. Hence, specialised subject knowledge received a great deal of discussion. Different concepts that were used by different authors and historians, instead of specialised subject knowledge, were dealt with in depth. Therefore, in this chapter I managed to shed light on what should be expected in this study in terms of framing it theoretically and conceptually. In the next chapter, I give a clear description of methodology and methods that I used to generate data.

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter was to describe, discuss and explain how I designed and conducted my PhD study. In other words, I described and explained the research design and research methodology that I applied in order to address the purpose and focus of the study through answering the research questions. It was important to describe and explain my research design because a research design can be like running a marathon. An athlete needs to have a proper and detailed plan of how he will systematically start and finish running the race. If an athlete never planned properly and systematically, and adhered to the plan, he/she might not finish the race. Therefore, with reference to research this plan is referred to as a research design.

In planning my research design, I had to make choices pertaining to the research approach, research paradigm and research sample since they, together with ontological and epistemological assumptions, form the backbone of the research design. It is also necessary at the outset to clear-up any confusion about the scope of the research design and research methodology respectively (Mouton, 2001). In the first part of this chapter, I discussed the research design whereas in part two I focused on the research methodology. De Vos et al. (2005) affirm that the research design that links the research question to the execution of the research is developed through a process known as the research methodology. The research methodology is the practical part of how the researcher will gather data to be analysed in order to understand the phenomenon under the research lens. It means that the design and the methodology are inter linked such that the research design could be the umbrella that accommodates the methodology. In the section below, I elaborated on the research of my design and explicated how it was relevant to my study.

4.2. Research design

With the research design, I expounded the plan that I used to generate data for my study in detail. This plan included appropriate research methods (Creswell, 2009) that I used for data generation. When proposing to undertake this study, I indicated the research questions that would guide the study throughout its completion. Therefore, my plan for all the sections of this study was to be able to answer the research questions posed since they guided the study.

Consequently, the research design that I opted for had to be aligned to the research questions (Creswell, 2009) in order to ensure that the research did not deviate from its purpose.

Furthermore, I used a research design to describe the steps taken and explain how I implemented those steps to ensure data generation (Gale, Heath, Cameron, Rashid & Redwood, 2013). My research design was informed by the kind of study I would produce in the end. Hence De Vos et al., (2011) assert that a research design focuses on the end product and all the steps in the process to achieve the anticipated outcomes.

I did not only use the research design to elaborate on the research methods I would use, I also discussed the approach (Hofstee, 2010) that I believe was the most appropriate for this study. For this reason, I needed to take a closer look at the qualitative approach and elaborated on it. I, also, needed research participants in order to generate data and understand views on history as a specialised subject from their point of view (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). Since the research design guided me on how to generate data, it also guided me on how to identify research participants. Moreover, with my research design it became clear what I had to do with the research participants in order to reach possible answers to the research questions posed (Welman et al., 2005). Consequently, without a research design it cannot be clear how the researcher engaged with the participants in order to get the rich thick data for understanding the phenomenon. Therefore, the research design was the road map that I used and followed from the beginning till the end with an aim of finding possible answers to my research questions (Kumar, 2014).

Kumar (2014) argues that there are two functions to a research design. Firstly, to identify and develop the procedures and logistical arrangements required to undertake a study and secondly, to emphasise the importance of quality in these procedures in order to ensure trustworthiness of the study. Consequently, the researcher should select a research design that will enable him/her to obtain quality answers. It means that if quality answers were obtained through a well-developed research design the findings will also be of quality. In the following section, I elaborated on the research approach that I deemed appropriate for this study - that is the qualitative approach.

4.2.1 Qualitative research approach

The enquiry for this study was advanced by using a qualitative research approach. Several studies have revealed that a qualitative research approach provided an in-depth and detailed understanding of the phenomenon being studied (Carr, 1994; Silverman, 2000; Welman et al., 2005; Flick, 2006; Henning, van Rensburg & Smit, 2009; De Vos et al., 2011; Cohen et al., 2011; Gray, 2013; Creswell, 2014; Barbour, 2014). This approach also helped to propose answers to the research questions, address the purpose of the study and indicated how the methods of generating and analysing data were used in the study (Thomas, 2013). The aforementioned suggests that the findings that are arrived at using a qualitative approach are not quantifiable as will be the case with quantitative research.

The qualitative approach also helped to draw conclusions as well as reporting the outcomes of the research (Walliman, 2006). Thus, when the researcher describes the process and procedures followed, readers are able to understand how the researcher drew conclusions. Thus, without a clearly articulated research approach, it would not be clear for the reader to understand how I conducted my study. Moreover, understanding the research approach enables the reader to understand and evaluate the research (Denscombe, 2010). Additionally, the qualitative approach is also about interpretation. Interpretation helps to create understanding and describe the phenomenon being researched (Welman et al., 2005). For me to understand the phenomenon, I used the views of history teachers based on their experiences of the phenomenon at King Cetshwayo district.

Overall, the qualitative research approach was useful in this study for the following reasons: I was able to understand the context that shaped the views of School History of the participating teachers. Also, I was able to understand the meanings that teachers of School History attached to their environment (Welman et al., 2005). Furthermore, I was able to use a variety of methods of data generation for the qualitative research approach which allows the use of multiple research methods. Subsequently, I used textual document analysis, card sorting and semi-structured interviews in order to generate data in this study.

However, it does not mean that the qualitative research does not have its own flaws. One of the weaknesses of the qualitative approach relates to the interpretation of the phenomenon (De Vos, 2011). Interpretation becomes a challenge in qualitative research because the diversity of researchers means that their interpretation of the phenomenon differs from one scholar to

another. For this reason, researchers should prove and indicate the acceptability of their interpretation. It was for this reason that my interpretation was verified by my research participants through member checking as well as two History Education experts, Dr MZ Shamase and Professor MAN Duma. Dr MZ Shamase was an Acting Head of Department at Department of History, Faculty of Arts, whereas Professor MAN Duma was the Head of Department in Social Sciences Education. Both were working for the University of Zululand. I trusted their judgement because both had expertise.

Another weakness of the qualitative approach is that the outcomes from my research could not be generalised (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). However, I could assist with the deeper understanding of the views of School History teachers in the King Cetshwayo District. Consequently, the findings that I elicited could not be generalised beyond the views of the School History teachers of the King Cetshwayo District. In short – the qualitative approach prohibits researchers from relating the findings of a particular context to another.

Furthermore, another challenge in using the qualitative approach is that it is influenced by the kind of paradigm adopted (Gray, 2013). For this reason, I was extra careful when adopting a paradigm. I ensured that my approach tallied with my paradigm hence, I used a qualitative approach underpinned by the interpretive paradigm. The reason for adopting an interpretive paradigm was that the qualitative approach is about an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. On the other hand, the interpretive paradigm is about the interpretation of a phenomenon. My approach and paradigm complemented each other in the sense that one has to interpret in order to have understanding. Therefore, interpretation and understanding proved to be inter-linked.

Lastly, the maintenance of the proper flow of argument in the research is another flaw of the qualitative approach (Garbers, 1996). If researchers are not careful, they might not argue accordingly clearly proving their points and facts. Taking into account that the research is about argument, I worked hard to succumb to the guidelines and prescripts of the qualitative approach. When arguing my points, I bore the guidelines of the qualitative approach and interpretive paradigm in mind.

Since the qualitative approach should tally with a research paradigm, it was important for me to choose a paradigm that would complement the qualitative approach. My research approach

and paradigm had to enable the understanding of the views of school history teachers hence I adopted the interpretive paradigm.

4.2.2. Research paradigm

This study was guided by the interpretive paradigm which is centred on understanding a phenomenon. The interpretive paradigm allows for culturally and historically related interpretations of social life-world (Crotty, 1998). Through studying the views of School History teachers, I was able to understand the meaningful realities that School History teachers had of School History. The eagerness for understanding realities of School History teachers was motivated by the notion that meaningful realities are contingent on human practices (Wheeldon & Åhlberg, 2012). Therefore, without human practices there would be no interpretations because researchers interpret views that are grounded on people's experiences of a social reality (Gray, 2009). So, in this study I wanted to understand the views of rural School History teachers in relation to School History.

The interpretive paradigm also provides models from which research studies arise (Kuhn, 1970). For this reason, the interpretive paradigm guided me on how to think about and study the research phenomenon – views of history teachers – that came under the research lens. Furthermore, the interpretive paradigm provides a guide on the methods of data generation and analysis to be used (Barker, 2003). This guidance helped me to prune my study and to ensure that the study produced is of good quality. As a result, it was incumbent for me to set guidelines for undertaking the study because the social world has no order, no structure and no inherent properties (Denscombe, 2010) but for the social world to be understood, it must be investigated and interpreted.

In undertaking this study I did not know what School History teachers would say; I only waited for them to share their views with me because I did not know how they viewed School History. However, the interpretive paradigm enabled me as the researcher to explore the individual and collective understanding, reasoning processes and social norms of the research participants (Mason, 2002). As a result, I was able to understand how School History teachers related the subject with rurality since they were from the rural area.

The interpretive paradigm also enabled me to understand the relationship between these School History teachers. I also understood how they constructed views about School History.

Consequently, I interpreted their views (Loseke, 2013) and understanding of School History in order to understand their views on School History. The manner in which School History teachers understood School History showed me how they judged and reasoned about it since they were not thoughtless and helpless (Mills & Birks, 2014) but had something to say about it.

The interpretive paradigm was useful and appropriate in this study in so many ways. It enabled me to interact and involve myself with the research participants in their settings thus easing the process of data generation. Since I met different participants in different settings, I managed to generate rich data on School History. Also, the interpretive paradigm enabled me to ground my research on the views of the School History teachers who were involved with the teaching of the School History. Their involvement was practical rather than theoretical since they were hands-on with teaching School History.

However, there were flaws that characterised the interpretive paradigm. One of these flaws was the immersion of the researcher in the situation rather than going with the fixed ideas about the phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2011; Loseke, 2013). It must be noted that the world is always subjective and is influenced by, amongst other things, the positioning of the researcher in relation to the research being undertaken (Guba, 1990; Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Also, Thomas (2013) notes that the position of the researcher affects the nature of the observations and interpretations the researcher makes in the study. It is clear that no knowledge is neutral. Hence I cannot overtly say I was neutral because as a professionally qualified School History teacher, I have a passion for it. However, I tried my best not to be biased and put aside my feelings and interpret data as it were. It was for this reason that my colleagues i.e. Dr MZ Shamase and Professor MAN Duma verified my neutrality and bias.

Another weakness was similar to that of a qualitative approach because it also relates to interpretation. The concern is that the accounts of the interpretivists cannot be declared absolutely correct because there is great uncertainty about the explanations of the social world by interpretivists (Denscombe, 2010). Consequently, I followed the same procedure that I used when addressing interpretation in a qualitative approach.

Furthermore, interpretive research cannot be judged using the same criteria as a scientific paradigm because legitimacy and trustworthiness of interpretive research cannot be achieved

without claiming uncontested certainty (Scotland, 2012). This uncontested uncertainty is related to the point that research participants cannot be expected to arrive at exactly the same interpretation as researchers (Rolfe, 2006). In other words, each researcher interprets data the way he/she wishes and understands.

In addition, the more the researcher provides information while constructing a thick description, the greater the risk of participant's exposure (Scotland, 2012). The voice of participants should be heard through the researcher. However, there are possibilities that the voice of participants or the stance of participants would be overshadowed by the researcher and is thus not being heard.

However, the understanding that the interpretive paradigm instigated also related to ontological and epistemological assumptions of the research participants. For this reason, the following section dealt with how the ontological and epistemological assumptions influenced the interpretive paradigm as well as the study at large.

4.2.3. Ontological and epistemological assumptions

Ontology and epistemology are closely related concepts that also affect the choice of approach and paradigm. Whilst ontology is about what constitutes reality, what informs reality or the study of being (Crotty, 1998; Henry & Pene, 2001), epistemology is about the nature of knowledge, what counts as knowledge (Braun & Clarke, 2013) or forms of knowledge (Cohen et al., 2007). Also, Pollock & Cruz (1999) regard epistemology as the theory of knowledge. Therefore, ontologists are interested in 'what is the nature of reality?' whereas epistemologists are interested in 'what it means to know something' These two theoretical perspectives are interlinked. For the researcher to claim that he knows something, that claim should emanate from the truth or reality that can be linked to that knowledge since knowledge is informed by truth and belief (Molla, 2004; Stoddard, 2010).

Greene, (2008) submitted that researchers have beliefs about the study of knowledge and knowing and this is called a personal epistemology. Epistemological beliefs are about the study of knowledge and knowing (Pintrich, 2002; Greene, 2008). Also, epistemological beliefs indicate how teachers understand the nature of their discipline (Maggioni, Van Sledright & Alexander, 2009). Hence Wansink, Akkerman, Vermunt, Haenen & Wubbels, (2016) report that even teachers incorporate epistemological reflection in their lessons which means beliefs

that teachers have impact on teaching-learning activities. Moreover, Kvanvig (2003) regards belief and truth as constituents of knowledge in the sense that 'knows' is a synonym of justified belief hence he elaborates that knowledge requires truth. Furthermore, Hofer, Kloos, Krzykacz-Hausmann, Peschke, & Woltereck, (2002) argue that philosophical epistemology is interested in the origin, nature, limits, methods and justification of human knowledge. It is therefore incumbent for the researcher to be in a good position in justifying knowledge to be presented. This justification should be coupled with a belief about knowledge.

Like teachers, researchers also hold ontological and epistemological assumptions that shape the way they undertake research based on the knowledge they have. The choice of research design, approach and paradigm is also determined by ontological and epistemological assumptions that researchers hold. Hence Sarantakos (2005) argues that ontological and epistemological assumptions are linked to paradigms which guide everyday research. The view of Sarantakos is bolstered by Cohen et al. (2011) who claim that ontological and epistemological assumptions determine the kind of methodology and data generation methods researchers will use in their study (Cohen et al., 2011). There is thus interdependence between the interpretive paradigm and ontological and epistemological assumptions. This interdependence is confirmed by Thomas (2013) who asserts that different ontological positions lead to different paradigmatic positions. Additionally, Scotland (2012) submits that interpretivism aims at bringing into consciousness hidden social forces and structures. These social forces and structures manifest themselves in the ontological and epistemological assumptions researchers have.

Each paradigm is linked to ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. Hence Scotland (2012, p.10) argues "it is impossible to engage in any form of research without committing to ontological and epistemological positions". Consequently, Grix (2004) talks about interpretive epistemology. Interpretive epistemology asserts that subjectivism is based on real world phenomena and also, the world does not exist independently of people's knowledge but depends on knowledge. On the other hand, interpretive ontology relates to relativism (Scotland, 2012). Guba and Lincoln (1994) provide more clarity on relativism by positing that reality is subjective hence reality differs from one person to another. Therefore, assertions of the interpretive epistemology and ontology prove that the interpretive paradigm relates to both epistemology and ontology.

Hollway (2008) refers to ontology, epistemology and methodology as a trio of principles that inform research. It means that this trio of principles guide the researcher when undertaking a study. In support of Hollway (2008), Henry and Pene (2001) affirm that a set of methods is shaped by assumptions about what is 'real' and what is 'true'. Consequently, ontological and epistemological assumptions play a crucial role in identifying and determining types of methods to be used when conducting research.

Scotland (2012, p. 9) posits that "ontological assumptions are concerned with what constitutes reality or what is reality". As a result, researchers should position their perceptions of how things really are and how things work. On the other hand, epistemological assumptions are concerned with how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated. In short, epistemological assumptions aim at understanding what it means to know something (Scotland, 2012). To sum up the relationship between ontological and epistemological assumption, Kvanvig (2003) submits that what people know and how people know depend on the relationship between the mind and world and a possibility of success in determining what is true and what is not. Therefore, my ontological and epistemological assumptions influenced the interpretive paradigm in this study.

Ontological and epistemological assumptions affect the manner in which the researcher undertakes a study. The belief that the researcher has pertaining to reality and knowledge guides the way he/she accomplishes the study. Therefore, views, in this study, were understood within social and rural contexts. Ontologically, this study presumed that reality is given since School History teachers shared their views on School History. In terms of theory of knowledge, this study was based on social constructivism since I constructed views within a rural context through the views obtained from School History teachers.

4.2.4. Research sample

Taking into account that this was an empirical study, I had to carefully select a suitable sample of research participants. Since empirical study is about the researcher going out to the world and generate data it meant that the sample and methods chosen were to complement the empirical data generation process.

There are two major types of sampling which are probability or random sampling and non-probability or non-random sampling. Each of these major types has its own underpinning types

of sampling (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, (2005). While probability or random sampling allows the researcher to study phenomena, interpret results and generalise findings from a specific sample, on the other hand, non-probability or non-random sampling opposes generalisation of findings. Therefore, with non-probability sampling, researchers are expected to give a detailed and in-depth description of the phenomenon through interpretation. For the sake of this study, non-probability sampling was used since it complemented the qualitative approach and interpretive paradigm which shaped this study.

Since non-probability sampling is fortified by different types of sampling, I had to make a choice again with regard to the appropriate type that would tally with my qualitative approach and interpretive paradigm hence I adopted purposive sampling. With purposive sampling, I handpicked my research participants (Gray, 2009; Somekh & Lewin, 2011; Creswell, 2014) based on my judgement of the criteria or characteristics that participants possessed. Furthermore, I chose purposive sampling because I wanted to access experienced teachers with in-depth knowledge of School History. Consequently, I selected professionally qualified School History teachers with a minimum of five years teaching experience to share their views. The sharing of views was incumbent because it was the main reason for the formation of the sample (Creswell, 2011; Kumar, 2011; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

It was impossible for me to conduct this research with all the members of the population. For this reason, I selected for what Somekh and Lewin (2011), Cohen et al. (2011), Walliman (2006), Thomas (2013) Flick (2014) and De Vos et al. (2011) call a sample which refers to a complete small set of units or group within a larger population that is studied solely to generate data (Somekh & Lewin, 2011) representing the entire population. In addition, Loseke (2013) and Simons (2009) refer to a sample as a subset of the population.

However, I had to exercise a serious caution pertaining to the size of the sample in order to ensure that the sample was large enough to produce quality data. Taking into account that the sample size cannot be determined by anyone but the researcher only whether quantitative or qualitative (Cohen et al., 2011; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014), I purposively selected seven School History teachers from the King Cetshwayo district. The sample that I adopted shared similar characteristics to those of the population (Mason, 2002).

The sample that I adopted was useful in this study for a number of reasons. It helped me to save costs that I would have incurred if I involved the entire population. I also, demonstrated a clear sense of rationale (Mason, 2002) for the choice I made to choose a sample based on my own characteristics that I outlined. Lastly, my sample allowed me a chance to seek typical and divergent data from the research participants. In the end my judgement was prominent in this type of sample (De Vos et al., 2011; Gray, 2013) because I owned it.

However, my method of sampling had its own challenges. For instance, it is impossible to evaluate the extent to which a particular sample represents the relevant population (Welman et al., 2005). This challenge can be attributed to the fact that the researcher has full control of the sample and he/she accounts to himself. However, I can assure my readers that I had no doubt of my sampling in this study taking into account the quality data I generated which allowed me to interpret and understand teachers' views. Another challenge was that the researcher may omit or neglect the vital characteristics on which to select the sample (Gray, 2013). As it was the case with the first challenge, I still believe that if something went wrong with the sampling process no quality data will be generated. The generation of quality data implied that the sample was of good quality. Therefore, I did not neglect or omit any characteristics.

As I stated earlier in this chapter, purposive sampling allows the researcher to formulate the sample considering his/her own characteristics. In this study, I also established my sample based on the following four criteria. My participants had to come from the rural areas in and around King Cetshwayo District, be professionally qualified and had to be a School History teacher responsible for the Further Education and Training (FET) band i.e. grades 10-12. Lastly, they had to have a minimum teaching experience of five years. All my seven research participants met all these criteria and they remained constant for the whole research process during textual document analysis, card sorting and semi-structured interviews.

In summary, when I had to make choices of aspects to inform my research design, I opted for a qualitative approach and interpretive paradigm because they both advocate for the understanding of the phenomenon. Also, I elaborated on epistemology and ontology being aligned to social constructivism which is in line with the theory that underpinned this study. Furthermore, I opted for case study methodology which also articulates with understanding the

phenomenon. In the case of sampling, this study used purposive sampling. This summary is presented in Table 4.1. below.

Table 4.1 Summary of the research design

Qualitative
Interpretivism
Social constructionism
Case study
Non-random (Purposive)

4.3 Research Methodology

I stated earlier that this chapter was about the research design and methodology. The research design elaborates on the theoretical part whereas research methodology focuses on the implementation or practical part of research methodology. It is incumbent for researchers to expound on these two concepts and indicate how their studies incorporated them. Besides being clear on research design and methodology, these concepts enable the readers to understand how the researcher plotted the study. Consequently, if the researcher did not frame his research methodology properly, there are chances of the study not being completed or being of good quality. Hence, researchers should take their time and make a serious consideration of both design and methodology since they are the backbone of the research and are the key guides of the research since they determine the kind of data to be generated. Research design and methodology elucidate on how the study will be conducted.

It is for this reason that I started by clarifying the meaning of research design and everything that relates to it. Thereafter, I discussed all the aspects that informed my research design in order to understand how this study was structured. Having done that, I focussed on the actual implementation of research methodology. This section expatiated on the real actions of the researcher to generate data. For this reason, the first aspect that I clarified and explained was the methodology that shaped my study.

4.3.1. Case study as a research methodology

In order to reinforce the qualitative approach and research paradigm, this study adopted a case study methodology. The reason for using the case study was because it deals with description and examination of social phenomenon. The case study helped me to understand the complex and unique views of School History teachers as well as the views that shaped their views. This study was qualitative in nature and entrenched in constructivism and the interpretive paradigm which happened to be the features of a case study. This on its own justifies the suitability of the case in my study. Some studies refer to case study as a bounded system (Henning et al. 2004; Kumar, 2011 & Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). They suggest that the boundary setting identifies what the case is and what it is not. This boundary character of a case study makes it 'a particular instance' as Rule and John (2011, p.3) reckon. Subsequently, the researcher should ensure that the case study has identifiable features that will make it distinct. For this reason, my case study was geographically bounded by the rural area within the King Cetshwayo district.

In another study, Henning et al. (2004) argue that a case study is not only defined in terms of its boundary nature, the unit of analysis being studied but it is also a research method. Mills & Birks (2014) bolster this idea by claiming that if a case study is used as a method it enables the researcher to explore and interact with participants thus being able to answer the 'how' and 'why' research questions. Therefore, the fact that I was able to propose answers to the 'how' and 'why' questions show that I acquired the deeper understanding of the views of School History teachers. However, without a good working relationship with my participants it would have been impossible to generate data. It is for this reason that (Verschuren, 2003) asserts that the researcher should maintain a good relationship with participants because good relationships ease my data generation process.

The use of the case study was justifiable in this study for several reasons. Amongst these reasons was that the case study is quick and easy to set up (Creswell, 2009; Creswell, 2014; Mills & Birks, 2014) and it works effectively. Another reason was that the case study allowed me to use a variety of methods for data generation and that resulted in an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon being studied. Also, using a case study enabled me to focus on a single unit and study it intensively. As a result, I was able to direct all my attention and endeavours to this single unit with an aim of developing understanding of the case. Furthermore, the case study helped me to limit my focus to the rural context since I knew what

I was looking for and knew where to find it. It therefore means that by virtue of being a case study, the findings of this study cannot be generalised to any other context.

4.3.2 Data generation

Data generation is the process whereby the researcher generates data that will be analysed in order to understand the phenomenon. Data generation becomes the most important aspect of the research because most aspects of the research lead up to data generation. The study becomes successful through the kind and the quality of data generated. However, the concept 'data generation' is not acceptable to some scholars instead some scholars suggest 'data collection' instead. Scholars like Mason (2002), Loseke (2013), Barbour (2014) and Mills & Birks (2014) argue that the researcher does not carry an empty basket into the world to pick up data that is simply lying around. According to these scholars, the researcher engages with sources rigorously and systematically with an aim of constructing or generating knowledge for addressing the research questions. Data generation recognises the critical role that the researcher plays when generating data which becomes a process which demands the researcher engage with research participants or respondents.

Conversely, the proponents of data collection like Silverman (2000), Welman & Kruger (2001), Mouton (2001), Welman et al. (2005), Simons (2009), Creswell (2009), Gray (2009), De Vos et al. (2011), Somekh & Lewin (2011), Kumar (2011), Olsen (2012) and Kumar (2014) believe that data collection is about the researcher gathering the data in order to understand the phenomenon. Obviously, with data generation there are different challenges that the researcher comes across than with the data collection. These challenges for data generation are spearheaded by the critical processes of the researcher, whereas with data collection data only needs to be gathered because it exists somewhere. Therefore, besides these contrasting views about these two concepts, I opted for data generation instead of data collection. The reason for using the data generation 'concept' was that I got too much involved with generating data using different methods for this study. In order to generate data for this study, I used three research methods and they were document analysis, card sorting and interviews. The methods, as used, in this study are referred to as research pathways (Farmer & Rojewski, 2001). The study by Farmer & Rojewski, (2001) suggests that methods link the researcher's own standpoint to the generation and interpretation of the data that will answer the research questions. These methods are discussed in detail in the next section and the first method is card sorting.

4.3.2.1. Card sorting

My first method of data generation was card sorting. With card sorting, the researcher generates data through giving cards to participants to sort. However, for the participants to sort cards they must be given a subject into response categories (Harloff, 2005; Saunders & Thornhill, 2011) or guidelines by the researcher. For obvious reasons, without proper guidelines participants cannot sort cards because they will not know what is expected of them. There are two types of card sorting and they are open and closed sorting (Kerr, Hilari & Litosseliti, 2010; Roth, Benjamin, Blanford, Klippel, Robinson & MacEachren, 2011. With the former, participants are free to sort cards the way they like because there are no guidelines from the researcher. Whereas with the latter, participants are given guidelines and they must adhere to these guidelines (Kerr et al., 2010; Roth et al., 2011) when sorting cards. Since I guided my participants on how to sort the cards I issued them, my study adopted closed card sorting.

Using card sorting was justifiable in this study because my participants were in a relaxed state when sorting cards the way that made sense to them. They were not under any pressure so they used their judgement and understanding without interruptions. As a result, I learned how they thought data should be organised. Furthermore, I managed to generate large volumes of data within a short space of time. The average duration of my engagement with participants was 90 minutes. Another justification is that since I used participants who had experience in School History teaching and were specialists in School History, I managed to integrate expert knowledge (Roth et al., 2011) from School History teachers. Therefore, using card sorting made my study effective because I generated enough data.

In order to ensure enough and quality data, card sorting in this study occurred in three different stages or sessions. In the first phase of card sorting, I presented participants with blank cards and asked them to write down their own views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. After writing their views, I asked them to sort their cards according to their manner of preference or importance ranging from the most important to the least important card or view. I asked them to indicate their sorting by labelling their cards by using either A, B, C; and so forth or 1, 2, 3, and so forth. Since I provided them with enough blank cards, they wrote without restriction on a number of cards. They were free to use any number of cards with a number of views they had. Thereafter, I engaged them, through interviews (which will be explained below) on what they had written and how they had sorted their cards. During the course of our interview, participants were free to change or sort their cards differently but not

after the interview had been completed. Once they were done sorting cards, I took photos of each sorting as a proof of how each participant sorted cards.

The second phase of card sorting took place after I had analysed CAPS for history, read the literature on School History as embodied in Chapter 2 and developed 12 themes on School History. I wrote these 12 themes on 12 cards. Therefore, participants had to deal with 12 cards for the sorting. Like I did earlier, I issued these cards to participants and they were to sort cards using the same criteria and procedures stated earlier. On completion of sorting, I engaged them on why they sorted the cards I issued them the way they did. This was the second part of the interview where participants shared their views.

Having seen and engaged participants on how they sorted cards during the first and second stages, I engaged them for the third and the last time in card sorting and interview. This time, I brought the two sets of cards participants sorted earlier and asked them to mix and sort these sets coming up with the final single set of cards. They applied the same criteria and procedures they applied earlier and they had to explain to me why they sorted cards the way that they did. This was the third time I engaged my participants with card sorting and interviews where they expounded their positioning.

There were four reasons for using card sorting. One of these reasons was that I obtained views from participants without making it difficult for them by asking a long sequence of repetitive closed-ended questions. Therefore, participants were comfortable when sharing their views. Also, there were no misinterpretations of questions as may be the case with interviews since I gave only one instruction and participants expressed themselves freely. Furthermore, research participants were not forced to sort all the cards I issued them but they were free to eliminate or omit those cards they deemed irrelevant. Lastly, with card sorting I eliminated prestige bias in answers (Dubois, 1949-1950) by asking follow-up questions in order to clarify and guard against shortcomings.

Looking at the need for the participants to expound on what they wrote on the cards and the manner in which they sorted their cards, I saw a great need for interviews so that participants can clarify their implicit issues. Subsequently, I used the interviews for data generation in this study which are discussed in the next section.

4.3.2.2 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews allow researchers to pose questions and respondents enjoy freedom to express themselves, where there are no restrictions pertaining to how questions can be asked (Check & Schutt, 2012; Creswell, 2013; Barbour 2014). Furthermore, interviews can be conducted either face-to-face or telephonically (Appleton, 1995) and can, also, be one-to-one interactions or focus groups. This implies that interviews allow the researcher to engage a participant in order to explain or clarify issues or concerns. To ascertain that participants knew what was expected from them, before I started with the interview, I explained my expectations and everything related to the interview. I also allowed them to ask if there was something of which they were unclear. This was a way of training them about the interview to be conducted. As a researcher, I lead and directed the interviews since I knew what I was looking for. For the sake of this study, interviews were conducted face-to-face and a semi-structured individual interview style was adopted.

Semi-structured interviews are about the researcher posing a question to the participant and the researcher being able to ask follow-up questions in order to get clarity on what the participant said implicitly. When using the follow-up questions, the researcher acquires varied and indepth data relevant to the phenomenon. Follow-up questions ensure that the researcher has full understanding of the phenomenon through engaging participants. Barbour (2014), argues that semi-structured interviews enable the interviewee to provide his/her own insights and reflections freely because he/she is in control of the interview. Moreover, semi-structured interviews allow researchers to produce knowledge situated in contexts (Mason, 2002). Consequently, I was able to explore views of School History teachers from the rural area of the King Cetshwayo district.

There were many reasons why the use of semi-structured interviews was, alongside card sorting, justifiable in this study. The fact that semi-structured interviews are less formal than structured interviews, made this method more apt since I was able to acquire the quality data I was looking for. Additionally, through semi-structured interviews I was able to explore the phenomenon under the research lens more discursively as well as dealing with issues that emerged during my engagement with the participants (Denscombe, 2009). Moreover, my ontological position played a big role in reinforcing the use of semi-structured interviews. My ontological position was that people's knowledge, views, understandings, interpretations, experiences, and interactions are meaningful properties of the social reality which my research

questions were designed to explore (Mason, 2002). Lastly, my epistemological position that in order to generate data one has to talk interactively with people, ask questions, listen to them and analyse people's construction of discourse, also justified the use of semi-structured interviews (Mason, 2002) since semi-structured interviews are about all these afore-mentioned activities.

I conducted semi-structured interviews in three different phases for three reasons. One of the reasons was to clarify the issues they wrote on the cards and also to expound on the manner they sorted their cards. Lastly, to elaborate on the reasons they omitted some of the cards during sorting. Therefore, I applied the above reasons to all the three phases of interviews. In the first phase, I interviewed the participants after they wrote their views on blank cards I issued them. In the second phase, I interviewed them after they sorted the cards with themes and issues from the literature and analysis of the CAPS document for School History. The last phase of interviews was after I mixed two sets of cards that participants sorted earlier and asked them to sort these two sets. The following section discusses the third and last method used to generate data.

4.3.2.3 Document analysis

Document analysis is about the researcher making sense of what the document is all about through carefully analysing, examining and interpreting it (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Cohen et al., 2011; Olsen, 2012; Loseke, 2013). As I stated earlier, in section 1.9.4., the document that I analysed was CAPS. Through my analysis, I managed to understand the themes and patterns that are found in literature and CAPS. I also developed understanding of what School History is all about. Therefore, understanding the CAPS document was in line with the understanding I spoke about earlier in this chapter relating to interpretivism and the qualitative approach.

Jupp & Norris (1993) as quoted by Cohen et al. (2011) affirm that there are three general traditions in document analysis which are positivist, interpretive and critical traditions. The positivists focus on the objective, systematic, rational and quantitative nature of the study. The interpretivists argue for social phenomena whereas the critical approach emphasises social conflict, power, control and ideology. Therefore, considering the nature of my study, I adopted the interpretive tradition since my thesis studies the views of School History teachers as a social phenomenon.

The use of document analysis was justifiable in this study. The document analysis helped me to understand how the curriculum for School History was structured and what it hoped to achieve. Also, the document analysis enabled me to generate data without having personal contact with participants. This alone eased my data generation process because I did not find myself having to wait for the participant to engage the participant. Furthermore, it was easy for me to access the CAPS document as I accessed it through the internet. The advantage of document analysis is that documents can be used time and again (Flick, 2014). Lastly, document analysis helps to construct a specific version of an event in a broader perspective (Flick, 2014). It is for this reason that I managed to produce my own piece of work containing my own version.

However, the fact that the researcher may not understand the content of the document, (Flick, 2014) is one of the big challenges when using the document analysis. This implies that the researcher may fail to conceptualise relations between content, meaning and context. Fortunately, I piloted my study before data generation which helped me a lot because pilot members guided and corrected my misinterpretation of the CAPS document and literature. The changes suggested by the members reinforced my data generation methods. Hence I can boldly argue that my interpretation of CAPS and literature was accurate.

4.3.3 Data analysis

My next step after generating data was to make sense of the data generated which process is called data analysis. Data analysis is about taking the data apart in order to determine individual's responses and putting it together to analyse it (Creswell, 2014). Taking data apart is done through coding, categorizing, concept mapping and theme generation (Simons, 2009). Subsequently, I was able to organise and make sense of data so as to produce findings and overall understanding of the case. When analysing data, the researcher uses his own judgement thus making analysis subjective to each researcher. So, analysing data helped me to understand various constitutive elements through inspection of the relationship between concepts, constructs and see if there were any patterns or trends that can be isolated or identified so as to establish themes of the data (Mouton, 20001). Therefore, data analysis provides clear steps the researcher uses in order to come to conclusions with the research.

4.3.3.1 Analysis of CAPS document and literature

After accessing the CAPS document, I studied it thoroughly and identified issues that related to the specialised subject knowledge of School History. These issues were understanding the values of the South African constitution, ensuring that voices of ordinary people are represented, promoting human rights and preparing learners for all sorts of societal responsibility. Furthermore, when reviewing the literature, I identified five key historical concepts that define School History. These concepts were understanding historical time, understanding causes and effects, continuity and change, historical significance and empathy. Lastly, I identified the importance of historical skills, the importance of School History in promoting critical thinking and the understanding and evaluation of past human actions. I scrutinised and identified the above views because they related and addressed the specialised subject knowledge of School History. In summary, after studying CAPS and the literature I identified 12 views that talked to the specialised subject knowledge for history which are the views that appeared on 12 cards that history teachers had to sort.

4.3.3.2 Analysis of card sorting

It should be noted that card sorting occurred in three different stages. It took place after participants wrote their own views on blank cards. It also, happened after I issued participants with cards containing statements from CAPS and literature after presenting these two sets of cards together. The main reason for letting participants rank cards was to understand how they prioritised these issues relating to School History. For this reason, I categorised cards into most important, important and least important cards/views. Therefore, whatever the number of cards ranked, they were categorised into these three categories. In the end, I managed to establish how history teachers ranked cards according to their preferences or importance. In other words, I understood how they prioritised issues that relate to School History.

4.3.3.3 Analysis of the semi-structured interviews

Having interviewed history teachers, I started by transcribing the recordings and developed a written document of what history teachers alluded to. Thereafter, I bracketed and noted those important and relevant points in relation to my phenomenon. I listened to the recording, again, to ensure that I captured data correctly. Having done that, I delineated units that were relevant to my research questions. Afterwards, I wrote a summary of each individual interview. Subsequently, I took the summary back to interviewees in order to for them to check and verify

my transcription and facts. After confirmation from interviewees, I developed a composite summary of all the interviews.

After following procedures as stated above, I was faced with a large amount of data to analyse. In order to analyse data, I used open coding which is about the "disaggregation of the data into units" (Gray, 2009, p. 502). I identified similar information which helped me to form themes for my study. For me to identify similar information, I examined, compared, conceptualised and categorised data I developed (Cohen et al., 2011). Flick, (2014) states that open coding aims at developing substantial codes describing, naming, or classifying the phenomenon under study. Furthermore, the main goal of open coding is to break down and understand a text and, attach and develop categories and put categories in order. For this reason, open coding worked in my favour since I managed to make meaning of the data I generated. Having identified and coded data, I adopted a thematic analysis method which I elaborate on below.

Thematic data analysis is a method for identifying and analysing patterns of meaning to illustrate themes that are important in the description of the phenomenon under study (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Liñán & Fayolle, 2015). Therefore, the researcher must examine data thoroughly in order to identify themes that inform the study. If the researcher cannot identify appropriate themes the findings and conclusion will not address or relate to the topic under scrutiny. Furthermore, thematic analysis enables the researcher to interpret various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998). In other words, thematic analysis enables the researcher to organise repeating ideas that answer the research questions (Vaismoradi et al., 2016). In order to identify themes, I carefully read and re-read data (Rice & Ezzy, 1999; Esmaeili et al., 2013). The reason I read data several times was to ensure that themes I identify were the correct themes that underpin views of South African history teachers. Therefore, since this study was about interpretation of views in order to understand views of history teachers, thematic data analysis was the most appropriate method.

Thematic analysis was appropriate for this study because it allowed me to determine relationships between concepts and compare these concepts with replicated data (Alhojailan, 2012). Using thematic analysis allowed me to establish concepts that informed themes for this study and also related to data generated. Since this study aimed at describing key issues (Esmaeili et al., 2013) of history teachers, thematic analysis was appropriate. Additionally, thematic analysis enabled me to develop categories of themes for analysis (Fereday & Muir-

Cochrane, 2006) and made it easy for the identification and development of themes that were very important and relevant to the research questions, purpose and focus of the study.

In order to identify themes from data I generated with the help of history teachers through interviews, I used the following steps. I transcribed data and noted issues that surfaced from what history teachers said. Afterwards, I listened to the tape several times comparing what was on the tape with my transcription. Thereafter, I read the transcriptions with an aim of developing understanding of what was entailed in each and every transcript. In other words, I scrutinised data in order to understand meaning through crystallisation and condensing data from participants. Having done that, I conducted member checking whereby I took the transcript to participants and asked them to check and verify if I transcribed what they said correctly. Thereafter, bearing research questions in mind, I identified units that were in line with research questions, purpose and focus of the study and classified data into themes. My penultimate step was to write a summary of themes for each participant. Lastly, I identified all the central and common patterns that surfaced from each transcript thus forming themes for this study. Therefore, in the end two major themes emerged that helped me understand views of South African history teachers.

4.4. Ethical issues

Since my study dealt with people, issues of ethics were a serious concern. Issues of ethics have to do with a proper way of conducting research ensuring that no one gets harmed along the way. Ethical issues ensure that the interests of participants are safeguarded in the study (Gibson & Brown, 2009; Hollway & Jefferson, 2013). For this reason, issues of ethics need to be considered in any study and researchers are obliged to adhere to ethical standards. (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Furthermore, ethical issues ascertain that after data have been generated, participants remain unknown or unidentified (Gibson & Brown, 2009; Simons, 2009; De Vos, 2011; Hollway & Jefferson, 2013; Flick, 2014). In order to ascertain that my participants remained unknown, I gave my participants pseudonyms which means that no one can notice who I was referring to in my study.

Also, it is important for any research participant to be aware of what the study is all about and that his/her participation is voluntary, and procedures to be followed during interview are stated categorically (De Vos et al., 2011; Hennink et al., 2011). It was for this reason that I disclosed all the information pertaining to my study in the consent form (appendix A). Before I engaged

my participants, I provided them with the consent form which they read and understood what my study was all about, thereafter they voluntarily signed the consent form as a sign of agreeing to partake in my study.

The higher education institutions have their own code of ethics and relevant boards that review research proposals for the consideration of ethical issues. Similarly, I followed the route outlined by the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) in order to obtain ethical clearance and the approval for my study. I therefore applied for ethical clearance from UKZN before conducting my research in 2014. I received approval to conduct my study in the same year and the ethical clearance was attached to this study (appendix B). Additionally, data should be kept safe so that it is not accessible to irrelevant people but within the researchers' control (Gibson & Brown, 2009; Hennink et al. 2011; Hollway & Jefferson, 2013; Flick, 2014). As a result, my data will be kept in my supervisor's office for a period of five years.

4.5. Trustworthiness of the study

Each and every study should comply with validity and reliability because the study that is not valid and reliable cannot be trusted. However, the use of the concept validity and reliability are generally associated with quantitative research (Merriam, 2009). On the other hand, qualitative researchers have their own specialised concepts that are tantamount to validity and reliability and they ensure rigour in the study. For this reason, Lincoln & Guba (1985) note that credibility corresponds with internal validity, transferability corresponds with external validity, dependability corresponds with reliability whereas confirmability corresponds with objectivity. These are the criteria that represent the qualitative and quantitative approaches respectively. Since my study is qualitative, I will explain how I addressed trustworthiness through the use of its four criteria i.e. credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

4.5.1. Credibility of the study.

Credibility is about the researcher giving a clear explanation of how he/she interpreted data and why his/her interpretation should be trusted. Also, credibility elaborates on the reasons informing the believability of the results of the research. Hence, Cohen et al. (2011) argue that if the research is not credible then it is worthless. Credibility deals with the link between research findings and what is actually contained in the data (Merriam, 2009). Furthermore, credibility can be addressed by ensuring that the question content concentrates on the research questions (Gray, 2009). Therefore, it is the responsibility of the researcher to demonstrate that

his interpretation of the research phenomena is supported by data. I did my best to ensure the credibility in this study.

One of the strategies that I used to ensure credibility was triangulation. Triangulation is the process whereby the researcher uses more than one method during data generation. Mason (2002) argues that if one measures the same phenomenon from different positions he/she should get an accurate understanding. This argument of Mason is complemented by Thomas (2013, p.146) when he says "viewing from several points is better than from one". Therefore, as I indicated in 4.6., I used card sorting, interviews and document analysis. These research methods helped me to have a thick description and in-depth understanding of the views of South African teachers which was my phenomenon. This thick description and in-depth understanding ensured that the fullness and essence of the study were achieved (Rule & John, 2011).

Another strategy for ensuring credibility was the technique called member checking, or respondent validation. This strategy is about confirming data with participants who were involved in the study during the data generation period (Koch, 1993; Merriam, 2009). After transcribing interviews, I took scripts that I transcribed to each participant. I asked them to read to ensure that the data captured was correct and in agreement with what they said. I asked them to indicate areas of concern, if any. Fortunately, they agreed with my transcription. I therefore, asked them to sign the script or the hard copy as a proof that they approved my transcription. I left each of them with own copy since I prepared two copies for each participant. This implies that I took the signed copy along and left the other ones with participants. For this reason, I can declare that my study was credible because I dealt with what the participants said without any biasness or prejudice.

When I generated data, I used an audio-recording device to record interviews (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). If I had only jotted down points or notes during interview, I would have committed mistakes. However, the use of a recording device helped me to produce a transcript that is accurate and as per the participants' views.

Not only did I keep an organised file which was available for an audit trail and could provide the evidential basis for my claims in the study but I also kept all my research notes (Rule & John, 2011). The organised file and notes were also sufficient to provide support of my

utterances after data generation. Furthermore, interpretation was confirmed and ensured credible by my two colleagues who are mentioned in 4.2. These colleagues checked my interpretation of data and conclusions which I drew (Rule & John, 2011).

Before I generated data, I piloted my study with post-graduate history and Social Sciences education students at the UKZN, Edgewood campus. During the pilot, I obtained constructive criticisms, suggestions and guidelines which were mainly focussed on reinforcing data generation methods. One of the comments was based on the statements that I wrote on cards. Their evaluation of these statements was that some had the same meaning and consequently, I had to revisit these statements and rephrased them. Another one was about asking questions in a manner that is not leading the interviewee to an obvious and short answer. So, the pilot of the study helped me a lot as I was able to realise the strengths and flaws of my methods. This pilot exercise aided me to model my methods accordingly before beginning with data generation. Furthermore, the comments from the pilot team ensured that my methods were appropriate and good for generating the quality data.

Additionally, I attended the Training Workshop for Doctoral students held at the University of Stellenbosch in September 2015. During this workshop I had an opportunity to verify the appropriateness of my methods through the consultation with presenters who were experts in research. I also obtained guidance from the presenters pertaining to my data generation and analysis methods. Consequently, I managed to model my methods again in order to generate the quality data that would address the research questions.

Lastly, I presented papers based on my study at a number of local, national and international conferences. I started with presenting in the African Association for History Education (AHE-Afrika) conference held at the Blue Waters Hotel organised by the University of KwaZulu-Natal in December 2015. Thereafter, I presented during the EMASA conference held at Cape Town in August 2016. I also presented during the SASE conference hosted by the University of Zululand held at Richards Bay in 2016. Furthermore, I presented during the local conference organised by the University of Zululand held at Richards Bay in 2016 for postgraduate students. Lastly, I presented during an international SASE conference held in Botswana in 2017. During these presentations, attendees critiqued and suggested concerns which were meant to ameliorate the quality of my study. The comments from the attendees of the conferences helped me improve my methods of data generation and address aspects that I had overlooked. Most

importantly, attendees approved my data generation methods. Therefore, the main intention for my study to undergo all these stages and scrutiny was to ensure the credibility of the study.

4.5.2. Transferability of the study

Transferability is equivalent to both external validity and generalizability in quantitative research. Transferability is about transferring the findings from a specific situation or context to another (Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; De Vos et al., 2011). Somekh & Lewin (2011) provide more clarity on transferability by affirming that it is about declaring that the same effect or findings for a particular sample can be found in other contexts. However, it is impossible to generalise the findings in qualitative research (Merriam, 2009; Byrne & Ragin, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011) because the findings in qualitative research are contextual and of a small scale. Also, the features of qualitative research that define research designs limit generalizability of findings (Gerring, 2012). As a result, Flick (2014) claims that findings in qualitative research are made for a certain context thus allowing a specific expressiveness.

While generalising findings in qualitative research is not feasible, Lincoln & Guba (1985), Merriam (2009) and Babbie & Mouton (2001) argue that only the readers or users can generalise the findings but not the researcher. However, the responsibility of the researcher in enabling the generalizability can be to give clear and enough information that enables the reader to make comparisons with other settings. It is for this reason that I gave a clear thick description of the context for my study in chapter one. I also elaborated more on the criteria followed when selecting a sample in this chapter, section 4.5. Therefore, knowing the context of my study as well as the criteria for sampling, anyone who wishes to generalise findings for this study will find it possible.

4.5.3. Dependability of the study

The quantitative researchers argue that the study should be reliable. Contrary to this, qualitative researchers stress the need for dependability, which is tantamount to reliability, in each and every qualitative study. Dependability is about acknowledging that the methods used in a particular study for data generation can be applied in another study at a different context and produce good findings (Silvermann, 2000; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Byrne & Ragin, 2009; Merriam, 2009; Flick, 2014). In order to ensure dependability, De Vos et al. (2011) recommend that the research process should be logical, well documented and audited. Yin (2003) and Kumar (2014) also bolster the afore-mentioned idea by suggesting that the researchers should

document the procedures of their case studies and document as many steps as possible. It was for this reason that I documented and explained steps I used when analysing data in section 4.7. In addition to documentation, Flick (2014) argues that the quality of recording becomes a central basis for assessing dependability and the succeeding interpretations. The more the recordings are of a good quality, the more researchers can believe in the methods employed in a particular study. I used a good recording device, hence I managed to obtain good findings in the end.

One of the ways I employed to ensure dependability was to train my participants before the interviews started. As I stated in section 4.7., of this chapter, I held a meeting with participants in order to clear everything that seemed vague or unclear. I also used an audit trail whereby I detailed how I collected and analysed data which is fully covered in section 4.8. of this chapter. Furthermore, I used triangulation which is explained in section 4.9.1. and also how I came to the conclusion. Additionally, I recorded and kept a record of data generation methods and procedures. Therefore, a clear audit trail gives confidence to the reader that he/she can depend on the methods used in each study.

4.5.4. Confirmability of the study

While on one hand the quantitative researchers argue for the objectivity of the research, on the other hand qualitative researchers claim that each study should be confirmable. The qualitative researchers argue that if the study is confirmable it means the findings can be confirmed by other researchers using the same methods (Lincoln & Guba 1999; Trochim & Donnelly, 2007; Emmel, 2013; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In reinforcing the afore-mentioned point, Somekh & Lewin (2011) argue that confirmability helps to prevent undependable results due to the methods used by the researcher. On the other hand, Babbie and Mouton (2001) affirm that the findings of the research should be the product of the focus of the inquiry and not the biases of the researcher. If the findings are not subjective but objective, it is easy and possible that they are confirmable by other researchers. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the researcher to refrain from bias in order to ensure the confirmability of the findings.

Mouton (2001) proposes a means of maintaining and ensuring confirmability in the study. According to Mouton, researchers should adhere to the highest technical standard when conducting their research. One of these standards is the ability to indicate limitations to the findings and methodological constraints. As a result, I fully discussed limitations to my study

in the following section i.e. 4.10. Hence it is clear from my limitations what my study intended to do and what it did not intend to do. The limitations to my study were meant to be transparent thus encapsulating enough details for the reader to check if they would have reached the same conclusion if they used the same methods (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

In the previous subsections I expounded on my attempts to ensure the trustworthiness of the enquiry. I can therefore declare that I achieved trustworthiness by ensuring that the findings were credible, transferable, dependable and confirmable.

4.6 Methodological limitations

Limitations are an explanation of how the researcher employed data generation methods when generating data. Limitations are also about stating clearly what the researcher is responsible for and what the researcher is not responsible for in the study. Kumar (2014, p.273) refers to limitations as a "structural problems relating to methodological aspects of the study". It is crucial for the researcher to state beforehand problems or issues that might influence results of the study. For this reason, my study had its own limitations that guided it.

My first limitation was that methodology was a single case study and case study does not allow a generalisation of findings. Therefore, findings in this study were only meant for King Cetshwayo district where the study was conducted. Secondly, methods used could also limit my study. It is possible that participants felt uneasy with writing on cards for various reasons, for example, maybe they did not like writing or they doubted their level of command of English. It is also possible that they reserved themselves as they were not sure whether they can be implicated with what they wrote or not. Therefore, it is possible that answers that participants gave might have not been a true reflection of what history teachers had in their minds.

Thirdly, my sample might not have been relevant and even sufficient enough to give me enough, relevant and quality data. It is possible that some or even all participants were participating for the first time in a research study more especially in an interview pertaining to the subject of their specialisation and consequently, history teachers might have found it difficult during interviews. The experience or inexperience of participants may have limited data for this study. Furthermore, some participants may have not been able to express themselves well during interviews or unable to give quality responses which also may limit my study. Hence, they could not give quality responses because of interview phobia. However, the participants were allowed to code mix during interviews.

My fourth limitation is that maybe my analysis of the CAPS document was not totally accurate. I might have misinterpreted and or misrepresented facts of the CAPS document. My immaturity as a researcher may have played its role thus affecting my analysis. It might happen that the way I asked questions was not appropriate or did not help obtain quality data. Also, my fifth limitation related to my selection of a rural area as a context is that my selection of School History teachers from a rural area may have hindered obtaining quality data.

My interviews took more than 1h30 minutes which also may have affected responses from participants because participants may have been exhausted by the exercise. Some of them looked drained during the last or third part of card sorting and interview. However, they managed to respond to my questions. Some of them asked for breaks so as to freshen themselves and I gave them in order to make them comfortable enough and give good answers. My seventh limitation was that some participants gave short answers and failed to elaborate sufficiently on their points or responses. Some even failed to elaborate or clarify even during follow-up interviews. Hence I had to assume what they were trying to say.

Therefore, these are limitations that need to be borne in mind when engaging with this study since they may have shaped the study positively or negatively. Over and above, these limitations also state how I established findings for this study.

4.7 Conclusion

The focus of this chapter was on research design and methodology that made data generation possible and successful. I started by clarifying concepts research design and methodology and thereafter, I discussed qualitative research as an approach for this study. I went further explaining how relevant and appropriate the qualitative research approach was in relation to the topic under scrutiny. In further elaboration on the research design I fully explained and discussed the research paradigm in this chapter. When putting clarity on the importance and relevance of interpretivism as a research paradigm, I explained why it was apt for interpretivism to be used in this study. Having addressed the research paradigm, I subsequently looked at the role of ontological and epistemological assumptions in shaping the study. Consequently, I fully discussed how ontological and epistemological assumptions were taken into consideration in this study. In concluding the research design, I also elaborated on the research sample that was used in this study.

Having done and clarified research design, I also engaged in great depth in elucidating research methodology as applicable in this study. I started by indicating methodology for this study which was case study. I explained what case study was and how appropriate it was for this study. Thereafter, I discussed in detail methods that I used for data generation. It was at this time that I elaborated on card sorting, document analysis and interviews as I used them to generate data. I indicated and discussed the importance and relevance of these methods for my study. After I generated data, I used thematic analysis in order to analyse it. I also described thematic analysis and explained why I used it in this study. Taking into account that each study should take care of ethical issues, I explained in this chapter how issues of ethics were ensured and considered.

It is the responsibility for each and every researcher to ascertain that the study is trustworthy. In doing this, I discussed how I interpreted data and why my interpretation should be trusted. I did all this to prove the credibility of this study. Furthermore, I gave a clear indication about issues of transferability. I argued that while findings can be transferred for this study findings cannot be generalised since this study is qualitative. In order to ensure trustworthiness, I also explained that one can depend on methods that were used for data generation effectively and successfully. In other words, even the methods that I used can be trusted. Lastly, I described that findings for this study can be confirmed by any other researcher using the very same methods. For this reason, I frankly argued that my study is trustworthy. The last part of this study was a clear explanation of what this study intended to undertake and what it did not undertake. In other words, I dealt clearly with limitations of the study. So, having generated data using methods as explained in this chapter, the following step was to analyse data. Therefore, the following chapter addresses how I analysed data for this study.

CHAPTER 5 THE VIEWS OF HISTORY TEACHERS ON SCHOOL HISTORY AS SPECIALISED SCHOOL SUBJECT

5.1. Introduction

This chapter consists of the views of the seven School History teachers who participated in this study. These were the history teachers who met the sampling prerequisites that I set as a researcher. The sampling prerequisites were that history teachers should come from rural areas around the King Cetshwayo district, should hold a professional teaching qualification and should be teaching at FET phase i.e. they were teaching Grades 10-12. Lastly, they should have been teaching for more than five years thus having experience in history teaching. Fortunately, I managed to find teachers who had been teaching for more than 20 years thus holding an extensive experience in teaching history. These were history educators who had witnessed a number of curriculum changes from Outcome-Based Education (OBE), NCS, and CAPS. Based on their experience it was therefore not surprising to find that five of these history educators were Heads of Department (HODs). Since most of the history teachers at King Cetshwayo District were males it was difficult to balance gender. Consequently, I ended up interviewing six male and one female history educators.

The participants in this study were Zanele who taught at Manzamnyama High School; Sizwe who taught at Mankunzana High School; Sipho who taught at Sihuzu High School; Siyanda who taught at Obisane High School; Joseph who taught at Jozini High School; Bethel who taught at Esikhawini High School and Jonathan who taught at Phathane High School. As per my ethical clearance I have used pseudonyms for the schools and the teachers. The views for these history educators were threefold. Firstly, they had their own views that they had in their minds about School History. Secondly, they had views that they shared when sorting the views/cards emanating from the literature and CAPS document. Thirdly, they had views that emerged when bringing their own views and those from the literature and CAPS together and sorting them. Each time they ranked views/cards they had to explain the reasons for ranking them the way that they did which is how they shared their views on School History as specialized subject knowledge. Therefore, each participant had his/her own views about School History as specialized subject knowledge. The views of the participating history teachers are outlined and discussed below.

5.2. The views of history teachers and their ranking order

I explained in chapter four, that I issued participants i.e. School History teachers, with blank cards and asked them to write their personal/own views about School History as specialised subject knowledge. Thereafter, I issued them with cards containing views from literature and CAPS about the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. Lastly, I brought together their own views and views from literature and CAPS and asked participants to rank them. After each and every ranking order, participants had to explain their ranking order through interviews. To ease the analysis process, I categorised their rankings into most important, important and least important views/categories. This implies that in the case of 14 views to be ranked, views number 1-5 were regarded the most important, views number 6-10 were regarded as important whereas views number 11-14 were regarded as the least important. In the case of 13 views, views number 1-5 were the most important, views number 6-9 important and views number 10-13 the least important. When history teachers were expected to rank 12 views, views number 1-4 were the most important, views number 5-8 important whereas views number 9-12 were the least important. In the case of 10 views, views number 1-4 were the most important, views number 5-7 important and views number 8-10 were the least important. Subsequently, the section below discusses how participants ranked the views, motivated their ranking through interviews and how I categorised views.

5.2.1. Zanele's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

5.2.1.1. Zanele's own views on history as a specialized school subject

I issued my participants with blank cards and asked them to write their own views on School History as specialised School Subject. Thereafter, I asked them to rank their cards with views according to their manner of importance in a descending order. Having done that, the views of Zanele revealed different understandings. One of these was common knowledge about identity in terms of family history, national and international history. Zanele submitted that learners identify themselves as either "Zulus or Indians or Whites or Coloureds" due to the common knowledge they acquired in School History. Also, Zanele posited that School History enlightens learners about contemporary political and societal knowledge. In addition to the views above, Zanele claimed that learners acquire, by studying School History, historical knowledge about heroes and heroines who successfully fought for different countries.

In addition to common and political knowledge, Zanele states that learners become aware of the mistakes of historical actors and argued that learners learn to avoid mistakes similar to those committed in the past. Consequently, learners can learn to avoid mistakes of historical actors. Besides learning about past mistakes, Zanele stressed that learners acquire political knowledge about leadership styles, and more specifically good (democratic) and bad (autocratic) leadership styles. She explained that when learners become leaders in the future they will know which leadership style is appropriate. For example, learners learn, amongst other things, that communication and Ubuntu constitute a good leader. Zanele also claimed that School History can assist learners with employment because School History exposes learners to different careers they can pursue. Zanele went on to claim that "learners learn to choose correctly because they know when they will need School History in their future endeavours". Consequently, School History helps learners to understand where they fit in the world of careers.

It is clear that Zanele had strong and positive personal views on School History. These positive personal views were based on common and political knowledge related to identity and how to function in the contemporary world, learning from history, how to lead and the provision of employment opportunities.

5.2.1.2. Zanele's views in relation to the literature and CAPS

Having obtained own views held by participants on School History as a specialised school subject, they were all now confronted by the views as gleaned from the literature and the CAPS on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge document (refer to appendix C). Their task, as per the described methodology, was to arrange, rank or sort 12 cards with 12 views that I issued them with in a descending order with the idea/view they regarded as the most important coming first and the least important being the last. I categorised these 12 views into three categories. I categorised the views ranked from one to four as the most important views, those from five to eight as important views and views from nine to 12 as least important. However, participants were under no obligation to use all the cards. They were free to relegate, omit or disregard cards they deemed irrelevant for their ranking order. However, it was expected of participants to justify the order in which they organised cards with ideas on School History as specialised subject knowledge. This was the instruction given to all seven history teachers and they were expected to follow. During this card sorting, Zanele did not omit any of the 12 cards but instead she used all of them. Below, I discuss the manner in which Zanele ranked the cards

Table 5.2.1.2.: Zanele's ranking of views in relation to the literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
2.	Historical significance.	Most important
3.	Causes and effects.	Most important
4.	Understanding values.	Most important
5.	Historical time.	Important
6.	Voices of ordinary people.	Important
7.	Continuity and change.	Important
8.	Critical way of thinking.	Important
9.	Societal responsibility.	Least important
10.	Promoting human rights.	Least important
11.	Historical skills.	Least important
12.	Empathy.	Least important

Table (5.2.1.2.) above shows the manner in which Zanele, after a thorough consideration and scrutiny, ranked the provided cards on School History as a specialised school subject. According to Zanele, past human actions were in her view the most important idea since human actions exposed learners to actions that historical actors were involved with in the past. This exposure enables learners to assess, analyse and evaluate these actions so that they learn from them. Consequently, if past human actions were positive, learners can use them positively on a daily basis. On the contrary, if past human actions were negative, learners can avoid taking such actions in their lives. Thereafter, Zanele ranked historical significance. Zanele argued that as learners study School History, they learn about significant aspects that will impact on their lives when they are adults therefore historically significant aspects enable learners to compare and understand contemporary history and the past.

Zanele ranked causes and effects as number three in the ranking arguing that studying causes and effects makes history learners know that each and every action they take has a consequence. Therefore, the onus lies with the learner and his/her personality whether he/she wants to take positive actions that lead to good consequences or not. However, learners have to strive to behave well and make informed decisions which do not have bad or negative consequences. In other words, Zanele claimed that knowing causes and effects helps learners to channel their

behaviour. Zanele ranked understanding values in the fourth position because in her view, amongst other things, learners study about the constitution which encapsulates certain democratic values which are the cornerstone for a society.

Zanele ranked historical time in the fifth position of her rankings. She argued that the awareness of historical time can make learners relate with when and in what context particular events took place. In other words, learners can relate events with time as well as manage time in their daily activities. Subsequent to historical time, Zanele ranked the idea of the voices of ordinary people in the sixth position. School History, in her view, entails a political value since it enlightens people about equal rights for all citizens. In other words, School History instils democratic values one of which is that everybody should air his/her views and be listened to. Zanele's argument was that School History touches base with one of the clauses of the constitution of Republic of South Africa relating to the freedom of speech for all citizens. Therefore, learners develop understanding of how to raise issues of concern amicably with the hope that they will be listened to.

In the seventh position, Zanele ranked the concepts related to continuity and change. She explained that learners should know how changes occurred since the development of the country is measured by transformations and progressions that have taken place. For learners to understand how their country has developed, they need to discover the changes that have unfolded from ancient times to date. Continuity and change was followed by critical way of thinking. Zanele submitted that School History promotes and develops critical ways of thinking in learners. She explained, "The fact that I spoke about causes and effects earlier, shows that for learners to understand causes and effects learners should think critically. In other words, learners need not to take issues at a face value but look at issues critically."

Ranked from 9-12 were the ideas that Zanele regarded as the least important. Ninth was societal responsibility. Zanele posited that School History furnishes learners with responsibilities they should take as citizens in the society and country at large. Therefore, learners should know that they have responsibilities and some of these are encompassed by history. As a result, learners will know by means of studying history what is acceptable in the society in which they live. The second least important view Zanele held was human rights. The argument of Zanele was that learners' awareness of human rights helps learners not to violate rights of others but live in harmony whilst treating others with dignity. However, Zanele's argument about human

rights coincides with her earlier argument about democracy and its importance. She applauded democracy for its role in perpetuating equal rights of which human rights are part. Having done that, she now ranked human rights as the least important view. This conflict creates a doubt on her position. Clearly, although arguing plausibly for human rights it was not taken seriously as a key component of School History.

The least important aspects of School History as a specialised subject according to Zanele related to the concepts of historical skills and empathy. It is notable that for Zanele School History equips learners with necessary skills that they might need in life. She made reference to analysis and identifying. The positioning of historical skills as per Zanele shows that she believes that School History is a memory discipline subject otherwise she would have ranked it higher than this position. However, it is notable that Zanele had positive remarks about historical skills. On the contrary, it was unclear why she put this skill at this least important position. This ranking shows that the manner she viewed historical skills coincides with the position at which she ranked it.

The last least important view for Zanele pertains to empathy. The argument of Zanele was that if learners have a capacity to analyse and evaluate, they can understand reasons that made historical actors react the way they did when confronted with particular conditions. In other words, empathy encourages multi-perspectives. The positioning of empathy, as least important, shows those multi-perspectives as part of School History are not important, according to Zanele. Therefore, one wonders if she would encourage different perspectives when she conducts her lessons.

Working with the provided cards, Zanele used them to paint a certain epistemological picture of how she viewed School History. It is notable that no ideas from the literature and CAPS were rejected out of hand by Zanele as having less significance. The fact that she did not omit any of the literature and CAPS cards, shows that she felt obliged to engage with all of them. What strongly emerged was that Zanele was certain about the crucial role that past human action, historical significance, causes and effects as well as understanding values play in equipping learners with relevant common and historical knowledge for development. Hence Zanele ranked them as the first four views. It surfaced from the manner and position Zanele ranked the first four views of specialised subject knowledge that School History provides contributes to the development of human kind.

On the contrary, Zanele was less certain about the role that historical time, voices of ordinary people, continuity and change as well as critical thinking play in the lives of learners. Furthermore, Zanele did not hesitate to place societal responsibility, human rights, historical skills and empathy as the least important views. Also, Zanele's declaration of the above least important views suggests that learners have a big role to play in their different societies. For Zanele, School History remained a memory discipline which offers essentially accepted historical knowledge relevant to learners. In other words, she regarded School History as a subject that equips learners with a number of abilities based on the common and historical knowledge learners acquired.

5.2.1.3. Zanele's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS

In the final step to determine the views of history teachers, the personal views, stated (card set 1) were brought together with ideas from CAPS and literature (card set 2). History teachers were asked to sort these two sets together forming one whole thus creating their final views. In short – their personal views on School History as a specialised school subject were brought into conversation with the cards from CAPS and the literature. History teachers were still free to omit views or ideas they regarded as unnecessary or irrelevant during this card sorting. As it was the case with categories on the ranking of views in relation to the literature and CAPS, the views in this section were also categorised into three categories i.e. most important, important, least important so, whatever the number of views to be ranked they were categorised into three categories.

At this stage a picture of the views Zanele held about School History started to emerge. As was done with all the other history teachers, the seven personal views of Zanele were brought together with the pre-existing 12 ideas on the value of School History from CAPS and literature (see table 5.2.1.3.). Simply put Zanele was now confronted by a blend constituting her own ideas and those from the literature and CAPS on School History which she had to make meaning of in a singular manner. She was expected to sort and rank these two sets of cards in a descending manner starting with the most important idea to the least important one. Thereafter, she had to explain or elaborate on the way she sorted or ranked her cards/views. The table below shows how Zanele sorted these two sets of cards together.

Table 5.2.1.3.: Zanele's blended personal, literature and CAPS views on School History as specialised school subject

Ranking	Card Contents	Categories
1.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
2.	Historical significance.	Most important
3.	Understanding values.	Most important
4.	Causes and effects.	Most important
5.	Voices of ordinary people.	Most important
6.	Critical way of thinking.	Important
7.	Continuity and change.	Important
8.	Societal responsibility.	Important
9.	Promoting human rights.	Important
10.	Historical skills.	Important
11.	Historical time.	Least important
12.	Empathy.	Least important
13.	School History teaches learners to be assertive in all spheres	Least important
	of life.	
14.	School History teaches learners to be future leaders.	Least important

It is notable that the above table (5.2.1.3) contains only two personal views of Zanele. This indicates that Zanele omitted four of her personal views completely when confronted with ideas from CAPS and the literature. Zanele started by omitting her own card/view in which she had said that School History gives people historical knowledge about their background and development. Zanele claimed that this view was linked to "School History enables learners to understand and evaluate how past human action affects the present and influences the future". Furthermore, Zanele omitted her card which stated that "School History helps learners look at the past and correct mistakes". According to Zanele, her view emphasized critical analysis thus being linked to historical skills which she ranked 10th. She went on to omit her card/view that School History guides learners to their future careers. According to her this view was very similar to "School History makes learners to be assertive in all the spheres of life". Lastly, Zanele omitted her card about "School History promotes social needs". It is possible that the omission of so many of her cards shows that for the most part she saw her views presented in

a more nuanced manner by other cards. Consequently, she thought her cards could be subsumed.

Zanele's omission of most of her views, as opposed to the literature and CAPS ideas, shows that she becomes less certain of her epistemological position on School History as specialised subject knowledge when confronted with other or more "official" or "expert" ideas. Maybe this lack of certainty emanates from the fact that she was blending her personal ideas with those from the literature and CAPS. However, her views were in her opinion not far-removed from the literature and CAPS ideas such that she managed to relate most of her views with those from literature and CAPS. Most notably, she surrendered her ideas with little resistance to those from literature and CAPS. She ranked her two remaining views at the bottom of her ranking as numbers 13 and 14.

When Zanele brought these two sets of cards together to sort she produced some similarities and changes from the initial sorting of card set 2. For instance, she immediately demoted most of her own views on School History in favour of new ideas from literature and CAPS. This begins to say that her epistemology is versatile enough, though filled with uncertainty when confronted with other ideas, to sacrifice some ideas in order to accommodate other more official ideas. Furthermore, it means that her epistemological position is, at face value, easily influenced by other or new views. However, she still maintained the same views that she regarded as most important during the second sorting. These views were past human actions, historical significance, causes and effects and understanding of values. The keeping of these views as most important was a confirmation that Zanele remained strong on certain aspects of her views. To bolster her epistemological position, Zanele maintained some of the same views that she had initially categorised as important ones. However, this time her important views included societal responsibility which she promoted from the least important ideas. The biggest difference she made was to relegate historical time from the important position of 5th to a least important one of 5th. She never gave any new reasons for this but maybe the only way of concluding her views was through relegating historical time and includes her two personal views at the bottom. In a nutshell, Zanele made very little change when ranking cards during card sort 3 when compared to card sort 2. In other words, she retained very similar views but relegated her own views to the least important positions.

5.2.1.4. Consolidating the views of Zanele

In summary, the views and the manner Zanele ranked her cards shows that she had strong views on School History as specialised school subject. When Zanele presented her views, they encapsulated three major issues which were knowledge, skills and learning mechanism. According to her, School History equips learners with common and political knowledge about different aspects that encapsulate identity at all levels, different racial groups, leadership styles and human values. In addition to common and political knowledge, she argued that learners also develop generic skills like communication, analysis and evaluation. Furthermore, she submitted that School History teaches learners about the mistakes that were committed by historical actors, hence School History is a learning mechanism. Lastly, Zanele alluded to the fact that School History provides professional knowledge that enables learners get employment.

When expected to rank the views from the literature and CAPS, Zanele prioritised with aspects that develop common and historical knowledge for learners. This implies that for her, the common and historical knowledge that she identified and presented with her own views should be prioritised. In other words, School History should prioritise issues that develop common, political and professional knowledge for learners followed by issues that develop general skills. Her views suggest that School History should play a big role in imparting learners with knowledge followed by the development of skills.

When blending card set 1 and 2 together, Zanele maintained the status quo. This implies that as much as she changed the aspects as per card sort 1, she still maintained aspects that inform both common and historical knowledge during this card sorting. In other words, her first five most important views addressed knowledge. These views were followed by a mixture of skills and knowledge but dominated by skills in her important views. The last four views saw balanced aspects of common and historical knowledge and skills. Therefore, it means that Zanele strongly believed that common and historical knowledge should be a priority and be spread across categories so, for her generic and historical skills are not as important as knowledge.

5.2.2. Sizwe's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

5.2.2.1. Sizwe's own views on history as a specialised school subject

After I gave Sizwe the same instructions that I gave Zanele and issued him with blank cards, he explained the following views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. His main view was related to a blend of common, political and historical knowledge. Sizwe stated that learners acquire political knowledge about their background, development and changes that occurred in the past in their societies and country at large. For Sizwe, it was important for learners to have political knowledge of the above mentioned aspects since they would be citizens of their country, South Africa. This political knowledge, although vague in nature, will, in his view, develop learners' self-esteem and awareness about the manner in which people were treated in the past. Therefore, political knowledge would make them patriotic. He also argued that learners' personal background knowledge might contribute to their behaviour because they might behave themselves well so that they do not disappoint their families. Also, Sizwe argued that because they are South Africans, learners should know how transformation from apartheid to democracy happened. With reference to democracy, Sizwe mentioned that learners should learn about democratic values and equal rights. According to Sizwe, learners should have a clear understanding of democracy and its values so as to have a better life than their parents.

Sizwe further argued that not only do learners develop common and historical knowledge in School History as a specialised subject but also freedom of expression. He stressed that School History engages learners with a number of activities that educate them on how to express themselves freely. These activities include group work, debates and discussions. By means of these pedagogically learner-centred activities learners are forced to think and share what they have in their minds about a particular event or activity. In the view of Sizwe besides sharing ideas, learners learn to listen to others. Additionally, he expressed the view that School History prepares learners for Higher Education by sharpening and sharing skills needed at higher education institutions. Over and above the afore-mentioned, Sizwe suggested that School History teaches learners that they are free to voice their concerns as a form of freedom of speech as part of democracy. His argument was that even in real life situations learners should not be ashamed to voice their concerns. Therefore, in the view of Sizwe expressing opinions is one of the features of School History that cannot be compared to other school subjects.

Sizwe had strong and positive views on School History. The fact that he was able to identify and allude to a number of issues pertaining to knowledge, especially as it relates to contemporary political developments, shows how positive he was in his views on the relevance and significance of history. Moreover, he foregrounded democracy, good citizenship and inductive learning as significance aspects of School History.

5.2.2.2. Sizwe's views in relation to the literature and CAPS

Having shared his own views, Sizwe's task was, as per the described methodology, to rank the cards I gave him using the same instructions I gave Zanele. The manner Sizwe ranked the cards is shown and discussed below.

Table 5.2.2.2.: Sizwe's ranking of views in relation to literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card Contents	Categories
1.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
2.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
3.	Historical skills.	Most important
4.	Societal responsibility.	Most important
5.	Promoting human rights.	Important
6.	Historical time.	Important
7.	Voices of ordinary people.	Important
8.	Empathy.	Important
9.	Causes and effects.	Least important
10.	Continuity and change.	Least important
11.	Historical significance.	Least important
12.	Understanding values.	Least important

It is clear from table (5.2.2.2) above that Sizwe did not omit any of the 12 cards I issued him. As was the case with Zanele, Sizwe also declared that his most important view was past human actions. He argued that past human actions made learners understand actions and situations that led to the current situations in different societies. With this argument Sizwe emphasised the interdependence of the past, present and future since actions and situations that occurred in the past determine the present and shape the future. The view that Sizwe held was that if history learners can analyse and evaluate, then they can think critically. For Sizwe, School History

prepared learners to be respectable and competent adults since they will need to analyse and evaluate information when they are grownups. Therefore, if history learners have learnt to analyse and evaluate issues and events in schools they will be able to do that when they are adults.

Sizwe's, third view related to historical skills. He argued that in School History learners learn about the importance of sources and evidence as they learn to support their arguments by providing evidence. His argument was that as learners participate in class debates and group discussions they learn skills to support their arguments. Consequently, they learn to make informed decisions and positive judgements. Sizwe also, submitted that School History prepared learners to be responsible in their societies. Therefore, Sizwe's argument was that it t means that learners should be responsible now that they are still young; they have to start now in preparation for adulthood life.

In the fifth position, Sizwe ranked human rights. In explaining his ranking Sizwe mentioned that learners learn about the Truth and Reconciliation Commission in Grade 12 and issues of oppression and apartheid in Grade 11. For him, this was a clear indication of how committed School History is in addressing, amongst other things, racial issues. Therefore, the awareness about human rights issues can, in his view, promote respect for human rights as an important aspect of School History as specialised subject knowledge.

Sizwe placed historical time in the sixth position. He indicated that School History promotes the logical recording of events. He argued that with proper understanding of time learners learn to write logically and record events chronologically. So, with this historical knowledge, learners will place events in the manner they occurred. Subsequent to historical time Sizwe ranked voices of ordinary people. According to Sizwe, history is about important events and people behind those events. The argument of Sizwe was that history is not about prominent people but events that affected human kind. Consequently, he asserted that there are public places that are named after particular known or unknown people. In his ranking of the cards with statements Sizwe placed empathy after the voices of ordinary people. According to Sizwe, empathy promotes and encourages multiple-perspectives since learners do not have to look at events as observers but participants and consequently engage with events of the past through imagination.

Having ranked all the cards indicating his most important Sizwe had to determine which views he regarded as least important. The first of these views was causes and effects. Sizwe argued that learners will learn about the precipitating factors which led to certain events. Thereafter, learners will analyse and evaluate these factors against consequences. If they have a clear understanding of consequences learners will always consider the causes. The second least important view was continuity and change. According to Sizwe, School History is about leadership. His argument and emphasis was still on the role of knowledge in shaping learners' leadership abilities as well as how changes occurred. He also, asserted that learners should understand that as they grow things will not remain the same but will change and learners should know how changes occur and be prepared for them at all times. The penultimate view was historical significance. The view of Sizwe was that School History is about political systems of government. He argued that School History exposes learners to democracy thus knowing the political system of the government. Furthermore, learners, when they scrutinize the actions of historical actors, are able to judge what ethical and unethical behaviour is. Consequently, learners learn about the good and bad way of doing things. The least important idea held by Sizwe related to the understanding of the values. The view of Sizwe was that School History is about the values that are encompassed in the South African Constitution. His argument was that as learners learn about the Constitution they also learn about values and the Bill of Rights as enshrined in the constitution.

Working with the cards I issued him, Sizwe used them to paint an epistemological picture of how he viewed School History. His point of departure was not to omit any of the 12 cards. The fact that he did not omit any of the literature and CAPS views might mean that these 12 views were part of his epistemology. What strongly emerged from the ranking of Sizwe was that his first four most important views, addressed skills that learners acquire when studying School History. These skills are essential because in his view, they contribute, to learners' preparation for adulthood. Also, the way he understood and elaborated the above concepts, showed that he always related them to "political history" as an aspect of School History.

5.2.2.3. Sizwe's views on blending personal, literature and CAPS

At this stage, like other history teachers, the personal views of Sizwe and his ranking of the pre-existing 12 ideas on the value of School History from the CAPS and literature were brought together (see table 5.2.2.3.). Sizwe was now confronted by a blend constituting his own ideas and those from the literature and CAPS on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

Sizwe's task was to make meaning of these ideas in a singular manner. He was expected to sort and rank these two sets of cards in a descending manner starting with the most important idea to the least important one. Thereafter, he had to explain or elaborate on the way he sorted or ranked his cards/views. The table below shows, clearly, how Sizwe sorted these two sets of cards together.

Table 5.2.2.3.: Sizwe's blended personal views, literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
2.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
3.	Historical skills.	Most important
4.	Societal responsibility.	Most important
5.	School History should address South African and African	Most important
	history first.	
6.	Promoting human rights.	Important
7.	Historical time.	Important
8.	Voices of ordinary people.	Important
9.	Empathy.	Important
10.	Causes and effects.	Important
11.	Continuity and change.	Least important
12.	Historical significance.	Least important
13.	School History offers relevant content	Least important
14.	Understanding values.	Least important

There are two notable issues in table 5.2.2.3. Firstly, Sizwe did not omit any of the 12 cards from literature and CAPS, and secondly, he included his two personal views in his final ranking. Sizwe's inclusion of his personal views shows how convinced he was in having his own views foregrounded. Also, featuring his first personal view in the top four of most important views shows that he had strongly held views. In other words, his epistemology is equally important to the 'official' ideas. At the same time, it can be argued that his epistemology did not necessarily depend on the other official ideas. Though Sizwe ranked his second view as the least important, the fact that he never relinquished it, means that he was not threatened by the views from the literature and CAPS. When it comes to views from literature

and CAPS, Sizwe retained the same rank order he had initially done but only featured his personal views in-between. He merged his own epistemology and the epistemology from literature and CAPS in order to provide a complete epistemological picture of his views.

Furthermore, the way Sizwe presented his epistemology shows that his priority was on the content that would develop skills for history learners. This begins to say that School History is memory discipline of utmost importance for history learners if they were to achieve the skills needed for life. The fact that Sizwe included and emphasised the importance of skills show that, in his view, history learners should also achieve them and not only historical content knowledge. For him, substantive knowledge and skills were equally important for history learners. It is interesting that he ranked ideas that contribute to content knowledge in the middle. This says that, in his view, content knowledge is important but not the backbone of School History. In other words, whether skills are a priority or not history learners should still acquire relevant and apt historical knowledge. Therefore, the picture that Sizwe presented about School History as specialised subject knowledge revealed that School History should strive to sharpen skills but specialized content knowledge should still be treated equally to skills.

5.2.2.4. Consolidating the views of Sizwe

In a nutshell, Sizwe's own views revealed two major themes which were knowledge and skills. His argument was that School History develops common and historical knowledge about learners' personal background, self-esteem and awareness about the manner historical actors were treated in the past. According to him, common knowledge would promote learners' patriotism. Over and above, learners acquire historical knowledge about how their country, South Africa, transformed from apartheid to democracy which amongst other things promotes values and equal rights. Another theme that emerged was general skills about freedom of expression, debate, discussion and raising concerns, amicably.

What emerged from the manner Sizwe ranked views from literature and CAPS was that he strongly believed that School History should promote skills. In other words, School History should prioritise with aspects that might help learners develop their skills. Consequently, the most important category was dominated by aspects that promote generic and historical skills. Even with the important category the dominant aspects were those that promoted both general and historical skills rather than knowledge. This implies that as much as equipping learners

with general and historical skills is the most important common and historical knowledge also, should be promoted through the study of School History. It was not surprising to find Sizwe back grounding three aspects that equip learners with common and historical knowledge as less important.

When confronted by card set 1 and 2, and expected to blend them into a whole, Sizwe maintained almost the same position he adopted earlier. This position was on prioritising with general and historical skills as the most important aspects that should be addressed by School History. This implies that the first category of the most important aspects was dominated by aspects that promote general and historical skills. Most importantly, was that these aspects were critical thinking, historical skills and taking responsibility which were the same skills, he prioritised in his card set 2. Also, in the important category, aspects that promote historical knowledge were balanced with aspects that promote both general and historical skills. The least important category was dominated by aspects that promote both common and historical knowledge. This implies that according to Sizwe, School History should prioritise the promotion of general and historical skills but these skills should be backed by common and historical knowledge acquisition. The position of Sizwe indicates that skills development will manifest itself when learners can apply the common and historical knowledge they acquired.

5.2.3. Sipho's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

5.2.3.1. Sipho's own views on history as specialised school subject

After I gave Sipho the same instructions as Zanele and Sizwe, he only wrote down two views. His first view was that School History is a mechanism to develop and improve the English language communication skills of history learners. He argued that history learners' involvement with debates helped them to develop their English language skills. Sipho's second view was that School History creates awareness and historical knowledge about significant world events. He submitted that this awareness helped history learners to have historical knowledge of how global events unfolded and developed over time. So, Sipho's views were centred on School History as specialised subject knowledge developing English as a communication skill and the understanding of the unfolding of global historical events.

5.2.3.2. Sipho's views in relation to the literature and CAPS

When Sipho was confronted by the views as gleaned from the literature and CAPS document on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge, he produced the following rank order.

Table 5.2.3.2.: Sipho's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
2.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
3.	Continuity and change.	Most important
4.	Empathy.	Most important
5.	Understanding values.	Important
6.	Understanding past human actions.	Important
7.	Historical time.	Important
8.	Causes and effects.	Important
9.	Historical skills.	Least important
10.	Historical significance.	Least important
11.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important
12.	Societal responsibility.	Least important

Table 5.2.3.2. shows the manner Sipho sorted the cards that I issued him. The most notable issue was that he did not omit any of the 12 cards even though he had the liberty to do so. It is possible that he valued and regarded what these cards entailed as important and relevant. So, he used all the views on these cards to paint his own epistemological picture. His first step was to declare the first four most important views related to School History as specialised knowledge. Sipho regarded the critical way of thinking as the most important view hence ranked it number one. His argument was that School History develops the mind of history learners through analysing, cartoons, for example, as historical evidence. This served to develop their thinking. He claimed that history learners' minds cannot develop without learners thinking critically.

The following view according to Sipho, was the promotion of human rights and he ranked it second. He argued that history learners via the subject become aware of human rights. This

awareness can, in his view, help people to curb and avoid the atrocities that took place in the past which were violations of human rights. Sipho thus regarded School History as a vehicle to teach human rights as enshrined in the constitution. Consequently, Sipho stressed that the knowledge history learners obtain will enable them to exercise the skills of observing human rights and avoiding human rights violation. Subsequent to the promotion of human rights, Sipho ranked continuity and change in the third position. His argument was that School History is about how changes occurred, who was responsible for those changes and what the effects of those changes were. In light of this he argued that history learners become aware of the activities that were put in place to effect national and global changes. The key argument of his view was that once history learners have acquired this common knowledge they would be in a position of getting involved with activities that can bring changes in their societies. Ranked at number four was empathy. He posited that School History should promote multiple-perspectives whereby history learners are free to look at issues from different perspectives so as to understand an event. Sipho's argument was that it is important for history learners to think broadly about issues.

According to Sipho, understanding values was an important view hence he ranked it number five in his ranking order. He indicated that history learners develop understanding of values as they study the Constitution as one of the themes in CAPS. Consequently, Sipho claimed that history learners become aware of how to maintain the values enshrined in the Constitution. As a result, Sipho regarded School History as a character building mechanism since history learners can conform to values so that they become good citizens. Another view that Sipho regarded as important, thus placing it at number six, was past human actions. According to Sipho, School History makes history learners aware of the successes and failures of past events. For Sipho, history learners need this common knowledge so that they can conduct themselves accordingly in order to refrain from failures like some of the historical actors.

Sipho furthermore contended that historical time was another important view and hence he ranked it number seven. According to him, historical time promotes and develops an understanding of the chronology of events. He claimed that a good understanding of time will help history learners not to confuse events but will be able to arrange them appropriately as they occurred. Consequently, the historical knowledge about historical time can help history learners a great deal in terms of chronology. The last important idea according to Sipho, ranked number eight, was an understanding of causes and effects. Sipho argued that causes and effects

require individuals to be considerate of their actions. He suggested that this consideration is done to ensure that actions of individuals do not bear bad consequences. Therefore, Sipho kept on fore-grounding the role of common and historical knowledge discipline in the lives of history learners

At the bottom of his ranking, Sipho had what he regarded as the least important views and ranked number nine, were historical skills. According to him, School History is about life skills that history learners need in order to live a better life. In addition to life skills, Sipho affirmed that history learners develop mental capacity through exposure to teaching-learning activities. So, Sipho again affirmed the importance of skills but he did not name these skills and avoided mentioning historical skills. Historical significance was ranked at number 10. The view of Sipho was that School History is about the future. He argued that School History addresses, amongst other things, aspects that impact on history learners' lives. Therefore, for Sipho historical knowledge enlightens history learners about essential issues that shape their future life.

The penultimate idea, ranked number 11, was the voices of ordinary people. This view is, clearly, of limited importance in the views of Sipho. According to him, School History as specialised subject knowledge is about equal representation of citizens and equal acknowledgement of everybody's concerns. He argued that School History encourages people to raise concerns amicably, irrespective of their background and societal class.

According to Sipho, the least important idea was societal responsibility which he ranked number 12. The view of Sipho, as stated numerous times before, was that School History is about the good expectations of members in the society from history learners. He argued that every member of society is expected to perform certain duties and behave in a particular ethical way. As a result, School History exposes history learners to different societal responsibilities and ethical behaviour that are acceptable in the society.

Sipho reiterated the good and positive contributions of these last four views he ranked as least important. One cannot but wonder why he ranked them this way if they had very positive views on them. One of the reasons might be that as much as these views were good and contributing positively to history learners, in terms of comparing them to all the views Sipho had, he saw them as least important. In terms of ranking, Sipho prioritised skills but fore-grounded content

knowledge at the same time. In other words, his position was that skills can hardly be achieved or developed without using content knowledge as a frame of reference. Therefore, Sipho kept on referring to knowledge as a memory discipline that cannot be separated from life skills.

5.2.3.3. Sipho's views on blending personal, literature and CAPS

At the final stage, Sipho was asked to blend his own views together with those from the literature and CAPS on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. Therefore, table 5.4.2. below shows the manner in which he blended views.

Table 5.2.3.3.: Sipho's blended personal, literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	School History helps learners to understand English	Most important
	better.	
2.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
3.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
4.	Continuity and change.	Most important
5.	Empathy.	Most important
6.	Understanding values.	Important
7.	Understanding past human actions.	Important
8.	Historical time.	Important
9.	School History gives insight of national and world events.	Important
10.	Causes and effects.	Important
11.	Historical skills.	Least important
12.	Historical significance.	Least important
13.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important
14.	Societal responsibility.	Least important

Table 5.2.3.3. shows that Sipho included both his views as well as all the views from literature and CAPS. What was more remarkable about his ranking was that he ranked his view about English communication skills as number one or the most important view on School History as specialised subject knowledge. So, according to him, history learners should be well equipped with proper communication skills using English and nothing was comparable to this ability.

He placed his second I view about School History giving insight of national and world events as the important view at number nine. It is very interesting that Sipho was not intimidated by the "official" list, he stood firm in his epistemological beliefs. In other words, he viewed his epistemology as equally important as views from literature and CAPS. Therefore, he was not necessarily willing to let his views give way to other views. Therefore, Sipho's insertion of his views to those from literature and CAPS, was the only change from the initial rank order as indicated in table 5.2.3.3. It means that Sipho strongly believed that all the views from literature and CAPS were appropriate.

5.2.3.4. Consolidating the views of Sipho

In summary, the personal views of Sipho revealed two major themes which were generic skills and knowledge. According to Sipho, School History sharpens the skill of communicating in the English language. In addition to the skill, School History develops historical knowledge about significant historical issues. Therefore, for Sipho School History is an important and relevant subject.

Having identified these two themes through his own views and expected to sort views from the literature and CAPS, Sipho did not prioritise either of the two themes through relevant aspects as screened from literature and CAPS. This implies that he had aspects that promote both common and historical knowledge ranked equally with aspects that develop generic and historical skills in the most important category which means that according to him School History should address these two themes equally. However, in his important category Sipho placed only aspects that promote both common and historical knowledge. The less important category was dominated by aspects that promote and equip learners with generic and historical skills.

When Sipho was tasked to blend card set 1 and 2 together coming up with a single whole, he changed his earlier position shown in card sort 2 where he balanced both themes. When blending these two card sets, his most important category was dominated by aspects and issues that develop generic and historical skills. Whereas an important category was only characterised by aspects that develop both common and historical knowledge. The least important category was dominated by aspects that develop generic and historical skills which begins to say that Sipho strongly believe that School History should prioritise with helping learners achieve skills. However, he did not underestimate the role of knowledge.

Consequently, the category of important aspects consisted only of aspects that inform common and historical knowledge. It also means that Sipho foregrounded skills and back grounded common and historical knowledge. Therefore, according to him, School History should prioritise with developing generic and historical skills followed by development of common and historical knowledge.

5.2.4. Joseph's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

5.2.4.1. Joseph's own views on history as a specialised school subject

After following the instructions, I gave him together with blank cards I issued him, Joseph produced five views. All five views were based and centred on knowledge. He argued that the common and historical knowledge that history learners acquire enables them to be patriotic, good citizens, be aware of leadership and governance systems, understand international relations and political history, and change. His central argument was that School History equips history learners with common knowledge that can enable them to love their country. He indicated that they obtain this common knowledge via specific themes in School History as per the CAPS curriculum that dealt directly with South African history. He did not, however, specify the themes he referred to. But, he went further and argued that these themes furnish history learners with knowledge in relation to their country's historical activities. These themes, in his view were meant to enlighten history learners about particular aspects that related to their country. Therefore, for Joseph School History is about forms of patriotic knowledge since history learners obtain historical knowledge that make it possible for them to love their country.

Furthermore, Joseph argued that School History teaches history learners life skills, acceptance and tolerance. According to him, these were some of the benchmarks for good citizenship. He also, added that School History was about the South African Constitution and its values. His submission was that history learners study the Constitution which entails values and one of the values is tolerance. In his view, history learners via the Constitution can learn to tolerate each other and tolerance is one of the features, of good citizenship. Hence, Joseph argued that School History as specialised subject knowledge is about good citizenship. However, this good citizenship results from the relevant common and historical knowledge that history learners acquired. Joseph posited that School History was about leadership and governance. He further argued that School History deals with political leaders and their leadership styles, amongst other things. He went on to argue that, "many leaders who have become prime ministers or

presidents had interest in history at school in their early stages and examples were Robert Mugabe, Nelson Mandela, Kenneth Kaunda and Hastings Banda to mention but a few". T This was the manner by which School History develops political knowledge. According to Joseph, through School History, history learners can take their space in the political world through governance since they acquired political knowledge. The view of Joseph was that School History as specialised subject knowledge educates history learners to be leaders through exposing them to different leaders, leadership styles and governance.

Joseph also, indicated that School History teaches history learners about highly recognized international organizations such as the United Nations Organisation (UN), African Union (AU), European Union (EU), International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank (WB). These were in his view crucial for the survival of South Africa as a country. Consequently, he argued that if South Africa had to survive in a global world, history learners should be aware of its relations with the international community. According to him, teaching about international relations can help to produce history learners who are globally competitive thus able to take part in international space. But, history learners can only participate in all of this if they have knowledge and understanding of what is happening globally. Therefore, common knowledge about these international organizations is relevant and important for history learners.

Lastly, Joseph argued that history learners study changes in order to understand how their country developed. His argument was that it was important to know about changes since this impacts on the lives of learners. Therefore, learners' understanding about changes can enable them to cope well with changes if they occur.

Joseph had strong, clear and focussed views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. His views proved beyond doubt that School History does play a major role in developing common, historical and political knowledge for the learner. His argument was that School History develops common knowledge that promotes patriotism. Furthermore, learners acquire political knowledge about leadership and governance. In addition, the study about international community and its relations to South Africa equips learners with appropriate and relevant knowledge. Lastly, Sipho argued that learners also develop clear understanding of how changes took place in South Africa and the consequences thereof. So, his emphasis was that without relevant historical knowledge acquisition, history learners cannot be aware of these

relevant aspects. Therefore, Sipho strongly argued that School History develops common, political and historical knowledge for learners.

5.2.4.2. Joseph's views in relation to the literature and CAPS

In the next phase Joseph was confronted by the views as gleaned from the literature and the CAPS document on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. The way he sorted the cards given to him is discussed below.

Table 5.2.4.2.: Joseph's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
2.	Understanding values.	Most important
3.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
4.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
5.	Historical skills.	Important
6.	Empathy.	Important
7.	Causes and effects.	Important
8.	Continuity and change.	Important
9.	Historical significance.	Least important
10.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important
11.	Societal responsibility.	Least important
12.	Historical time.	Least important

Table 5.2.4.2. shows that Joseph did not omit or relegate any of the 12 views gleaned from the literature and CAPS document on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. When ranking these views, he regarded past human actions as most important view and ranked them number one. He argued that past human actions involve analysis and evaluation of the actions of the past, comparing them with the present. As explained by Joseph, it was important for history learners to employ the afore-mentioned skills so that they can understand that everything they do and every step they take will affect their actions for the future either positively or negatively. Furthermore, he argued that the current situation and the state of South Africa can be attributed to past human activities. Therefore, his argument was that the present affects the future.

Subsequent to past human actions, Joseph ranked the understanding of values as number two. According to Joseph, values channel the behaviour and regulate people's lives. His argument was that history learners are taught and encouraged to behave according to values. According to him, when a person observes values well he/she can behave him/herself accordingly since values determine and control what one can and cannot do in relation to fellow citizens. The understanding of what one can and cannot do, can automatically suggest that a person can safeguard actions so as to behave according to stipulated and accepted societal values.

Ranked third was the promotion of human rights. Joseph suggested countries that promote and observe human rights and peace, prosper because their citizens work together cooperatively. As a result, he claimed that observing and understanding human rights can help people live a better life. History learners, in particular, stand a better chance of living a better life, as per the view of Joseph, because through School History, they develop understanding of the meaning and significance of human rights. History learners do not only learn the meaning and importance of human rights but also good and bad things about human rights. These bad things include the violation of human rights and effects thereof. Therefore, history learners become aware of what happens if individual's rights are violated.

In the fourth position, Joseph ranked the critical way of thinking. He suggested that School History, as specialised subject knowledge, encourages history learners to look at issues critically. His argument was that history learners should have an eye for looking at historical events and issues. So, he claimed if history learners can look at historical issues critically, then they can also look at contemporary issues critically. In other words, historical issues prepare learners for current situations.

After declaring the four views he regarded as the most important, Joseph presented another four views he ranked as important. The first of these views ranked number five was historical skills. He argued that School History is about evidence for example. In that case, School History enlightens history learners about the understanding, value and importance of evidence. Joseph pointed out that evidence is one of the requisite skills that history learners need in order to prove an argument in any given circumstance. Consequently, good and clear understanding of evidence can prepare history learners for future activities.

Joseph also submitted empathy as another important view and ranked it number six. His view was that history learners need to exercise their minds and look at different dimensions of a historical event. In other words, history learners should think broadly in order to understand reasons that made historical actors act the way they did when confronted by certain external forces. In succession of empathy, Joseph ranked causes and effects at number seven. His argument was that history learners' understanding of causes and effects can help them avoid mistakes that were committed by historical actors. In other words, history learners must learn from the mistakes of historical actors via School History. At number eight Joseph ranked continuity and change. In the view of Joseph School History contributes to enlightening history learners about changes that occur globally. These are the changes that affect social, political, cultural and economic aspects. Therefore, Joseph argued that it was very important for history learners to acquire understanding of changes and how events progress.

At the bottom of his ranking, Joseph ranked the four views he regarded as least important in School History as specialised subject knowledge. The first of these, ranked number nine, was historical significance. His view was that School History is about significant aspects that shape the lives of history learners. Subsequently, he argued that history learners need to have the historical knowledge of these significant aspects. He also, placed the voices of ordinary people at number 10 and declared them as least important. According to Joseph, School History is about human rights issues, for example protection of minorities, marginalisation and representation. Subsequently, he suggested that the view about the voices of ordinary people take care of these issues which were meant to address the equality of every individual in the society.

The penultimate least important view, ranked number 11 was societal responsibility. Joseph argued that School History is about teaching and knowing responsibilities of individual citizens of the society. Furthermore, he argued that some of the history activities that history learners engage in might enlighten them about responsibilities of citizens of the country, but he did not mention any of these activities. He submitted that history learners learn to assume responsibilities via School History. Ranked at number 12 was the least important view, historical time. According to Joseph, historical time is all about logic. His view was via School History, history learners learn to arrange issues and events in the order in which they unfolded. He stressed that it is important for history learners to understand that things have their own systematic way of how they should occur in life.

Joseph, also had strong views on School History and was certain that it addresses, historical and common knowledge, as a priority. Consequently, his most important views focussed on aspects that develop both common and historical knowledge for history learners. So, for him School History is structured such that it furnishes history learners with proper knowledge appropriate to their lives. Subsequent to that, Joseph ranked aspects that address skills for history. Therefore, even though common and historical knowledge were paramount, skills were also important. At the bottom of his ranking, Joseph decided to balance aspects that address both historical skills and historical knowledge. In other words, his ranking of least important views showed equality in terms of generic and historical skills and common and historical knowledge. This means that for Joseph School History has potential since it addresses common and historical knowledge together with the generic and historical.

5.2.4.3. Joseph's views on blending personal and literature and CAPS

As with the other history teachers who participated in this study, the five personal views of Joseph on School History as specialised subject knowledge were brought into dialogue with the pre-existing 12 ideas from CAPS and literature (see table 5.2.4.3) on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. To put it simply, Joseph was now confronted by a blend constituting his own ideas and those from the literature and CAPS on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. He was to make meaning of these ideas in a singular manner. He was expected to sort and rank these two sets of cards in a descending manner starting with the most important idea to the least important one. Thereafter, he had to explain or elaborate on the way he sorted or ranked his cards/views. The table below shows how Joseph sorted these two sets of cards together.

Table 5.2.4.3.: Joseph's ranking of own views, literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	School History is about good citizenship.	Most important
2.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
3.	School History is about patriotism and background.	Most important
4.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
5.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
6.	Historical skills.	Important
7.	Empathy.	Important
8.	Causes and effects.	Important
9.	Historical significance.	Important
10.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important
11.	Historical time.	Least important
12.	School History is about change.	Least important
13.	School History is about international relations.	Least important

When blending these two sets of cards, Joseph had many changes from the initial way he sorted these cards as shown in table 5.2.4.3. He omitted two of his own views. These views were "School History includes tolerance" and "School History also, addresses leadership and governance". He claimed that the content for these cards was covered by cards from literature and CAPS document but he was never specific about those cards. He also, demoted three cards from literature and CAPS from his previous ranking. These demoted cards were understanding values, continuity and change, and societal responsibility. His argument was that the content for these cards was covered by his views. These were the major changes he made when sorting these two sets of cards.

Having omitted and demoted some cards, Joseph regarded his view about good citizenship as the most important and ranked it number one. He confidently viewed it as the base for School History. For him, nothing was as important as the development of good citizenship through School History. Another remarkable issue was his ranking of his view about patriotism as the most important view equal to the views from literature and CAPS. Though he did not rank it as number one but number three, he still rated it as one of the most important views. In other words, he ranked it superior to the many views from the literature and CAPS. Moreover, the

fact that his two top views were only separated by a single view from literature and CAPS, displays that he was bold and confident enough about his views as it related to School History. He was clearly not shaken when confronted with powerful official views emanating from the literature and CAPS. This served as a clear indication of how strong Joseph believed in his own views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. It also, could mean that no matter what he is confronted with he would stand for what he believed in.

Furthermore, Joseph included two additional views in addition to the ones he ranked as the most important but placed them at the bottom of his ranking as least important. However, the fact that he decided to relegate views from literature and CAPS and replaced them with his views instead, could mean that he had a strong and determined epistemological position which cannot be easily moved or undermined. Additionally, the fact that Joseph replaced views from literature and CAPS with his views and vice-versa shows that his views related to those from the literature and CAPS. Except for the insertion and replacement of views, there were no other changes in the ranking order of Joseph. In other words, the order he came out with in table 5.5.1. remained the same with only demotion and replacement of cards.

5.2.4.4. Consolidating the views of Joseph

In summary, the personal or own views of Joseph revealed one major theme; which was knowledge. His argument was that School History is all and mostly about common and political knowledge. He claimed that through School History learners become patriotic and good citizens. Moreover, they learn about leadership as well as governance systems and issues and also, receive exposure on international relations and political history. Therefore, these were all the aspects that Joseph felt provide and equip learners with common and political knowledge.

When Joseph was expected to rank 12 views from literature and CAPS on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge, he prioritised with aspects that promote common knowledge. This implies that his most important category was dominated by aspects that develop common knowledge. This was in line with his own views on School History which were about the promotion of common knowledge. His important views category constituted balanced aspects that develop both historical knowledge and historical skills. In his least important category, Joseph also had balanced aspects that develop both common and historical knowledge and historical skills.

When Joseph blended the card sets 1 and 2, he still prioritised with common and historical knowledge. For example, in the most important views category, aspects that develop common knowledge were outstandingly dominant. He had four of them and only one for generic skills. This was still emphasising what he did in card sets 1 and 2. Also, when categorising important views, aspects that address both historical knowledge and historical skills were balanced. On the bottom as well, the least important category was dominated by aspects that develop both historical and common knowledge so, the fact that even though he had liberty to omit cards, he did not omit those that support skills, which means that he still saw the need of skills development. Therefore, according to Joseph School History should address common and historical knowledge as a priority, thereafter historical and generic skills. This implies that for Joseph nothing can replace the importance of knowledge that learners acquire as they study School History.

5.2.5. Siyanda's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

5.2.5.1. Siyanda's own views on history as a specialised school subject

Having been issued with blank cards to write his views on School History, Siyanda proposed three own views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. His views were based on knowledge and skills. He first and foremost advocated for historical knowledge when he claimed that every learner should have knowledge of history. He therefore suggested that School History should be made compulsory. His argument was that School History is about, family background, amongst other things and everybody should know their family background. If learners know their background, they will know where they come from. Additionally, Siyanda argued that School History gives historical knowledge about national history. His argument was that School History develops historical knowledge of what happened in a community. Therefore, there were two aspects of historical knowledge which contributed to the enhancement of history learners.

Not only did Siyanda argue that School History develops historical knowledge, but he also suggested that it develops generic skills. The skill he referred to was English language communication. His view was that history learners enrich their English language vocabulary, through School History. His argument was that history learners are introduced to new concepts and terms on a daily basis thus enriching their vocabulary. As a result, history learners improve their language communication skill.

Another skill Siyanda referred to was independent thinking. He argued that while history learners study School History, they get involved with different teaching-learning activities. These activities, for example, are meant to promote independent thinking whereby history learners can think on their own without guidance from teachers. However, he did not specify any of these teaching-learning activities.

Siyanda managed to argue and suggest that School History equips learners with historical knowledge and generic skills related to linguistic skills and independent thinking. Therefore, Siyanda's argument was that School History is very important and has potential to develop history learners in terms of historical knowledge and generic skills.

5.2.5.2. Siyanda's views in relation to the literature and CAPS

Siyanda was subsequently confronted by the views as gleaned from the literature and the CAPS document on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. His task was to rank the cards I gave him as per the described methodology. The table 5.2.5.2. below, shows how Siyanda ranked these cards.

Table 5.2.5.2.: Siyanda's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
2.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
3.	Understanding values.	Most important
4.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
5.	Historical skills.	Important
6.	Historical significance.	Important
7.	Causes and effects.	Important
8.	Continuity and change.	Important
9.	Empathy.	Least important
10.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important
11.	Societal responsibility.	Least important
12.	Historical time.	Least important

Table 5.2.5.2. shows that Siyanda ranked all the 12 views from the literature and CAPS on School History as specialised subject knowledge. When sorting the provided cards, Siyanda ranked a critical way of thinking as the most important view and placed it as number one. He argued that School History encourages free thinking and expression. He also, suggested that, for example, source-based activities and cartoons that history learners engage with, contribute to free thinking and expression because history learners are expected to express their own views to substantiate their arguments. Siyanda ranked past human actions as the most important view at number two. His view was that School History is about good and bad actions of the past and people who were responsible for those actions. Therefore, School History alerts history learners not to find themselves in the same "bad" situation like some historical actors. In other words, history learners should learn from past human actions so that they do not repeat the same mistakes committed by certain historical actors.

Siyanda ranked the understanding of values in the third position. His emphasis was on the importance and the role of the South African Constitution for history learners in terms of values. Therefore, he argued that history learners should study the Constitution via School History, thus becoming well versed in the values that are enshrined in the Constitution. The fourth most important view was the promotion of human rights. Siyanda submitted that School History encourages and promotes respect for human rights as part of specialised subject knowledge. His argument was "we are all human beings so the principle of equality should apply to all irrespectively". To bolster his argument on the impact of human rights, he suggested, "there are themes in the School History curriculum that deal with Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC)". According to him, this theme helps history learners understand how human rights were violated and the effects thereof.

The 5th idea held by Siyanda related to historical skills. He argued that history learners develop skills of debating, thinking broadly and analysing. His argument was that history learners develop these skills via teaching-learning activities like debates and group discussions. Subsequent to historical skills, Siyanda ranked historical significance as the next view. He referred to School History as a learning mechanism that enables history learners not to repeat the mistakes of the past but rather learn from them. Therefore, for Siyanda learning from the significant aspects of the past could have a good impact on history learners.

Siyanda ranked causes and effects in the seventh position. According to him, causes and effects enforced good behaviour in history learners since, due to analysing causes and effects, they learn to model their behaviour accordingly so that they do not suffer bad consequences from their own actions they took. So, history learners learn to be considerate of their actions in relation to consequences. Ranked number eight was continuity and change. Siyanda argued that history learners learn about progression or continuity of events thus learning how events unfold from one event to another. This awareness about how events unfold can make history learners understand how changes occur thus being able to develop a chronology of events.

The last four views, regarded as least important by Siyanda were the following. The first of these views, ranked number nine was empathy. He argued that empathising can help history learners condone or condemn the actions of the historical actors. In other words, history learners can learn to employ diverse perspectives when confronted by situations in their daily lives. This was followed at number ten by the voices of ordinary people. Siyanda argued that School History is about equal representation and raising concerns in a proper way. According to Siyanda, School History addresses equality, for example, thus equal representation of citizens. He also, suggested that history learners engage with historical activities whereby they witness the ethical way of raising concerns thus learning how to raise concerns.

The penultimate view related to societal responsibility and was placed at number 11. Siyanda claimed that history learners learn about leaders and their responsible actions, amongst other things. Consequently, history learners can learn to identify responsible actions of historical leaders of which they can make use. Thereafter, history learners can learn to act responsibly. The least important view was historical time at position number 12. Siyanda argued that historical time was about chronology of events and understanding timeline. His argument was that with clear historical knowledge of historical time, history learners know how to record events chronologically as well as establishing their own timelines.

5.2.5.3. Siyanda's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS

At the final stage of card sorting a picture of the views Siyanda held about School History started to emerge. The three personal views of Siyanda were brought together with the pre-existing 12 ideas from CAPS and literature (see table 5.2.5.3.) on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. Simply put, Siyanda was now confronted by a blend constituting of his own ideas and those from the literature and CAPS on School History. He

was supposed to make meaning of these ideas in a particular manner and expected to sort and rank these two sets of cards in a descending manner starting with the most important idea to the least important one. Thereafter, he had to explain or elaborate on the way he sorted or ranked his cards/views. Consequently, the table below shows how Siyanda sorted these two sets of cards together.

Table 5.2.5.3.: Siyanda's ranking of views from literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories	
1.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important	
2.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important	
3.	Promoting human rights.	Most important	
4.	Historical skills.	Most important	
5.	Causes and effects.	Important	
6.	School History broadens knowledge and vocabulary.	Important	
7.	Understanding values.	Important	
8.	Societal responsibility.	Important	
9.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important	
10.	Continuity and change.	Least important	
11.	Empathy.	Least important	
12.	Historical significance.	Least important	

The table 5.2.5.3. shows that Siyanda omitted two of his views. The first view that he omitted was about making School History compulsory for all learners. The second view was that School History should focus more on local history rather than global history. Having omitted his views, he also relegated the view about historical time from literature and CAPS views which was initially ranked 12th. Thereafter, he maintained the same epistemological position he had earlier as per table 5.2.5.2. with the exception of historical skills which replaced understanding values as the most important view.

Siyanda thus made changes in terms of important aspects that he ranked earlier in table 5.2.5.3. The first change was the promotion of historical skills from important views to the most important views. The second change was the relegation of understanding values from most important views to important views. The third change was the promotion of societal

responsibility from the least important views to important views. The fourth and most notable change was his inclusion of his view at number six namely that School History broadens knowledge and vocabulary. This inclusion indicates that he believed relatively strongly in his own epistemology that language acquisition is important for history learners such that he rather merges it with the "official" views instead of succumbing to it. The manner Siyanda affected these changes shows that he equally ranked views related to historical knowledge and skills. In other words, for him School History should balance skills acquisition with knowledge development and the blending of these two sets made Siyanda revisit his epistemological position and beliefs. It means that his epistemological position can change when confronted and dealing with important aspects in order to accommodate those important aspects. The last change was that he relegated continuity and change and historical significance from important to least important views. All these changes were meant to paint a particular epistemological picture which aimed at prioritizing skills that would make history learners competent and good citizens. He also relegated the view understanding values from most important views to important views. On the contrary, he promoted societal responsibility from the least important to important views.

5.2.5.4. Consolidating the views of Siyanda

In summary, Siyanda's personal views revealed two major themes which were knowledge and skills. His argument was that School history equips learners with origins of their families, national history and historical events. According to him, all these aspects equipped learners with historical knowledge. He also suggested that through School History learners develop linguistic communication skills as well as independent thinking. His submission was that the later aspects addressed generic skills for learners.

When ranking the views from literature and CAPS on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge, Siyanda prioritised with aspects that promote common knowledge. This implies that the most important views were dominated by more aspects that related to historical knowledge than the skills. Also, when it comes to important views, aspects that addressed historical knowledge were dominant. However, when it comes to least important views, aspects that have to do with generic and historical skills dominated this category. The manner he categorised aspects shows that he strongly believed in the role of School History in furnishing learners with historical knowledge.

When Siyanda blended views from card sets 1 and 2, he emerged with a different position from what he presented earlier. This time around Siyanda balanced aspects that addressed both historical knowledge with those that addressed historical and generic skills in the most important category. On the other hand, the important views were dominated by aspects that related to common and historical knowledge whereas, the least important views balanced both historical knowledge, and historical and generic skills. Therefore, the manner Siyanda ranked his views, he prioritised with historical and common knowledge. In other words, according to Siyanda School History should address common and historical knowledge as a priority followed by the historical and common skills. This implies that he viewed the acquisition of historical and common knowledge as the most important achievement of School History teaching.

5.2.6. Bethel's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

5.2.6.1. Bethel's own views on history as a specialised school subject

Bethel's views on history as a specialised school subject were characterized by both knowledge and skills. He argued that School History develops historical knowledge about local and national history events. He also contended that learners should be aware of what happens around them and the world, and history learners secure this common knowledge via School History. Furthermore, he purports that through School History learners become aware of human rights. Bethel made reference to civil rights protests in the United State of America (USA), but did not give any other relevant details about these protests. He mentioned that the civil rights protests helped history learners to be aware of the significance of human rights, knowledge of how to exercise their human rights accordingly and how to fight for human rights. In addition, Bethel submitted that School History instils values in history learners. He argued, "as Africans we have those values and attitude that need to be instilled in our children. Some of these values have evaporated and one of them is respect". Therefore, according to Bethel, certain values can be inculcated by means of School History.

Having alluded to the role of School History about historical and common knowledge, Bethel also, clarified how School History helps history learners to achieve certain skills that are pertinent to their lives. However, he only referred to planning as the generic skill that learners develop as they study School History. He cited Joseph Stalin's Five Year Plan as an example. His emphasis was that when Joseph Stalin saw Russia's economic conditions deteriorating in early 1900, he planned for the future. His plan was meant to curb and ameliorate the

unconducive economic conditions. With Stalin's economic policy, Bethel explained that planning for the future is very important. Therefore, history learners should also learn to plan for their future.

He remarked that not only will School History help to instil the values that will help the learners to be good citizens, values like respect will help teachers in classroom situations where learners will respect one another and know their positions as learners. For these reasons Bethel stood firm in maintaining that School History has the potential to instil common knowledge about values in learners.

Bethel's views show that he had strong views about School History as it relates to common and historical knowledge. He declared the types of knowledge that are developed via School History which were about local and national events and planning for the future. Furthermore, he emphasized how School History as specialised subject knowledge enlightens history learners about human rights as well as instilling certain values such as respect and self-discipline.

5.2.6.2. Bethel's views in relation to the literature and CAPS

After Bethel shared his personal views about School History as specialised subject knowledge he was now confronted by the views as gleaned from the literature and the CAPS on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. His task, as per the described methodology, was to arrange 12 cards with 12 views that I issued him in a descending order with the idea/view he regarded as the most important coming first and the least important being the last. He had no obligation to use all the cards but was free to relegate, omit or disregard cards he deemed irrelevant. However, it was expected of Bethel to justify the order in which he organized cards with ideas on School History as specialised subject knowledge. The manner he sorted cards appears below.

Table 5.2.6.2.: Bethel's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
2.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
3.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
4.	Societal responsibility.	Most important
5.	Understanding values.	Important
6.	Historical significance.	Important
7.	Empathy.	Important
8.	Causes and effects.	Important
9.	Continuity and change.	Least important
10.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important
11.	Historical time.	Least important
12.	Historical skills.	Least important

Table 5.2.6.2. shows that Bethel did not omit or relegate any of the 12 cards issued to him. When sorting cards with views from literature and CAPS, Bethel foregrounded a critical way of thinking as the most important view and ranked it number one. According to him, analysis of past events helps learners to develop critical thinking because the world needs people who are critical thinkers. He argued that critical thinkers are able to project for the future and identify issues that can influence a situation. In the second position Bethel ranked the promotion of human rights. His argument was that School History teaches about respect for human rights and the importance of peace. He explained that, for example, "If we respect every African there will be no problem of xenophobia where African people were beaten up by fellow Africans." Furthermore, he posited that respect for human rights can help maintain peace because there can be no violation of human rights.

Ranked third was past human actions. Bethel argued that School History enlightens learners about modelling their behaviour. His submission was that history learners can learn from the mistakes of the past since they are incorporated in the actions of the historical actors. He argued that after they have learnt from these mistakes they can model their behaviour in order not to commit similar mistakes to certain historical actors. Therefore, learning about past human actions can result in both positive and negative effects from which history learners learn. Bethel

ranked societal responsibility as the fourth position most important view. He mentioned that history learners learn about the South African Bill of Rights which also encapsulates responsibilities. Consequently, his view was that history learners become aware of their rights and responsibilities. In other words, history learners become aware of the role they can play as societal members in order to be good and responsible citizens by studying School History

The next section of views Bethel ranked as important views – that is views from five to eight. The first of these important views ranked number five was understanding values. According to Bethel, awareness about values can help learners to comply with the South African Constitution. This compliance, in the view of Bethel, shows the interdependence of values and the constitution. Following understanding values, Bethel ranked historical significance. He suggested that School History creates self-awareness and community and global awareness for history learners. His argument was that this emanates from the meaningful aspects that learners are taught. Ranked number seven was empathy. Bethel indicated that School History promotes imagination since history learners are expected to imagine themselves and explain how they would have reacted at a given situations faced by the historical actors. Therefore, empathy helps to sharpen imaginative skills in learners. Bethel placed causes and effects at number eight. He claimed that School History as specialised subject knowledge teaches history learners to always consider the consequences of their actions beforehand. In other words, understanding causes and effects will help learners to channel their behaviour.

Bethel viewed the following four views as the least important. He ranked continuity and change at number nine. His argument was that School History teaches history learners how changes took place in the past and the reactions of historical actors to those changes. Consequently, history learners can learn how to effect changes on their own. He ranked voices of ordinary people at number ten. Bethel's view was that School History teaches history learners about raising concerns amicably, irrespective of who they are in terms of societal class. Bethel ranked historical time as his penultimate view at number 11. He submitted that School History teaches history learners about logic. In other words, history learners learn to relate historical events logically with time. The least important view placed at number 12 was historical skills. Bethel argued that history learners develop skills like critical thinking and problem solving. His argument was that as history learners are engaged with activities they ameliorate the understanding of historical skills. However, he did not specify the kind of activities he referred

to. Maybe his failure to specify the activities he referred to can be attributed to his declaration of these views as least important.

5.2.6.3. Bethel's views on blending personal views, literature and CAPS

The table 5.2.6.3. shows that Bethel foregrounded knowledge which was two-fold i.e. historical and common. His priority was that School History should emphasise and prioritise with knowledge when it comes to history teaching. In other words, his argument was that School History should, most importantly, be tailor made to knowledge. He backgrounded the importance of knowledge with aspects that address both skills and knowledge. Consequently, he ranked the aspects that develop knowledge as important. Bethel, also declared most of the aspects that develop knowledge as least important. This begins to say that Bethel's view was that School History develops both historical and common knowledge.

Table 5.2.6.3.: Bethel's ranking of personal views, literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
2.	Critical way of thinking.	Most important
3.	Societal responsibility.	Most important
4.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
5.	Understanding values.	Important
6.	Historical time.	Important
7.	Historical skills.	Important
8.	Continuity and change.	Least important
9.	Causes and effects.	Least important
10.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important

The table 5.2.6.3., above, shows that Bethel omitted all his four views. This omission shows that when his personal views were confronted by more "official" views, he was willing to give way or surrender his views. In other words, he might have been threatened by the views from literature and CAPS. Bethel also now omitted historical significance and empathy from the literature and CAPS views. The reason for omitting these two views from literature and CAPS was that they were irrelevant.

Having omitted the above-mentioned views, Bethel was expected to sort the remaining 10 views from literature and CAPS. When he sorted the most important and least important views, Bethel generally maintained the very epistemological position as displayed in table 5.7.1.2. However, he brought in some changes. Firstly, he omitted empathy that he regarded in table 5.7.1.2. as important ranked number seven and argued that it was irrelevant. Secondly, he promoted historical skills from least important to important views – now ranked number seven. Lastly, he relegated causes and effects from important to least important views – ranked them number nine. This relegation and re-positioning of views still maintained the position he took when sorting cards from literature and CAPS. From the way Bethel ranked the views shows that he was more interested in prioritising knowledge than skills.

5.2.6.4. Consolidating the views of Bethel

In summary, the manner Bethel ranked and presented his own views revealed two major themes. Those themes were knowledge and skills. He argued that School History equips learners with local and national history. Additionally, School History makes learners aware of the happenings in their surroundings, human rights and values. According to him, these were all the aspects that developed historical and common knowledge for learners. Having elaborated on historical and common knowledge acquisition, Bethel also postulated that School History develops planning skills for learners. Therefore, the personal views of Bethel were that School History develops historical and common knowledge as well as generic skills for learners.

When Bethel ranked views from the literature and CAPS, he made it clear that his priority was historical knowledge. As much as in his most important views balanced aspects that develop both common knowledge and generic skills, his important views were dominated by aspects that equip learners with historical knowledge. This on its own was a clear indication that he had strong views on the importance of common and historical knowledge. Bethel also balanced the least important views with aspects that address both historical knowledge and historical skills. Therefore, based on the manner Bethel ranked and prioritised the views from literature and CAPS, it can be concluded that he wanted common and historical knowledge to be at the forefront.

When blending card sets 1 and 2, Bethel maintained the position he displayed earlier. His most important views were characterised by balanced aspects that promoted common knowledge

and generic skills. However, his important views were dominated by aspects that develop historical knowledge and his least important views were also dominated by aspects that develop historical knowledge. This implies that after everything is said and done, Bethel still maintained that historical knowledge should be a priority followed by generic and historical skills.

5.2.7. Jonathan's views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

5.2.7.1. Jonathan's own views on history as a specialised school subject

After following the instructions, I gave him together with blank cards I issued him, Jonathan came out with three clear views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. All the views of Jonathan were based and centred on knowledge.

According to him, School History develops political knowledge and historical knowledge about national history. He argued that history learners, via School History, learn about, for example, autocratic and democratic types of government. As a result, School History in the view of Jonathan, equips history learners with key ideas pertaining to government. In addition to politics, history learners also learn about the struggle for freedom since they learn about historical actors who played a pivotal role during the struggle for freedom. Furthermore, Jonathan indicated that School History capacitates history learners with ethics so that they know how to behave themselves, live better and treat others in an acceptable way. Additionally, he asserted that School History entails respect and diverse cultures. His view was that if people tolerated each other they can respect each other which can result in living in harmony. Therefore, according to Jonathan, School History was about political and national issues, freedom struggle and respecting different cultures which is in line with political and historical knowledge.

5.2.7.2. Jonathan's views in relation to the literature and CAPS

After obtaining the views held by Jonathan he was now confronted by the views as gleaned from the literature and the CAPS document on the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge. His task as per the described methodology, was to arrange the 12 cards given to him with 12 views in a descending order with the idea/view he regarded as the most important coming first and the least important last. Jonathan, as per the methodology, was under no obligation to use all the cards; meaning that he could omit or disregard those cards he deemed irrelevant or unimportant or unnecessary. However, it was expected of Jonathan to justify the order in which he organised the cards with ideas on School History on them. In fact,

he was supposed to elaborate on each and every action or step that he took pertaining to these cards.

During his card sorting Jonathan did not omit any of the 12 cards but instead he sorted all of them. The way he sorted the cards given to him is discussed below.

Table 5.2.7.2.: Jonathan's ranking of the views in relation to literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
2.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
3.	Historical skills.	Most important
4.	Empathy.	Most important
5.	Critical way of thinking.	Important
6.	Voices of ordinary people.	Important
7.	Continuity and change.	Important
8.	Causes and effects.	Important
9.	Understanding values.	Least important
10.	Historical time.	Least important
11.	Historical significance.	Least important
12.	Societal responsibility.	Least important

Table 5.2.7.2. indicates that Jonathan incorporated and ranked all the 12 views from the literature and CAPS without omitting or relegating any. His most important view was the past human actions and this was ranked number one. He argued that School History entails the evaluation of the actions of historical actors thus uncovering and identifying their good and bad activities. So, if history learners understand these good or bad actions they can learn from them and can model their behaviour accordingly.

The second most important view was about promoting human rights. Jonathan contended that School History is about human rights and their importance and role in promoting peace and harmony. Therefore, his view was that human rights are important because they can promote mutual understanding. The third most important view was historical skills. Jonathan viewed decision making and communication as some of the skills that are important and should be

nurtured by history teachers. His argument was that these historical skills can help history learners cope with the world. Consequently, since history learners need these historical skills in order to be ready for the world and be competent, they are essential.

The fourth most important view was empathy. Empathy, in the view of Johnathan, is about different dimensions of historical issues. So, the view of Jonathan was that history learners should consider different dimensions of each historical issue. He argued that this consideration would help them understand why historical actors reacted the way they did. Therefore, empathy encourages multi-perspectivity in history learners.

After presenting the most important views, Jonathan went further and presented what can be regarded as important views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. The first of them was critical ways of thinking and was ranked number five. Jonathan presented that during history lessons learners analyse history sources as evidence. According to him, analysing sources enables history learners to make use of critical thinking skills. The inability to think critically can prevent the good analysis of sources. Subsequent to critical ways of thinking Jonathan ranked voices of ordinary people at number six as important view. He stated that School History entails and promotes equal representation. His view was that history learners need to be aware of equal representation since it promotes equality regardless of social class. So, he argued that School History addresses amongst other historical issues, equalities and inequalities of the past. As a result, history learners acquire adequate historical knowledge pertaining to equality. For example, he asserted that equal representation is also displayed by the presence of local, provincial and national government. He viewed these levels of government as a clear indication that representation should be maintained at all levels.

Jonathan ranked continuity and change at number seven. In order to prove how important this view was he contended that School History encapsulates change and development in the sense that development is rooted in change. In other words, when change takes place that is a sign of development. Therefore, change and development are inextricably interdependent. Causes and effects were ranked at number eight. His view was that causes and effects are the hallmarks of School History. The next view was that School History enforces ethical behaviour because it teaches history learners to be mindful of their actions. As a result, School History, in the view of Jonathan, equips history learners with historical knowledge of always considering the factors that lead to events and actions so that they do not become the victims of bad behaviour.

Jonathan concluded his sorting of views from literature and CAPS by outlining the last four least important views. The first of these views was understanding of the values and was ranked number nine. He asserted that School History encapsulates the South African Constitution and values. As a result, Jonathan suggested that School History exposes history learners to important values that pronounce how everybody should behave within the society and country at large. Therefore, School History enlightens history learners about the expectations from them as adults to be. Historical time was ranked at number 10. His argument was that School History is about historical time. His view was that historical time develops historical knowledge about logic and chronology of historical events. With a clear understanding of historical time, history learners can keep the relevant information of events and avoid distorting historical events and he asserted that history learners are able to record events properly. Therefore, historical time will enable history learners to know when each historical event took place.

Second to last, Jonathan ranked historical significance. His view was that School History is about the aspects that have meaning and impact in the lives of history learners. For example, Jonathan regarded democracy as one of these meaningful aspects. He argued that history learners deal with democracy a great deal in history lessons hence they develop adequate knowledge of democracy. Therefore, historical significance shapes the lives of history learners by making them study meaningful aspects of the past. The least important view, according to Jonathan, was School History as specialised subject knowledge as it relates to societal responsibilities. He argued that the School History involves historical events that took place in different societies masterminded by different historical actors. Historical actors took responsibilities for the benefit of their societies. So, the exposure about the responsibilities of historical actors can equip history learners with the ability to act responsibly for the benefit of their communities. Therefore, societal responsibility furnishes history learners with the ability to take responsibility in their societies.

5.2.7.3. Jonathan's views on blending personal, literature and CAPS

In the final step to determine the views of Jonathan, his own three views and the pre-existing 12 ideas about the value of School History as specialised subject knowledge were brought together. Simply put, Jonathan was now confronted by a blend of views on School History which he had to make meaning of in a singular manner. He was supposed to make meaning by ranking these cards as he did with his own views and those from literature and CAPS earlier.

Again he was expected to rank these cards in a descending order from the most important to the least important ideas mixing both sets of cards. He was also given freedom to omit those cards that he viewed as irrelevant or useless.

Table 5.2.7.3.: Jonathan's ranking of his own views, literature and CAPS

Ranking	Card contents	Categories
1.	Understanding past human actions.	Most important
2.	Promoting human rights.	Most important
3.	Causes and effects.	Most important
4.	Historical skills.	Most important
5.	School History should be taught to all learners.	Most important
6.	School History equips learners with knowledge of the	Important
	country.	
7.	Understanding values.	Important
8.	Empathy.	Important
9.	Historical time.	Important
10.	Societal responsibility.	Least important
11.	Critical way of thinking.	Least important
12.	Historical significance.	Least important
13.	Voices of ordinary people.	Least important

The table 5.2.7.3. shows that Jonathan brought so many changes from the manner he ranked views from literature and CAPS, as shown in table 5.2.7.2. There are two most notable changes as can be gleaned from table 5.2.7.3. Firstly, he omitted the view about continuity and change. Secondly, he included two of his own views which were School History should be taught to all learners and School History equips history learners with knowledge of the country. These two views were ranked 5th and 6th respectively. In terms of categories, his first view was the most important whereas the other one was important. This inclusion shows that Jonathan was certain about his views being important to such an extent that he placed them in these two important sectors. Most significantly, he ensured that his views were part of the final epistemology that encapsulates the views from literature and CAPS.

Subsequently, Jonathan retained most of the views he regarded as the most important in table 5.2.7.2. with the exception of causes and effects that were promoted from important to the most important views. In other words, Jonathan maintained, for the most part, a similar epistemological position to that he had initially. This indicates that he could not be threatened by new changes in his epistemology. He also, demoted empathy that he had ranked as the most important in the first phase of card sorting displayed in table 5.2.7.2. to important views. So, when he compared his own views and those from the literature and CAPS he changed his mind. He did this in order to accommodate his own view which he meant to be part of the final epistemological picture.

Furthermore, Jonathan demoted critical way of thinking and voices of ordinary people from important to least important views. Taking into account that these two aspects related to skills, means that his priority was on knowledge rather than skills. So, demoting skills that addressed skills was not a surprise. Also, Jonathan promoted understanding values and historical time from the initial least important views to the important category. These were the aspects that form part of knowledge. The last change that Jonathan made was the promotion of understanding values and historical time from least important to important views. Therefore, when Jonathan included his views in the final ranking this necessitated the revisit and rethink of how the final epistemology should look. Consequently, he made all the changes, as indicated above, in order to present his final epistemology.

5.2.7.4. Consolidating the views of Jonathan

In a nutshell, the personal views of Jonathan revealed one major theme and it was knowledge. The argument of Jonathan was that School History develops political knowledge and historical knowledge national history. Furthermore, learners acquire political knowledge about different types of government and the South African freedom struggle. He also postulated that the political knowledge that learners acquire enables them to understand acceptable behaviour. Therefore, the personal views of Jonathan were meant to promulgate the significance of political and historical knowledge.

When Jonathan ranked views from the literature and CAPS, he started by placing aspects that addressed both common knowledge and historical skills in the most important category. He did the same with important category. However, with least important views, he placed more aspects that develop historical knowledge than skills. This begins to say that historical knowledge was

of utmost importance for him. Since he had a chance to omit aspects he considered irrelevant but did not do so, it means that historical knowledge was still a priority for him.

During the final ranking whereby Jonathan blended card sets 1 and 2, he bolstered his earlier epistemological position by prioritising aspects that promote common knowledge. His most important category was dominated by aspects that encourage common knowledge. Also, in his important views aspects that addressed common knowledge were dominant. Whereas the least important views were dominated by aspects that related to generic skills. This begins to say that according to Jonathan School History should address common knowledge first then skills. So, common and historical knowledge that learners acquire in School History is of utmost importance.

5.3. Conclusion

The personal views that were presented by history teachers generally revealed one major theme and that was knowledge. This theme of knowledge was underpinned by six subthemes which were common knowledge, historical knowledge, political knowledge, character education, life lessons, skills and careers. This implies that history teachers strongly believed that School History develops knowledge in a number of ways. In other words, there were so many aspects that informed these subthemes themes. These themes were informed by politics, leadership and leadership styles, local history, national history, international history, family origins, governance, historical events, types of government, freedom struggles, promoting ethical behaviour, identity, values, human rights, independent thinking, English communication skills, planning and information sharing. The latter aspects developed knowledge for history learners.

There are many issues that surfaced from the manner participating history teachers ranked cards with statements from literature and CAPS. First and foremost, as much as they had liberty to omit views they deemed irrelevant or unnecessary they never omitted any of the 12 views. This suggests that they strongly believed in all the views presented to them to sort or it might be that they felt threatened by these views. Another issue to note was that when sorting cards almost all the participating history teachers prioritised with aspects that promoted and developed knowledge. This begins to say that as per history teachers who participated in the study, School History should first and foremost develop and promote knowledge followed by skills. In other words, history teachers did not downplay the importance of skills but their priority was knowledge acquisition in different aspects.

Furthermore, there were issues to note about the manner participating history teachers blended their personal views and those from literature and CAPS. One of the issues was the inclusion of their personal views when ranking views. With the exception of only two participants, the other five participants were bold enough to include their own views at this stage. This shows how much they believed and trusted their views. In addition, almost all the history teachers viewed knowledge as the most important aspect that School History develops. As a result, when they blended the two sets of cards and ranked them, they also prioritised with aspects that promoted knowledge. This was the third stage where participating history teachers alluded to the importance of knowledge. Therefore, it means that according to participating history teachers, knowledge was very important and should be point of departure in School History teaching. The next section will deal with themes and subthemes that emerged from the data generated.

CHAPTER 6 AN ANALYSIS OF THE VIEWS OF THE HISTORY TEACHERS ON SCHOOL HISTORY AS SPECIALSIED SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE

6.1. Introduction

As I indicated in chapter four, the data for this study were generated using card sorting, document analysis and semi-structured interviews. During my analysis it appeared that history teachers had different themes that underpinned their views. Therefore, this chapter will analyse the views of history teachers as well as analyse how they blended their views with views from literature and CAPS.

I explained in chapter four that I used open coding because it is a major feature of qualitative data analysis (Gray, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011). Furthermore, it allowed me to break down segments into smaller units and then examine, compare, conceptualize and categorize the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Coding helped me to identify different segments of data describing the views of the participating history teachers (Lodico et al., 2010) as well as to propose answers to the first research questions posed (Braun and Clarke, 2013). The first question was: What are the views of South African history teachers? For me to find answers to this question, I assigned codes that would help me interpret the meaning of data. Furthermore, using coding helped me to organize and simplify the data (Blaikie, 2010). The reason I found coding the most appropriate was that it allowed me to search and retrieve the data in terms of those items bearing the same code (Cohen et al., 2011). Therefore, coding assisted me to identify and find data that related to views of history teachers.

For this study, open coding became the most appropriate as it allowed me to crack data open with the aim of identifying relevant categories and themes (Lichtman, 2010; Lichtman, 2013; Blaikie, 2010). In other words, when using open coding I managed to comb the text and marked text with codes that described the views of the history teachers (Cohen et al., 2011). Also, with open coding, I went line-by-line, sentence-by-sentence and paragraph-by-paragraph (Cohen et al., 2011) coding all the texts relevant to views of history teachers. I managed to stay close to data and remained open to explore what was contained in the data (Arthur, 2012). Open coding made it possible for me to analyse data because I created themes based on what history teachers expatiated on during interviews. Therefore, after engaging with history teachers using the

afore-mentioned methods, I generated data about their views on School History as specialised subject knowledge. The next section will be about the analysis of themes that emerged from the personal/own views of history teachers.

6.2. Themes from the personal/own views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge

The personal views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge revealed knowledge as the major theme underpinned by seven subthemes. These subthemes were common knowledge, historical knowledge, political knowledge, character education, skills and careers. Therefore, the section below discusses all these subthemes in relation to history teachers.

6.2.1. Knowledge

6.2.1.1. Historical knowledge

History teachers suggested that there are other ways in which School History contributes to the development of historical knowledge. One of these factors is the study about ancient, historical and contemporary world events. According to history teachers, all history learners who have done School History know a number of world leaders who played significant roles in their different countries and the world at large. This includes the likes of Adolf Hitler, Joseph Stalin, Benito Mussolini, Idi Amin, and Muamar Gadhafi to mention but a few. In addition to leaders history learners also are exposed to significant world events and historical places. These events include the fall of the Berlin Wall, the Wall Street Crash, Genocide, UNO, League of Nations, to mention but a few. History learners also become aware of historical events in South Africa as well as South African leaders who made those historical events possible. These events include the Soweto Uprising and first democratic elections. Therefore, without the study of world historical events history learners would not know these leaders, historical events and places.

History teachers affirmed that South African School History covers so many historical aspects, including the South Africa freedom struggle which resulted from the apartheid system. The study about the struggle for freedom equips history learners with the causes and consequences of the struggle, how the struggle took place and which leaders were responsible for it. Those were the leaders who wanted to perpetuate the apartheid system of government. In other words, the freedom struggle was against the atrocities implemented by the apartheid regime and

inhuman practices of the apartheid government in spearheading inequalities in all aspects of life. Furthermore, the study about the freedom struggle provides historical knowledge of how the struggle can be handled. It also, shows how the struggle can be conducted if need be. So, the study about the struggle for freedom equips learners with such diverse knowledge pertaining to the struggle itself, hence the study about the freedom struggle is significant.

History teachers added that School History is about knowledge of family, local and national history. Taking into account that learners come from families and societies, it is therefore important that history learners know their family and local history. Furthermore, the history teachers asserted that family history helps learners know their ancestors and where they come from as a family. Moreover, learners could become proud of their locality where they come from and develop love for places of historical importance in their societies and country at large. In addition, history teachers suggested that history learners learn to preserve historical places since they understand the history behind each historical place and how crucial it is to save these places.

According to the participating history teachers, School History also furnishes history learners with how developments and changes took place in South Africa. History teachers state that developments and changes occur in each and every country. According to them, if these developments and changes are not recorded and cascaded, learners can never know where their country comes from in terms of development. School History is relevant because it traces and provides knowledge of how each country has progressed from ancient times to date. For this reason, history learners become aware of all the historical changes and developments that affected human beings in their different countries. In summary, the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge, in relation to historical knowledge, were characterised by world events, the freedom struggle, family, local and national history, and change and development.

All the above aspects have a great relationship with issues that CAPS hoped to achieve and envisaged pertaining to historical knowledge. History teachers argued in line with CAPS that historical knowledge equips learners with an understanding of local, national and world events. Some of the events they elaborated on were the freedom struggle and apartheid. This view of history teachers related to CAPS which was also about developing an understanding about world events. Also, history teachers stated that the history learners acquire historical

knowledge about historical leaders. This view was not too distant from encouraging responsible leadership that was envisaged by CAPS. Furthermore, the history teachers emphasised that historical knowledge encompasses causes and consequences. This view was reinforced by CAPS which also addresses causes and effects as the key concepts of School History. Therefore, the above views addressed the same issues that CAPS aimed for.

Moreover, one of the aims of CAPS in relation to School History was to promote knowledge in local contexts. On the other hand, history teachers asserted that School History develops knowledge about family, local and national history. This begins to say that there was an agreement betwixt what history teachers alluded to and what CAPS hoped to achieve. Additionally, one of the key historical concepts that CAPS emphasised was change and continuity. In line with this, history teachers also affirmed that School History is about change and development. In a nutshell the arguments of history teachers in relation to the above views were in line with the stipulations of CAPS. Therefore, it means that when history teachers present history lessons they may do that successfully and effectively because their views and thinking were in line with the expectations from CAPS. Furthermore, history teachers may not find it difficult to cascade information to learners because their understanding of School History was in line with what they are expected to teach.

6.2.1.2. Common/General knowledge

There are many aspects that history teachers presented in relation to School History and common knowledge. One of these aspects that contribute to the development of common knowledge is identity. According to teachers, identity plays a major role in helping learners understand who they are and from where they come. These history teachers suggested that if learners have acquired the proper knowledge of who they are and where they come from, they will also know their background. Identity helps learners to identify themselves as members of the family, society and country at large because they understand themselves. They also, identify themselves as different racial groups knowing where they come from in terms of races and how races relate to each other. Therefore, School History assists learners in knowing and understanding their identity through the knowledge they acquire.

The history teachers also argued that not only does School History furnish learners with knowledge about their identity but also with societal knowledge. Their argument was that history is interested in human activities or human actions, however, these human activities or

actions do not take place in isolation of the society. In other words, as humans are engaged in activities, the society also becomes crucial. For this reason, learners develop common knowledge that can be attributed to their involvement with the society. School History enables learners to develop an understanding of the society from which they come and they understand even the activities that took place in the same society. It is important, according to some of the teachers, for learners to understand their societies because when they are adults, they will have to assume responsibilities in the same society. Therefore, societal knowledge is crucial for learners since they are its members.

Another factor that contributed to the development of common knowledge for learners through School History is patriotism. History teachers postulated that as learners study School History, they develop common knowledge about the essence and meaning of being proud of their country. Their argument was that as learners engage with the human actions of historical actors, they identify issues that can promote patriotism. They can do this based on the pride they have developed as citizens of South Africa. For example, the history teachers submitted that their learners are proud of the fight against apartheid and the road to democracy. For this reason, learners are proud of being associated with the country that brought about such changes. Therefore, some of the past human actions became successful because there were people who were prepared to die for their country. This was all because of pride and patriotism they had and so through the exposure to such knowledge learners become patriotic.

Furthermore, the history teachers in this study asserted that School History equips learners with knowledge about international community, relations and organisations. They argued that the knowledge about these entities exposes learners to international events. This exposure makes learners globally competent because they are well versed about what happens internationally. Over and above the afore-mentioned, learners could then understand the relations between their country South Africa and other countries. The knowledge about international relations and community is significant for learners because they will be adults in the future. Therefore, learners should be aware of what happens locally, nationally and internationally.

The history teachers also affirmed that School History develops a vocabulary for learners. Their argument was that as they engage with everyday classroom activities and new themes, they are exposed to new vocabulary. This is the vocabulary that history learners use in their daily activities when performing tasks. One of the history teachers even alluded to the fact that

vocabulary, including bombastic words, makes history learners distinct from other learners because they are exposed to new concepts more often than learners doing other subjects. Therefore, School History, in the view of the history teachers, develops common knowledge about vocabulary which makes learners partake in whatever activities they engage,

Additionally, the history teachers argued that history learners acquire life lessons from School History; in other words, they learn from School History. History teachers posited that as learners study about historical actors, they also learn about the mistakes that these historical actors committed in the past. They further postulated that learners learn to identify mistakes and sometimes work out alternatives to those mistakes. After identifying mistakes of the past, learners strive to avoid committing the same mistakes and learn to correct these mistakes so that they do not repeat them themselves.

Lastly, the history teachers advanced that School History furnishes learners with knowledge about diverse cultures. School History is about past human actions of different races, as long as they contributed to the development of the country and historical events. For this reason, as learners study about different historical actors they are also exposed to their cultures. Subsequently, learners develop understanding of different cultures. These are the cultures that characterise the community and society of South Africa. It is therefore significant for learners to know these cultures so that they know how to relate with other fellow citizens of different cultures. Therefore, the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge, in relation to common knowledge, were characterised by identity, societal knowledge, patriotism, international community, international relations and organisations, development of vocabulary and diverse cultures.

6.2.1.3. Political knowledge

The participating history teachers suggested that School History also develops political knowledge for learners through the studying of different political aspects. One of these aspects is leadership and leadership styles. In the view of the history teachers, School History deals a great deal with political leaders and their leadership styles. They argued that in the long run the study about leadership impacts on history learners when they become leaders because they know the type of leadership style that works best. As they study about leadership, they acquire exposure and experience of how leadership styles work. The participating history teachers expounded on two leadership styles which were democracy and autocracy. They claimed that

history learners learn that autocratic leaders are normally overthrown; they do not last in power. Therefore, with this knowledge, history learners are placed to opt for the leadership style that is conducive to democracy and acceptable in future.

In the view of the history teachers, School History also equips history learners with political knowledge relating to governance. They submitted that history learners also study about different government institutions and governance. The argument submitted by history teachers was that through the study of School History learners learn how to deal with governance issues. This knowledge is pertinent for learners because some of them may be involved with governance issues when they are adults. It is therefore necessary that they have a good understanding of what governance is all about and how it works successfully.

History teachers postulated that School History deals with the constitution of the Republic of South Africa thus making history learners develop political knowledge. They argued that School History addresses some of the issues that are covered in the constitution. According to the history teachers, history learners develop appropriate knowledge of what the constitution is all about and how it is significant. Amongst the issues that School History deals with, are human rights. School History repeatedly emphasises the violation of human rights. In the view of the teachers, this emphasis and dealing with human rights enables history learners, to understand the meaning of the violation of human rights. History teachers submitted that the civil rights protests that took place in numerous countries like the USA can be attributed to human rights violations, amongst other factors. Moreover, School History addresses the issue of freedom of expression which is also encapsulated in the constitution. History learners learn that everybody is free to express him/herself and even voice or raise concerns. The constitution of the Republic of South Africa allows that to happen. So, if learners understand what freedom of expression means from school level, they may be able to implement that after school completion. Therefore, leadership and leadership styles, governance and constitution characterised the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

6.2.1.4. Character Education

The history teachers argued that School History, as specialised subject knowledge, provides history learners with knowledge that develops and moulds their character and behaviour. To this effect, School History encourages and promotes good citizenship. In other words, School History envisages citizens who can function in society. It is for this reason that School History

also, deals with values that are enshrined in the constitution. Tolerance, respect, Ubuntu and discipline were the highest ranked values and if history learners could secure and be aware of these values and incorporate them, they may change and develop their characters. This implies that through the teaching of School History the values that may develop learners to become good citizens may be nurtured thus moulding the characters of learners.

Furthermore, as history learners study about historical actors the history teachers asserted that they also identify positive or good traits they may adopt and use to develop their self-esteem. This implies that School History also moulds characters of learners. With positive self-esteem, history learners may develop knowledge of treating other people well. In other words, character education is about the promotion of positive and good behaviour amongst learners. In addition, history learners acquire knowledge about acceptable ways of handling matters. For this reason, the history teachers argued that School History is also about ethics which encapsulate acceptable behaviour. Therefore, if learners have learnt to treat other learners well, have developed positive self-esteem and behave ethically history teachers argued that learners may live in harmony. This implies that School History may help promote living in harmony amongst members of the society. In a nutshell, the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge proved that School History is significant.

6.2.1.5. Skills

According to history teachers, School History also develops skills. By skills the history teachers referred to the ability to do something based on the relevant and appropriate knowledge acquired. This implies that there is a discernible relationship between knowledge and skills. This means that for one to show ability to do something, one must firstly have acquired knowledge. To this effect, the argument of the history teachers was that knowledge alone is not good enough, as learners should be equipped with either generic or historical skills they can use to implement the knowledge they acquired. This begins to say that knowledge without either generic or historical skills, is useless. One of the general skills history teachers alluded to was English communication. According to the history teachers, as history learners engaged with classroom activities like presentations, debates and discussions they improve their level of communication using the English language. These English language communication skills may help learners as they further their studies and even when looking for employment. They can, in the view of the teachers, express themselves explaining how capable they are and also find it easy to understand what they are taught at higher education level. Moreover, advanced

English communication skills may help them to confidently express themselves. Therefore, School History is significant because it helps learners enhance their English communication skills.

In addition to English communication skills, history teachers alluded to listening as a generic skill that School History develops in learners. According to the history teachers all the activities that take place in class call for learners to either listen to teachers or other learners. They further argued that the success of each learner also depends on the level of listening which implies that listening means giving others a chance to air their views as well as considering other learners' views as genuine and acceptable. The argument they submitted was that listening is one of the generic skills that history learners should have because responsible citizens should listen to each other. So, if learners have developed this generic skill of listening, they may act responsibly as citizens.

The history teachers also claimed that School History develops generic skills like critical thinking which forces learners to engage with history activities and be creative. These activities could be per group or individual. This diversity of the manner of engaging learners shows that if learners cannot achieve this skill as individuals, the peers or classmates can help them achieve critical thinking. In other words, history activities are meant, amongst other things, to encourage and promote critical or independent thinking. This is one of the generic skills that is essential since it helps learners to be good and responsible citizens. Moreover, critical thinking helps learners when they further their studies because they are expected amongst other things to think critically. Therefore, School History promotes critical or independent thinking through activities with which learners engage.

Additionally, history teachers posited that School History teaches learners the generic skill of sharing the information obtained. History teachers argued that when engaging learners with history activities, sometimes learners are expected to present what they obtained during investigation either in groups or the whole class so information sharing is also one of the skills that define a good and responsible citizen. Another generic skill that the history teachers alluded to was planning. According to them, there are themes in School History that talk about planning which explain the aftermath of proper planning. This implies that the significance of planning is studied in great depth. According to history teachers, planning is one of the features of being organised as a person. Therefore, as was the case with critical thinking, information

sharing and planning are also crucial for learners when they further their studies and also become citizens. These were the skills that define views of history teachers on School History as a specialised school subject.

The CAPS document identified some of the historical skills that it hoped to achieve. When history teachers alluded to skills in relation to their views, they affirmed some of these historical skills and did not mention others. CAPS asserted that learners should develop historical skills that enable them to communicate effectively. To this effect, history teachers submitted something similar when they argued that learners acquire English communication skills through the study of School History. This suggests that CAPS and history teachers agree that communication skills are significant. Another historical skill that emerged strongly from teachers' views was critical thinking. This was the skill that CAPS envisaged after learners studied School History. In agreement with this historical skill, history teachers also emphasised the significance of critical thinking. Therefore, history teachers' views were in line with CAPS pertaining to critical thinking and English communication skills.

However, history teachers elaborated on a few generic skills that CAPS did not take into account. These generic skills were information sharing, planning and listening. This begins to say these were the skills that differentiated teachers' views from CAPS. In other words, these were the generic skills that were unique to participating history teachers. Surprisingly, there were so many skills that CAPS elaborated but on which participating history teachers were silent. Some of these skills were problem solving, multi-perspectivity, evaluation, analysis, explaining and organising.

6.2.1.6. Careers

The participating history teachers presented the view that School History develops learners' knowledge thus making it easier for them to obtain employment. This is in line with the purpose of CAPS which alludes to enabling learners to transit from education institution to the workplace. This implies that School History also contributes to the achievement of careers learners aim for. Some of the careers history teachers elaborated on were teaching, work in historical museums and archives. School History is significant and relevant because it provides job opportunities for learners like other subjects. Therefore, careers and employability of learners also informed the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

6.2.1.7. Conclusion

It is clear that the views of history teachers revealed many views of School History as a specialised school subject. The findings on the views of history teachers show that School History contributes greatly in their understanding, of a number of aspects that affect learners. These aspects range from societal, political, cultural to the economic aspect. This begins to say that as learners engage with School History in the view of the participating teachers, they develop the expertise which may enable them to deepen their understanding of social, political, cultural and economic issues that affect them. In other words, after studying School History learners may strengthen and develop their ability to cope with the world.

The most interesting and notable issue was to find the views of participating history teachers concurring and in line with certain stipulations of the CAPS document. Some of the views that participating history teachers shared were in agreement with what is stipulated in CAPS. One of these issues was change and development. Whilst CAPS boldly states that School History is about change and development, participating history teachers also argued that School History is about change. Furthermore, CAPS stipulates that School History promotes knowledge in its local and global context. In agreement with this, participating history teachers submitted that School History is about national and world events. These are some of the examples that show that some of the views of participating history teachers were not far-removed from the literature and CAPS' views. It was good to find this shared thinking between history teachers and CAPS because it means that even the teaching may be effective since teachers may present aspects they concur with or of which they have a clear understanding. In other words, if history teachers can think the same or adopt the knowledge they are expected to cascade to learners, learners can benefit a lot from that historical knowledge.

On the contrary, participating history teachers also shared views that were beyond the views from literature and CAPS that they had to sort. To this effect, history teachers elaborated on political education, life skills, good citizenship, international relations, patriotism and family backgrounds which were not part of CAPS. The latter views were only exclusive to participating history teachers. It was good to find that the participating history teachers expressed views that were beyond those presented in the curriculum because this shows issues that shape their views. This may enable them to mingle their views appropriately and successfully for the benefit of learners. This implies that history teachers might make use of those views to reinforce and widen the scope for learners. Therefore, the views of history

teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge indicated that School History is significant meaning that it has a big role to play in the lives of learners. The next section deals with how history teachers ranked the views from the literature and CAPS as it relates to School History as specialised subject knowledge.

6.3. History teachers' ranking of the views from the literature and CAPS

Having established the views of the history teachers as they related to their own views on School History as specialised subject knowledge I wanted to establish how they collectively ranked these views according to the manner of importance as they relate to literature and CAPS. To this effect, Table 6.3.1. below shows how each of them ranked these. In order to establish a composite ranking order, I awarded points for each ranking per row starting with the highest and ending with the lowest The column on the left shows the exact points I awarded for each ranking in each row. To this effect, I awarded 12 points for the highest ranked views and one point for the lowest ranked views. Thereafter, I added all the points that each view obtained as per each ranking. I did this in order to find the view with highest points so that it would be the most important and the view with lowest points being the least important.

Table 6.3.1. History teachers' consolidated ranking order of their views from literature and CAPS

Points	Zanele	Sizwe	Sipho	Siyanda	Joseph	Bethel	Jonathan	Category
12	Past human	Past human	Critical thinking	Critical thinking	Past human	Critical thinking	Past human	Most important
	actions	actions			actions		actions	
11	Historical	Critical thinking	Promoting	Past human actions	Values	Promoting human	Promoting human	Most important
	significance		human rights			rights	rights	
10	Cause and	Historical skills	Continuity and	Values	Promoting human	Past human actions	Historical skills	Most important
	effects		change		rights			
9	Values	Societal	Empathy	Promoting human	Critical thinking	Societal	Empathy	Most important
		responsibility		rights		responsibility		
8	Historical time	Promoting	Values	Historical skills	Historical skills	Values	Critical thinking	Important
		human rights						
7	Voices of	Historical time	Past human	Historical	Empathy	Historical	Voices of	Important
	ordinary		actions	significance		significance	ordinary people	
	people							
6	Continuity and	Voices of	Historical time	Causes and effects	Causes and	Empathy	Continuity and	Important
	change	ordinary people			effects		change	
5	Critical	Empathy	Causes and	Continuity and	Continuity and	Causes and effects	Causes and	Important
	thinking		effects	change	change		effects	
4	Societal	Causes and	Historical skills	Empathy	Historical	Continuity and	Values	Least important
	responsibility	effects			significance	change		
3	Promoting	Continuity and	Historical	Voices of ordinary	Voices of	Voices of ordinary	Historical time	Least important
	human rights	change	significance	people	ordinary people	people		
2	Historical	Historical	Societal	Societal	Societal	Historical time	Historical	Least important
	skills	significance	responsibility	responsibility	responsibility		significance	
1	Empathy	Values	Voices of	Historical time	Historical time	Historical skills	Societal	Least important
			ordinary people				responsibility	

6.3.2. The composite rank order of views from literature and CAPS

After seeing how the individual history teachers ranked the views from literature and CAPS I used the scores that each view obtained to identify the most important, important and least important views. To this effect, table 6.3.2. below shows a single or composite ranking order of the views from literature and CAPS ranging from the most important to the least important views that came about the sorting of cards as discussed in chapter five. Subsequently, the view with highest points became number one whereas the one with lowest points became number 12. Since there were 12 views, I categorised them into three categories i.e. most important, important and least important. In line with this, the first four views were categorised as the most important followed by another four categorised as important and the last four views categorised as the least important. These were categories about the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

Table 6.3.2.: Composite ranking order of views from literature and CAPS on School History as specialised subject knowledge

View from literature and CAPS	Points	Categories
1. Past human actions	76 points	Most important
2. Critical way of thinking	69 points	Most important
3. Promoting human rights	63 points	Most important
4. Understanding values	51 points	Most important
5. Historical skills	43 points	Important
6. Causes and effects	41 points	Important
7. Empathy	41 points	Important
8. Continuity and change	39 points	Important
9.Historical significance	36 points	Least important
10. Voices of ordinary people	30 points	Least important
11. Societal responsibility	29 points	Least important
12. Historical time	28 points	Least important

From what appears in table 6.3.2. the most important views were dominated by three aspects that addressed common and historical knowledge against one that addressed historical skills. These aspects were understanding past human actions, understanding human rights and values as well as critical thinking. This implies that according to the participating history teachers

School History is about the acquisition of historical and common knowledge. In other words, for the history teachers, historical and common knowledge are the most important aspects that define School History. So, the manner history teachers prioritised the views from literature and CAPS reinforced the position they took when presenting their personal views as presented in section 6.2.1. The history teachers presented clearly in table 6.2.1. that historical and common knowledge were their priority. In line with this, when they sorted the views from literature and CAPS they also emphasised the same aspects that addressed both historical and common knowledge. To prove and support their most important aspects, they came out with clear scores. For instance, the first most important aspect understanding past human actions received 76 points followed by understanding human rights with 63 points and understanding values received 51 points. The big difference between these scores and the scores for important views shows that the participating history teachers were determined to differentiate between the most important views and important views. These scores show that according to the participating history teachers, common knowledge is a core part of School History as specialised subject knowledge and should be imparted to learners so that they can understand the world. In summary, the views of history teachers revealed that historical and common knowledge were the most important aspects to be emphasised and developed.

In respect of important views, history teachers balanced the aspects that addressed both historical knowledge and historical skills. This implies that for the participating history teachers, historical knowledge and historical thinking skills should be treated or addressed equally. In line with this, the first aspect in the important category with 43 points was historical skills, followed by causes and effects with 41 points, followed by empathy with 41 points and the last one was continuity and change with 39 points. The difference between these aspects was very small. Also the difference between the least most important aspect and first important aspect is eight points which is far above the difference between important aspects. These scores show that history teachers believed that learners should benefit and develop historical knowledge concurrently to certain historical thinking skills. It was also interesting to note that when the history teachers ranked these views they only focussed on historical skills while turning a blind eye to the generic skills that they alluded to in their own personal views as discussed in section 6.2.1.5. Furthermore, the views at number five, six, seven and eight are some of the key concepts for School History as encapsulated in CAPS and the literature. It was thus not wholly insignificant for them to be ranked as important. However, one of the thinking skills i.e. historical significance fell outside this category into the least important views.

Although the participating teachers were at liberty to omit views that they considered irrelevant, it must be mentioned that none were omitted and instead ranked them all as important.

With regard to the least important category, there were many issues that raised questions. As much as both historical knowledge and generic skills were equally distributed or balanced in this category, the ranking of historical significance and historical time in this category was surprising and intriguing. Taking into account that historical significance is regarded as one of the elements of historical thinking, it does not make much sense that the participating history teachers ranked it as the least important. The question that lingers is how do they handle and emphasise the significance of history if they view it as least important in the category? Furthermore, if historical significance is least important where does that leave them as subject specialists who are expected to instil, amongst other things the love for history as well as the importance of the subject? However, it was telling to find them ranking historical significance as least important. Also, according to the participating history teachers there was a relevance and relationship between historical significance and societal responsibility. Though they did not spell it out clearly, if they have developed knowledge about significant issues of history, the relationship is made possible by acting responsibly. In short, the acquisition of historical knowledge pertaining to history can facilitate and simplify learners' assumption of responsibility in the society. Therefore, it means that School History contributes a lot in developing historical knowledge that enables learners to assume responsibilities in their societies.

Also, the ranking of historical time as the actual least important view is intriguing. It has been argued that the manner history engages with historical time is crucial. Historical time has been viewed as setting the study of the past apart from other subjects. In other words, historical time has been viewed as making history identical. Even CAPS emphasises the importance of time and classifies it as a pertinent concept in the study of history. Therefore, it is not vividly understandable why participating history teachers ranked it as least important. Even the literature on historical literacy emphasises the cardinal importance of historical time in School History in order to place events in the order in which they occurred. Even though the essence and importance of historical time is overemphasised in history participating history teachers viewed it otherwise. Maybe the lack of theoretical knowledge in participating history teachers made them rank historical time as least important. In other words, even in their views, historical

time was less important not taking into cognisance that historical time is amongst the factors that define history. Therefore, it was surprising and intriguing that the same participating history teachers who should be emphasising the relevance and importance of historical time, declared it as least important.

Other than that, participating history teachers ranked voices of ordinary people and societal responsibility as least important. This implies that according to them, these two aspects do not carry any weight that can award them the status of important category or most important category. The ranking of these two aspects in this position was also surprising because they are some of the aspects that support citizenship within a democracy, as per CAPS. In other words, the teaching of School History aims to instil these two aspects because they are important. However, their ranking as least important also raises some questions whether history teachers do treat them with care and importance or not; whether they instil these issues to learners as expected or not. This is an indicator that participating history teachers lacked theoretical understanding of what is entailed in history and what history hopes to achieve. If they had understanding they would have known that issues were amongst the important issues that are a priority of School History in terms of supporting citizenship. It is also possible that participating history teachers undermined the curriculum by declaring these aspects as less important in order to show how irrelevant these issues were in the curriculum. Therefore, some of the views above show that participating history teachers did not hesitate to challenge the views from literature and CAPS by expressing views not encapsulated in CAPS and by declaring some as least important irrespective of how important they were viewed by CAPS. This implies that they had strong beliefs in their views.

6.3.3 Conclusion

When the participating history teachers ranked the views from literature and CAPS on School History as specialised subject knowledge they put it clearly that their most important views were those aspects that addressed common and historical knowledge. It was also interesting that this most important knowledge was backed by both historical and generic skills which were ranked as important. However, the most intriguing was the ranking of the aspects that define historical thinking and historical concepts as the least important. These aspects were historical significance and historical time. This implies that for participating history teachers these aspects were, in their view, of little importance or useless. There is a possibility that the participating history teachers may not emphasise these aspects because they do not find them

crucial and considered them less significant for learners. In other words, the CAPS document contains aspects that need not be emphasised when teaching history. Therefore, their views were that School History needs some alignment with other aspects like political knowledge and other generic skills that are not contained in CAPS.

6.4. The views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge when blending their personal views with views from the literature and CAPS

In section 6.2. above I unpacked the findings that appeared from the personal views of history teachers on history as specialised subject knowledge. In section 6.4.2. I unpacked how history teachers collectively prioritised and ranked the views from literature and CAPS. Subsequently, in this section I brought the two sets of cards together and asked the history teachers to blend them together into one set or whole. To this effect, table 6.4.1. (appendix A) shows how each individual teacher blended their own views with the views from the literature and CAPS.

6.4.2. Composite rank order of the blended personal views, literature and CAPS views

Table 6.4.1. shows how the individuals history teachers blended their own views with views from the literature and CAPS. Thereafter, this section aims to develop a composite rank order of the manner the history teachers blended their views and those from the literature and CAPS. This implies that their views on School History as specialised subject knowledge were brought into conversation with literature and CAPS. In order to come out with this final ranking order of the blended views of these two sets of cards, I awarded points from the highest to the lowest views. The first column on the left in table 6.4.2. shows these points as per the view in each row. Since there were 14 views, I gave the highest ranked view 14 points and one point for the lowest ranked view. Therefore, after a scrutiny of the manner history teachers ranked the blended views, table 6.4.2. shows how they prioritised their views. Some of the personal views that appear in table 6.4.1. do not appear in table 6.4.2. The reason is that they were a repetition hence I omitted them and brought together those that meant the same view but presented by different participants. Subsequently, the view 'School History develops insight of the world events' and 'School History broadens knowledge' were assimilated to 'School History addresses African, South African history' since they meant the same thing. Therefore, in the end 21 views were identified. These 21 views were categorised into three categories with the first seven viewed as the most important, the next seven as important and the last seven as the least important views.

Table 6.4.2.: Composite rank order of the blended personal views, literature and CAPS views

Personal views and views from literature and CAPS	Points	Categories
Past human actions	87 points	Most important
Promoting human rights	77 points	Most important
Critical thinking	76 points	Most important
Historical skills	60 points	Most important
Causes and effects	56 points	Most important
Understanding values	48 points	Most important
Societal responsibility	43 points	Most important
Historical time	38 points	Important
Continuity and change	38 points	Important
Empathy	38 points	Important
Voices of ordinary people	37 points	Important
Historical significance	31 points	Important
School History helps learners develop English communication skills.	14 points	Important
School History promotes good citizenship.	14 points	Important
School History promotes patriotism.	12 points	Least important
School History addresses African, South African and world history.	10 points	Least important
School History should be compulsory.	10 points	Least important
School History makes learners assertive.	02 points	Least important
School history offers relevant content.	02 points	Least important
School History is about international relations.	02 points	Least important
School History is about leadership.	01 point	Least important

When blending their personal views and views from literature and CAPS on School History as specialised subject knowledge, the participating history teachers ranked certain views differently and others the same way they did as per table 6.3.2. In line with this, they again ranked understanding past human action, understanding human rights, critical thinking and understanding values as most important views like was the case with table 6.3.2. In other words, all the views that were ranked most important as per table 6.3.2. were also ranked as most important as per table 6.4.2. However, the only difference was that with the new ranking there were additional views since most important views had to constitute of seven views. To this effect, historical skills, causes and effect, and societal responsibility were ranked most importantly. Furthermore, empathy and, continuity and change were ranked as important as it was the case with ranking in table 6.3.2. Therefore, all the most important and important views as stated above were ranked the same as per table 6.3.2. even when confronted by personal

views of history teachers. In other words, when the views from the literature and CAPS were confronted by their own views, they maintained the same epistemological position. This proves that they strongly believed that 'official' views should remain as the most important. Over and above, it means that the participating history teachers strongly believed that historical knowledge, common or general knowledge and generic skills should always be balanced or treated equally in the curriculum. For this reason, aspects that address historical knowledge i.e. understanding past human actions with 87 points and, causes and effects with 56 points were ranked as most important. Also, aspects that relate to general knowledge i.e. understanding human rights with 77 points and understanding values with 48 points were also ranked as most important. Lastly, aspects that inform generic skills i.e. critical thinking with 76 points and societal responsibility with 43 points were ranked as most important. These were the most important views that address historical knowledge, general knowledge and generic skills with highest points. Therefore, the equality of the views that informed historical and common knowledge, and generic skills, meant that knowledge acquisition and skills development were equally important. It was surprising though that as much as historical skills were ranked as most important they were dominated by two aspects that informed generic skills. This implies that for participating history teachers, historical skills were less important than generic skills. In other words, participating history teachers preferred generic skills instead of pushing and emphasising historical skills in the CAPS curriculum.

Having alluded to the views that remained the same when comparing tables 6.3.2. and 6.4.2., now was the time to address changes that occurred between the table of the ranking order of literature and CAPS views and the table with blended personal, literature and CAPS views. One of these changes was the promotion of historical skills and, causes and effect from important views in table 6.3.2. to most important views as per table 6.4.2. This suggests that when history teachers reconsidered their initial ranking and with their own views now part of the mix they upgraded these two views which are forms of historical thinking. In other words, they realised that these two views are amongst the most important ones because they promote and develop historical thinking. Also, societal responsibility was promoted from least important views to the most important views and this is one of the major changes that history teachers brought in to play. In other words, initially as per table 6.3.2. they did not see the need for societal responsibility until they were confronted by their personal views. Another change worth noting was the promotion of historical time from the absolute least important view in table 6.3.2. to important views as per table 6.4.2. When History teachers got a second chance

to sort cards they reconsidered their ranking of historical time as one of the key elements of historical thinking and school history as specialised subject knowledge. In addition, both voices of ordinary people and historical significance were also promoted from least important views as per table 6.3.2. to important views as per table 6.4.2. These are the changes that were effected by history teachers after they blended their personal views and views from literature and CAPS. Notable, is that all these changes came into play when views from literature and CAPS were confronted by their personal views. This begins to show that all these changes may be attributed to the influence of teachers' views when confronted by the 'official' views alongside their own views.

There are two personal views that history teachers ranked equally important to the views from literature and CAPS. These views were School History develops English communication skill and is that School History promotes good citizenship. The inclusion of personal views in the important category shows that participating history teachers strongly believed in their own views and viewed them as equally important to the 'official' ones. However, most of their personal views were ranked as least important. The fact that they had liberty to omit views they deemed irrelevant and unnecessary but decided to put them at the bottom cannot be downplayed. This implies that their views may always remain part of the bigger picture where views from literature and CAPS are dominant. However, the role that these views can play is limited. It means that participating history teachers still believe and maintain that 'official' views are tops. In other words, views from literature and CAPS continue to dominate School History teaching. It may also be possible that history teachers were scared to rank their personal views within the literature and CAPS views. In summary, history teachers foregrounded the views from literature and CAPS because they regarded them as pertinent. This can be attributed to that throughout the sorting process they had freedom to omit or relegate any views including the literature and CAPS views. Nevertheless, they did not only keep them within their ranking but they also regarded them as most important and others as important. Therefore, foregrounding the views from literature and CAPS meant that the curriculum should prioritise with them because they are significant. Not only did History teachers foreground the views from literature and CAPS, but they also backgrounded their personal views because they viewed them as least important when compared to the 'official' ones. This implies that when confronted by the views from literature and CAPS, History teachers allowed their personal views to give way to literature and CAPS views. It means that their personal views may always succeed the school history aspects prescribed in the curriculum. Therefore, even though

participating history teachers regarded some of their views as important they are quite aware that they are not as important as the views from literature and CAPS. For this reason, they backgrounded their personal views.

6.4.3. Conclusion

The blending of personal views and views from literature and CAPS had many influences on the views and history teachers' views. It brought some changes and in some cases no change at all. In cases where no changes were effected it meant that history teachers were never moved or destabilised by different views but instead maintained the status quo. On the other hand, in cases where changes occur it meant that these two sets of views affected each other or even interfered with other views. The epistemological picture that participating history teachers painted was that School History teaching should prioritise common or general knowledge and be followed by generic skills then historical thinking skills. Furthermore, School History teaching should address all the 'official' views and be backed by personal views. All in all, personal views have a very little role to play in the teaching of School History, as per participating history teachers.

6.5. Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to establish the collective issues that emerged from the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge as well as understand the effect of the manner they blended their personal views with views from the literature and CAPS. To this effect, the personal views of history teachers revealed two major themes which were underpinned by various aspects. These themes were knowledge and skills. All participating history teachers agreed that School History develops knowledge which can either be common/general knowledge or historical knowledge or political knowledge. They also asserted that School History promotes skills which are either generic or historical. Having identified these themes, they suggested that the priority for School History teaching should be the acquisition of common knowledge followed by generic skills. Thereafter, historical knowledge and historical skills can succeed. In other words, they viewed historical knowledge not as important as developing knowledge that is within learners' reach which is general knowledge.

Furthermore, the way participating history teachers ranked the views from literature and CAPS shows that according to them, CAPS should address common knowledge, historical knowledge

and generic skills as equally important. In order to reinforce this, when blending their personal views and views from literature and CAPS, they also prioritised the aspects that address common knowledge, historical knowledge and generic skills as the most important views in table 6.4.2. It also emerged from the views of participating history teachers that some of their personal views were important. In line with this, they sorted two personal views as important. These views were School History develops English communication skills and promotes good citizenship. In other words, the personal views of history teachers may shape the way they teach. To this effect, they ranked their personal views as important. This implies that their views cannot be side-lined or underestimated but instead can back-up the common and historical knowledge.

CHAPTER 7 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

7.1. Introduction

There are two chapters that have a close link to this chapter i.e. chapters five and six. These two chapters concentrated on the analysis of the data generated for this study which focused on understanding the views of South African history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. In chapter five, I dealt with the first level of analysis which I did by means of open coding. At this level I constructed the views of individual participants on School History as specialised subject knowledge. In chapter six, the second level of analysis, I identified the common themes that emerged from all the views of individual participants. This chapter will therefore discuss the findings from the previous two chapters. Since I had two levels of analysis, I will collate the two sets of findings and discuss them as one. This implies that I synthesised the two sets of findings into a single conversation in order to obtain an authentic understanding of the views of history teachers on School History as specialized subject knowledge. Thereafter, I propose a theoretical orientation of why the participants viewed School History the way they did. Furthermore, I discuss and theorise my findings by comparing them to the literature. While doing this, I identified the similarities and dissimilarities between my findings and the literature, account for the disjunction between the two and propose theoretical and philosophical reasons for the divergence and adherence.

The discussion of the findings begins with an overview of the findings so that the reader can understand the major results of the study. In line with this, I highlight the major outcomes of the study. The findings, of this study revealed that the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge were multifarious. In the light of this, this chapter discusses findings under the following headings namely: historical knowledge, political knowledge, common knowledge, historical skills, generic skills and character education. This implies that according to the participating history teachers, School History as specialised subject knowledge encapsulated all of the above-mentioned views as gleaned from chapters five and six. These are the patterns that emerged from the data analysis of the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge and will be discussed below. According to Creswell, (2009) patterns are interconnected sets of concepts and relationships. Also, Cohen et al., (2011) refer to patterns as codes that occur together. On the other hand, Welman et al., (2005) argue that patterns are codes that connect different sections of the text

and help the researcher to create a more meaningful whole. To this effect, I used numerous patterns in this study in order to create a meaningful whole on the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. Therefore, the section below discusses and addresses the first research question which was: what are the views of South African history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge?

7.2. The views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge

This section together with section 7.3. below addresses or responds to the first research question which is: What are the views of rural South African history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge? In other words, this section discusses the views of selected South African history as they were presented.

7.2.1. Historical knowledge

According to the history teachers, School History as specialised subject knowledge encapsulates certain historical knowledge. Their view was that it contributes towards the acquisition of historical knowledge. One of these views was what they regarded as significant in terms of world events. In line with this, Sipho, for example, argued "School History creates awareness about significant world events". This is in line with the view of Arthur and Phillips, (2000) who argue that history learners should be taught how to assess the significance of the main events, people and changes studied. Also, some scholars (Seixas & Peck, 2004; Haydn & Harris, 2010; Kallaway, 2012) have identified historical significance as an element of historical thinking. The views of history teachers are thus complemented by the views from the literature. Both the history teachers and scholars agree that learners should look at significant world events deeply and critical in order to understand how they unfolded. When learners look at significant world events critically they can develop historical thinking skills. Therefore, according to the history teachers School History is about significant events that shaped the lives of historical actors thus strengthening the specialised subject knowledge of School History.

Another finding suggests that School History as specialised subject knowledge is about family history. The view of history teachers was that School History deals with family origins, background and identity. To this effect, Zanele asserted that "School History equips learners with knowledge about identity which is in line with family history". Also, Zanele posited "School History gives learners knowledge about their background and development". In line with this, some scholars have argued that School History is about the origin of people and their

background (Stolten, 2003; Cole & Barsalou, 2006; Meyer, Blignaut, Braz and Bunt, 2008). On the same note Cole and Barsalou, (2006) go on to argue that if one does not know his/her history, he/she suffers from amnesia. The views of history teachers prove to be substantive when compared to those presented by scholars. According to the history teachers, School History creates awareness about identity, family origins and background. This view is not farremoved from that of certain scholars (Stolten, 2003; Cole & Barsalou, 2006) who also emphasise the relationship between School History and identity, background and family origins. Therefore, the support of history teachers for the importance of studying about the family history through family origins, backgrounds and identity, although not part of CAPS, was noticed. The study about family history may make learners understand where they and their families come from.

History teachers also submitted that School History emphasises the importance of the chronology of historical events. Sipho postulated in this regard that "historical time promotes and develops chronology of events". In addition, Siyanda argued "historical time is about chronology of events and understanding timeline". This finding is supported by Arthur and Phillips, (2000) who argue that chronology has a central role to play in the learner's historical understanding. Crawford, (2013) likewise, supports this view by arguing that chronology helps to measure time periods relative to historical events in order to establish which event is old and which is young. This suggests that history learners are at the better and convenient position where they receive expertise in relation to the importance and meaning of chronology and historical time. As per history teachers, it is easy for learners to understand chronology of events and timeline because they deal with that regularly during history lessons. This means that chronology develops historical understanding for learners. In addition, Haydn and Harris, (2010) classify chronology as one of the key concepts of history. This is in line with Seixas and Peck, (2004) who regard chronology as one of the 'Big Six' concepts. In other words, chronology and historical time are some of the concepts that define history. Therefore, those learners who have studied history should be well conversant with these concepts. In the light of this the emphasis of history teachers on the importance and relevant of chronology is substantive. Surprisingly, after outlining everything pertaining to the importance of chronology but participating history teachers ranked it as least important. This creates a question whether they had enough understanding of what they were saying or not. One would have expected history teachers to rank historical time at a better place than least category considering the meaning of the views they presented.

Furthermore, the participating history teachers argued that School History is about heritage and preservation. Some evidence (Meyer et al., 2008; CAPS document for History, 2011; Stolten, 2003) suggests that when history learners complete schooling they should understand their present in relation to their heritage. Also, Ashworth and Larkham, (2013) assert that history is used to shape socio-cultural identities. It is clear that knowledge about heritage is important in informing historical knowledge. If learners have acquired this knowledge about heritage they may understand the meaning and the value of heritage. Furthermore, they may understand how they relate to the heritage as citizens of the country. This can also help them understand the diverse culture within their country and also value their socio-cultural activities. Therefore, if learners can understand and value the heritage, they may realise the need to preserve it for the generations to come.

The findings also suggest that School History deals with the development of countries from ancient time to the present. In support of this, Sizwe alluded to "learners acquire knowledge" about developments and changes that occurred in the past in their societies and country at large". In this regard Jonathan suggested that "School History encapsulates change and development in the sense that development is rooted in change". Furthermore, Grever et al., (2011) argue that School History contains history of a particular country which emphasises the major features of the past including developments. Also, Husbands et al., (2003) posits that School History enables learners to know and identify historical actors who played a crucial role in the development of the country. Lastly, Seixas and Peck, (2004) and Seixas, (2006) contend that School History is about continuity and change. According to these scholars, continuity is analogous to development. Therefore, it means that there is a link in knowing how development and change took place in the past and understanding how development and change can take place in the present. The learners who have studied about development and change may easily understand how development and change take place unlike those who never studied about development and change. Also, learners who have studied about development and change may easily understand the importance of development and change in the lives of learners and individuals at large because they know the effects of developments and changes that took place in the past.

Another finding provides evidence that historical knowledge School History is about big men who played a pivotal role in leadership in different countries. Joseph argued that "many leaders who have led African countries had an interest in School History during their school days and examples are Robert Mugabe, Nelson Mandela, Kenneth Kaunda and Hastings Banda to

mention but a few". In support of Joseph, Bethel emphasised "when Joseph Stalin of Russia saw the Russia's economic conditions deteriorating in early 1900, he planned for the future". The examples that participating history teachers alluded to are a clear indication that according to them, history is about men not women. The view of history teachers is not peculiar to the literature because many scholars (Clay, 1992; Conell, 1996; Manzo, 2004; Hutchins, 2011; Maylam, 2011; Naidoo, 2014) also alluded to the importance of big men in history. Naidoo, (2014) argues that the concept of "big men" can be traced back to the 19th century when it was used to explain history that was influenced by "great men" or heroes. This means that the concept of "big men" is not something new but has been there for at least more than two centuries. Naidoo, (2014) goes on to argue that these "big men" are role models in their communities; their heroic deeds and virtuous conduct inspire their followers. The argument of Naidoo, (2014) implies that "big men" are measured through their deeds and conduct. This view is supported by Clay (1992) who regards "big men" as leaders who managed to overcome their unstable and underdeveloped political systems. This means that through the positive actions, "big men" managed to fight political battles successfully hence they are called "big men". The argument of Clay, (1992) complements the view of history teachers who submitted that "big men" were Kenneth Kaunda, Nelson Mandela, Robert Mugabe and Hastings Banda. These are the "big men" who fought for the independence of their respective African countries. In other words, the achievement of independence was one of the positive deed of these African leaders hence history teachers referred to them as "big men". Therefore, the "big men" were those men who played pivotal role during the liberation struggle in different African countries.

Lastly, the findings suggest that School History as specialised subject knowledge is viewed as is about the transition of South Africa from apartheid to democracy. To support this finding Sizwe argued "School History equips learners with knowledge about transformation of South Africa from apartheid to democracy". This was an emphasis that apartheid and democracy are amongst the factors that School History covers and should cover. Furthermore, Jonathan asserted "history learners also learn about struggle for freedom since they learn about historical actors who played pivotal role during the struggle for freedom or democracy". One of the struggles against apartheid was the construction of the kind of education system to replace apartheid education (Kallaway, 2012) which was spearheading apartheid policies and practices. In the light of this, Msila (2007, p.151) contends that the main goals of the new educational system introduced by the new democratic government in 1994 were "to create a new South African identity that encompasses critical consciousness, to transform South

African society, to promote democracy and to magnify learner involvement in education". It is notable that the view of history teachers about transition of South Africa from apartheid to democracy was not peculiar to the literature. One of the mechanisms for uprooting apartheid was through transforming education system which was to address the values of the new government (Dean & Sieborger, 1995) and promote democracy. In summary, history teachers envied the important role that School History play in equipping learners about how South Africa did away with apartheid and promoted democracy which was contrary to apartheid.

In conclusion, history teachers viewed School History as a relevant and important subject which equips learners with certain historical knowledge in relation to significant world events, family history, chronology of events, heritage, development of countries from ancient times to date, "big men" who led different international countries and transition from apartheid to democracy. All these views from history teachers complemented the views of different scholars. In other words, the manner history teachers alluded to the School History and historical knowledge was also supported by the literature.

7.2.2. Common knowledge

The participating history teachers asserted that School History does not only equip learners with historical knowledge but is about common knowledge as well. According to Chew, (2013), common knowledge exists if several humans share a piece of information and are very conscious of the fact that they share it, and know that others are also aware of their consciousness. Furthermore, Edwards and Mercer, (2013) refer to common knowledge as a shared understanding. Jeong and Chi, (2007) in turn argues that common knowledge is the knowledge that all collaborating partners have. Therefore, common knowledge is about the knowledge that people know and share, and it is known that others have the same knowledge. The participating History teachers argued that School History is about racial identification. In this regard Zanele stated, "School History helps learners to identify themselves as either Zulus or Indians or Whites or Coloureds". This view is supported by Menchaca, (2001) when arguing that the history knowledge can be used to understand racial present as well as racial identification. In other words, School History equips learners with what Kim, (2012) refers to as the person's identification within a socially designated racial group with identification influenced by socialization around races. It is more than interesting that this view from history teachers was not far-removed from the literature because even some scholars regard that School History is the role player in promoting knowledge about racial identification. In other words, the way history teachers viewed racial identification related to how scholars viewed it.

Another finding related to common knowledge suggests that School History is viewed as promoting social responsibility for learners. In other words, by studying School History learners develop knowledge about their responsibility in their societies. In this regard Sipho claimed "societal responsibility teaches history learners to be responsible in their societies". Also, Sizwe argued "School History prepares learners to be responsible in their societies as young ones and adults to be". This view supports one of the aims of the CAPS which is to produce learners who can show responsibility towards the environment and health of others (CAPS for History, 2011). This implies that School History promotes social responsibility. In this regard, Tambyah, (2017) also stress that one of the aims of School History is to foster an informed and responsible citizenry through a deep understanding of history. This suggests that learners who have studied history may have a better understanding of societal responsibility since School History emphasises the importance and relevance of societal responsibility. In support of this view, Yilmaz, (2008) states that one of the fundamental goals of history teaching is to help learners become responsible and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about societal issues confronting local, national and global community. The view of Yilmaz is further reinforced by Husbands et al., (2003) who affirm that School History can play a modest part in creating responsible and questioning citizens. Therefore, it is clear that the view of history teachers about the importance of School History in promoting and developing learner responsibility in their societies.

This study also revealed that School History as specialised subject knowledge is viewed as having the potential to develop common knowledge in relation to international relations. Joseph argued that "School History may produce learners who are globally competitive thus able to take part in international space". International relations are the relations of states based on negotiating political, social and economic strategies or are cross-border transactions, and are diplomatic, military and strategic relations between countries (Brown & Ainley, 2005). According to the participating history teachers, this is the kind of knowledge that School History furnishes learners with. To reinforce the importance of international relations, Dunne, (2003) argues that international relations hopes to promote the common interests and rules (Burchill et al., 2013), and moral values (Roach, 2016) which enhance sociality amongst the states. Learners should know how different states work together to promote shared interests and values. According to history teachers the study about international relations equips learners with common knowledge which is necessary for understanding the relations between South

Africa and international countries. Therefore, the views of history teachers were in line with the views from different scholars. This means the views of history teachers complemented the views in the literature pertaining to School History and societal responsibility.

Another striking finding to emerge from the data is that participating history teachers alluded to aspects that CAPS identified as supporting good citizenship (CAPS for History, 2011). In this regard, Sipho argued "School History promotes skills that lead to good citizenship", while Joseph claimed "School History is about good citizenship". This view is supported by Hearn and Tregenza, (2014) when they argue that good citizenship is about qualities of character which serve as foundation of national strength and these qualities are discipline, self-reliance and patriotism. Reichert, (2016) in turn asserted that good citizenship is about knowing what happens in your country and other countries, being politically aware, participating in community issues and organizations and partake in activities that promote human rights and protect environment. Schoeman, (2006) in her research provides supports to the view held by history teachers that if learners have acquired proper knowledge relating to good citizenship they can reflect critically, understand and accepts their rights and responsibilities. It means that the views of history teachers about good citizenship and School History were substantive since they were in line with the views of the scholars. In summary, the views of history teachers were not weird to the existing literature

In summary, history teachers viewed School History as a significant subject because it furnishes learners with common knowledge, that is knowledge outside of history, which is informed by racial identification, social responsibility, international relations and good citizenship. It was good to note that the views of history teachers were not far-removed from the literature.

7.2.3. Political knowledge

The findings also revealed that School History as specialised subject knowledge is viewed as being about political knowledge. In other words, as per the views of the participating history teachers School History educates learners about political issues. One of the political issues history teachers alluded to was the constitution. For history teachers, School History addresses the constitution of the Republic of South Africa. To support this, Zanele asserted: "School History encapsulates the clauses of the constitution of Republic of South Africa". Also, Siyanda argued "history learners study the constitution via School History, thus becoming well versed about the issues entailed in it". In the light of this, Arthur and Phillips, (2000) argue that School

History is closely related to issues of power and values. The issues of power are embroiled in the constitution and the government uses the constitution to exercise its authority and exercise its power. Also, Tambyah, (2017) contends that School History should be harnessed to further the national goals. The major structure that encapsulates the national goals is the constitution of each and every country. In other words, School History via the constitution can make learners aware of the national goals that govern the country. Husbands et al., (2003) submit that School History is a means of national identity, national sentiment and common cultural heritage. This begins to say that School History addresses pertinent issues of the constitution because national identity, national sentiment and cultural heritage are all enshrined in the constitution. Therefore, School History plays a major role in addressing issues that are encapsulated in the constitution of Republic of South Africa.

To strengthen the development of political knowledge via School History, the participating history teachers argued that School History equips learners with leadership styles. This implies that via School History learners acquire knowledge about leadership that might make them leaders in the future. In line with this, Jonathan asserted "School History shapes the learners' leadership abilities and characters". Also, Sipho argued "learners learn to choose leadership qualities and styles they prefer". It is clear that for the history teachers, School History prepares learners for leadership positions and governance. According to Wheeler, (2008), leadership is about the ability to anticipate, prepare and get positioned for the future, mobilise and focus resources and energy on the factors that make a difference and will position one for success in future. So, learners are, as is argued by the partipating history teachers, at the better position of knowing how to mobilise people for future success because they learnt and saw how historical leaders performed their duties for the success of their countries. Therefore, leadership enhances and aims for collective outcome (Veldman, 2012) through democratic processes that are the responsibility of the government and citizens. Therefore, this finding was consistent with the existing literature.

In the view of the participating history teachers, School History is also about values. The study revealed that School History is viewed as having the ability to enable learners develop an understanding of values. One of the teachers, Sizwe submitted that "School History addresses and deals with basic values of the constitution". Schwartz, (2006, p.1) refers to values "as the criteria people use to evaluate actions, people and events". Narasimhan et al., (2010) contend

that the behaviour is the base for the values and value commitment leads to the worth of an individual. The manner and level people adhere and commit to the values, determine how worthy and respectful they are in terms of morals. In line with this argument, the History teachers argued that values guide the behaviour to the expected and anticipapted positive direction. Therefore, people may behave well and better if they observe values. The significance of values is reinforced by Sipho who also claimed "as Africans we have some values and attitude that need to be instilled in our children because they have evaporated, thus learners are misbehaving". Those individuals, it can be deduced, who are not adhering and honouring values tend to misbehave. In this regard Schwartz, (2012) submits that values characterise cultural groups, societies, and individuals, to trace change over time and explain motivational bases of attitudes and behaviour. According to history teachers human behaviour is central to values in the sense that if one adheres to values, he/she may behave well unlike the one who do not observe and conform to values. Therefore, the manner history teachers viewed School History was in line with the way scholars viewed it.

The values that the history teachers regarded as important and alluded to were tolerance, human rights, Ubuntu, respect, honesty, discipline and democracy. Mendes, (2014) states that the values have to be always attached both to person who acts and things on which the person acts. Therefore, values are meaningless without the individual actions. In other words, people care about the values if individuals are involved and therefore, values are embedded to human action. For example, the values of the group often pull the group together (Douglas, 2013) and therefore, learners should contribute towards the values of a group since they are group members. However, they might not work in tandem with other societal members if they are unaware of what values are and what are their roles and responsibilities in values. Since they have studied certain values in School History, they know and understand their role and responsibilities within the society. Mendes, (2014) asserts that values are human creation out of nothing, embodied mental images, associated with emotions, practical and intentional. The values are therefore not specific to a particular aspect of human behaviour but are about various aspects that affect human beings. On the other hand, Schwartz, (2012) adds that values are beliefs, desirable goals, transcend specific actions and situations, serve as standards or criteria, ordered by importance and guide action. The values address the human behaviour in totality. Therefore, values must be uncompromisingly adhered to regardless of the situation and this adherence is not for immediate outcome (Narasimhan et al., 2010) but long term purpose. The learners should hopefully be aware that the issue of values is not meant for a short period of time but it is something that everybody should adhere to unremittingly. It is notable that the views of history teachers were not strange to the existing literature. The great emphasis was that through School History learners receive exposure on a number of values that are incumbent for moral education.

In summary, history teachers viewed School History as a significant subject that develops political knowledge for learners in three different aspects. These aspects were constitution, leadership styles and the values. Most notably was that these views were also in line with the existing literature.

7.2.4. Skills

In addition to historical knowledge, common knowledge and political knowledge, the history teachers submitted that School History develops both generic and historical skills. In other words, according to the participating history teachers School History as specialised subject knowledge is about skills. The historical skills that history teachers referred to were historical thinking and critical or reasoning skills. To this effect, Joseph submitted "School History engages learners with a number of activities that develop their thinking skills". Additionally, Siyanda contended "these skills prepare learners to cope with challenges of higher education" It means that history teachers saw a great necessity for School History in sharpening skills that learners need and may apply in post-school situations. These views are supported by Abbott, (2009) who argues that these skills and qualities of mind are identical to those needed by a range of employers. In line with these views, Yilmaz, (2008/2009; Pattiz, 2004) asserts that teachers should acquaint learners with historical methodology that can help them facilitate decision making skills needed in life outside the classroom walls So, the view of history teacher was that School history should promote and develop skills that may help learners with the life after school completion. On the same note, Boulton-Lewis et al., (2001) contend that School History should transmit and develop a certain level of skills and understanding of learners. There is a close link betwixt the views of both history teachers and views from scholars. Both of them view School History as very important since it develops skills that enable learners to think critically, make informed decisions and display qualities of mind.

In line with the views of history teachers on certain historical skills, Yilmaz, (2008/2009; Bain, 2005; Sandwell & Heyking, 2014) asserts that School History should aim at developing historical thinking and reasoning skills so that learners can recognise if they are exploited and manipulated by certain interest groups. They may then also, apply these skills in other

situations. In addition to historical thinking, Boulton-Lewis et al., (2001) remark that School History should lead to intellectual development or conceptual change and Abbott, (2009) talks about intellectual independence. Intellectual development means that learners have achieved envisaged or targeted skills and they can use their reasoning power independently. Also, Pattiz, (2004) argues that School History should be taught to critically examine, evaluate complex information and analyse multiple perspective. Therefore, the views of history teachers were that School History develops historical thinking and reasoning skills that are critical and should be part of individual characters. The way history teachers viewed School History was consistent with the existing literature. In other words, viewed School History as very important in terms of developing historical skills.

In addition to the skills mentioned above history teachers accentuated that School History as specialised subject knowledge develops certain generic skills. The most important generic skill they alluded to was English language communication. They argued that the improvement of level of English communication is apriority for a number of rural schools and communities. To this effect, Sizwe argued "School History engages learners with a number of activities that educate them to express themselves freely". To support this view further, Sipho posited "School History is a mechanism to develop and improve the English language communication skill for history learners". According to Siyanda, "history learners enrich their English language vocabulary, via the study of School History". This view about English communication skill is supported by Gardiner, (2008) when arguing that learners in rural areas want to learn English and be fluent in it. In summary, the development of English communication skill was not only an important view for history teachers but even the literature supports this view. It is momentous that the view of history teachers on English communication skill supports one of the aims of the NCS Grades R-12 which is to produce learners who can communicate effectively using language skills (CAPS document for History, 2011).

Other generic skills that history teachers referred to were analysis, evaluation, information sharing and problem solving skills. In this regard, Joseph argued 'past human actions that learners learn about via School History involve analysis and evaluation of the actions of the past'. In addition to the skills mentioned by Joseph, Bethel stated problem solving'. In line with this, Jonathan contended 'these skills prepare learners to cope with challenges of higher education'. If learners have developed these skills, they may cope with the challenges of the

higher education sector. To support the views of history teachers regarding generic skills, Abbott, (2009) alludes to that these generic skills and qualities of mind are identical to those needed by a range of employers. This begins to say that School History equips learners with these kind of skills that can enable learners to get employment. Also, Arthur and Phillips, (2000) submit that School History encourages learners to organise historical information and communicate their understanding within a variety of writing frames. The view of history teachers was complemented by Pattiz, (2004) when arguing that School History should be taught to critically examine, evaluate complex information and analyse multiple perspective'. History teachers alluded to some of the skills that are encapsulated in CAPS document for History which are to produce learners who can organise, analyse, collect and critically evaluate information (CAPS document for History, 2011). This implies that history teachers shared the skills that CAPS envisaged. Therefore, these are the generic skills that if acquired or developed properly, learners may cope with challenges they may come across in their future endeavours.

In summary, history teachers argued that School History develops both historical and generic skills. Their views were that via School History learners develop two important historical skills which are historical thinking and critical or reasoning thinking. They also argued that learners develop generic skills which are listening, evaluation, information sharing and problem solving skills via the study of School History. The views of history teachers on the role of School History in developing historical and generic skills were in line with the existing literature. Therefore, it means that School History is significant and has a potential to develop historical and generic skills.

7.2.5. Character education

The findings also revealed that School History as specialised subject knowledge is viewed as having the ability to provide a character education for learners. In other words, it can develop learners' characters in numerous ways. The history teachers submitted that School History promotes life skills and lessons which develop characters. In line with this, Sipho asserted "School History is about life skills that history learners need in order to live a better life". To reinforce this view further, Joseph stated "School History teaches history learners life skills and acceptance in the society". In line with this Husbands et al., (2003) argue that School History should develop and promote life skills by helping learners question the world around them, think independently and critically, evaluate the evidence before judgement and strive for balance. The development of life skills and life lessons develops ability for the learners to cope

with life after the completion of school attendance. In the light of this, Meyer et al., (2008) argue that learners should not only be equipped with the accounts of the past but to also prepare them for life. Therefore, School History equips learners with proper skills that can make them handle issues of the world responsibly and effectively.

In another attempt to prove the importance of School History in developing characters, history teachers argued that School History promotes ethical behaviour. In line with this, Sipho affirmed "School History exposes history learners to ethical behaviour which thereafter may promote their characters". To support this view, Jonathan postulated "School History teaches history learners to be mindful of their actions so that they do not suffer negative consequences and in this way they learn to behave ethically". In support of this view, Narasimhan et al., (2010) contend that the ethical behaviour is the base for the values and value commitment leads to the worth of an individual. This suggests that as learners behave themselves ethically, they may also develop and adhere to the prevalent values of the society.

In summary, the views of history teachers were that School History develops characters of learners. They argued that School History develops and promotes life skills and life lessons, and ethical behaviour and all these views build learner characters. Fortunately, not only did history teachers viewed School History as this important but even scholars shared the same views.

7.3. The views of history teachers in relation to CAPS and literature

The views that history teachers presented were not strange to the literature. Their views were provincial, or based on the region where they came from, parochial and archaic. Most of the views from history teachers were removed from the contemporary developments as found in the literature and CAPS. This suggests that the views of history teachers were somehow outdated when compared to CAPS. This begins to say that they had limited/partial views that aligned to the recent developments. In the light of this, history teachers elaborated on thinking skill though they could not name it directly. They may have felt intimidated by it when it came across their views. This is another indication that history teachers were not updated in terms of History curriculum issues, otherwise they would have directly elaborated on thinking skill as one of the critical skills that School History seeks to promote and develop. In other words, thinking skill was foreign to history teachers.

History teachers were very skilful in pretending to agree with thinking skill as the most important aspect of School History as specialized subject knowledge. They did this when they sorted cards when confronted by their own views and those from the literature and CAPS. At this time, they started ranking it as the most important view whereas they did not mention anything relating to it when presenting their own views. The reality is that the thinking skill did not fit into their views of School History as specialised subject knowledge. History teachers had certain views which were partially compatible with the existing literature.

However, the fact that literature exists that supports the views of history teachers does not mean that everything was good. Even though the literature complemented the views of history teachers but it does not mean that everything that history teachers said about School History as specialized subject knowledge was good; some of the views they presented were not good at all. The following sections address the manner history teachers presented their views in relation to the existing literature.

7.3.1. Historical knowledge

History teachers argued that significant events create awareness of how historical events unfolded, how significant events impacted on the lives of learners and enable learners to understand and compare these events with contemporary history. From what history teachers alluded to it means that learners received the good historical knowledge that they need. However, history teachers did not emphasise the assessment of significant events so that learners can learn from them but only focused on understanding the contemporary history. This coincides with assessing the significant events that Arthur and Phillips, (2000) suggest. In other words, for history teachers, significant events were not good enough to teach learners the life lessons. Furthermore, history teachers did not emphasise the role of significant events in promoting historical thinking as contended by Seixas and Peck, (2004); Haydn and Harris, (2010) and Kallaway, (2012). Therefore, as much as history teachers presented the other side of significant events but, did not consider other critical aspects of significant events.

History teachers also argued that School History equips learners with the knowledge about their family origin, identity and background and all these aspects develop knowledge about the family history. The views of history teachers were complemented by Stolten, (2003), Meyer, Blignaut, Braz and Bunt, (2008) when they argue that School History is about the origin of people and their background. Also, Cole and Barsalou, (2006) contend that if one does not

know his/her history, he/she suffers from amnesia. In the light of this, history teachers only focussed on aspects that inform family history but did not allude to the effects of not knowing family history. Therefore, the views of history teachers pertaining to family history were not good enough to warn learners about their ignorance of family history.

Another finding suggests that historical time inform learners bout chronology of events. This suggests that for history teachers, understanding historical time helps learners understand the chronology of events. This finding is supported by Arthur and Phillips, (2000) when they argue that chronology has a central role to play in the learner's understanding of historical events. Crawford, (2013) supports this view by arguing that chronology helps to measure time periods relative to historical events in order to establish which event is old and which one is young. On the same note, Haydn and Harris, (2010) classify chronology as one of the key concepts of history. In the light of this, even though history teachers elaborated on historical time in relation to chronology but they did not expound on the essence of historical time in measuring time thus enhancing the understanding of chronology. Furthermore, history teachers did not explain how historical time can help learners make sense of the chronology of events.

The findings also suggest that School History is about heritage and their preservation. According to history teachers, via School History learners learn about places of historical importance that should be preserved for next generations. In the light of this, Meyer et al., (2008; CAPS document for History, 2011; Stolten, 2003) state that when history learners complete schooling they should understand their present in relation to their heritage. Also, Ashworth and Larkham, (2013) assert that history is used to shape socio-cultural identities. On the contrary, history teachers did not explain how learners as individuals can benefit from understanding heritage. In other words, history teachers did not elaborate on individual learners in relation to heritage but were only interested in the importance of preserving heritage. Additionally, history teachers did not relate heritage with cultural identities as it is argued by Ashworth and Larkham, (2013). Since heritage relates to socio-cultural identities, not mentioning socio-cultural identities was one of the flaws of the views of history teachers. Therefore, the views of history teachers did not cover some of the aspects that inform heritage.

The results suggest that School History addresses development of countries from ancient times to date. The argument of history teachers was that development encapsulates the significant transformations and progressions that took place in different countries. History teachers also

submitted that development is rooted in change therefore change and development are inextricably interdependent. To support the views of history teachers on development, Grever et al., (2011) argue that School History contains history of a particular country which emphasise the major features of the past including developments. In a different perspective, Husbands et al., (2003) posit that School History enables learners to know and identify historical actors who played crucial roles in the development of the country. Lastly, Seixas and Peck, (2004) and Seixas, (2006) argue that School History is about continuity and change. Therefore, the views of history teachers were not strange to the literature. The loophole of the views from history teachers was that history teachers did not view development as one of the significant historical features of the past that should be treated as such. For history teachers, development was simply about any changes that took place in the past. Furthermore, history teachers did not acknowledge that any development or change was spearheaded by historical actors who did that out of patriotism.

Another finding suggests that School History is about "big men" who played major roles in leadership positions in different countries. The view of history teachers is not peculiar to the literature because many scholars (Clay, 1992; Conell, 1996; Manzo, 2004; Hutchins, 2011; Maylam, 2011; Naidoo, 2014) also alluded to the big men in history. Naidoo, (2014) argues that the concept of "big men" can be traced back in the 19^{th} century when it was used to explain history that was influenced by "great men" or heroes. This means that the concept of "big men" is not something new but has been there for more than two centuries. Naidoo, (2014) goes on to argue that these "big men" are role models in their communities; their heroic deeds and virtuous conduct inspire their followers. This view is supported by Clay (1992) who regards "big men" as leaders who managed to overcome their unstable and underdeveloped political systems. This means that through the positive actions, "big men" managed to fight political battles successfully hence they are called "big men". The argument of Clay, (1992) complements the view of history teachers who submitted that "big men" were Kenneth Kaunda, Nelson Mandela, Robert Mugabe and Hastings Banda. Therefore, according to history teachers School History is about men not women. History teachers did not view the "big men" as role models as Naidoo, (2014) argues. They, also, did not expound on the reasons that qualifies the "big men" as such. In other words, history teachers did not elaborate on the deeds or actions of these African leaders they viewed as "big men". Furthermore, history teachers did not explain the influence of the characters of these "big men" on other people. Therefore, the views of history teachers on the "big men" did not address a number of aspects but focussed on identifying them only not alluding to their responsibilities that qualified them as "big men".

According to history teachers, the last view that contributed to the development of historical knowledge was the knowledge about democracy. According to history teachers, knowledge about democracy is essential for learners since they are the citizens of the country. Learners should know how South Africa achieved its democracy. History teachers elaborated on some of the characteristics of democracy which were equal rights, democratic values and political systems. According to Yilmaz, (2008), School History should promote social understanding and civic efficacy on the part of students. One of the ways for promoting social understanding is through studying about democracy and School History equips learners with nitty-gritties of democracy. Kahne and Westheimer, (2003) also argue that young people need to be taught to make democracy work, engage civically, socially and politically. Learners can make democracy work, if they have good and enough understanding of what democracy is all about and history teachers are responsible for developing understanding of democracy. The history taught in schools should ideologically and politically link to the regime of that particular time (Dryden-Peterson & Siebörger, 2006). Since South Africa is led by the democratic regime, learners need to be aware of democracy so that they can fulfil the democratic aims of the government. History teachers only focused and elaborated on some of the characteristics of democracy but never elaborated on how democracy can work effectively for learners. Furthermore, history teachers did not expound on how democracy relate to the government or regime as outlined by Dryden-Peterson & Siebörger, (2006). According to history teachers, all the above views of this section informed historical knowledge. In addition to aspects that develop historical knowledge, history teachers also elaborated on aspects that develop general or common knowledge.

7.3.2. Common knowledge

One of the aspects they outlined was racial identification. The findings suggest that School History helps learners identify themselves as either Zulus or English or Indian or Coloureds. In other words, School History deals with racial issues. This view is supported by Menchaca, (2001) when arguing that the history knowledge can be used to understand racial present as well as racial identification. In other words, School History equips learners with what Kim, (2012) refers to as the person's identification within a socially designated racial group with identification influenced by socialization around races. The views of history teachers in relation

to racial identification were scanty in a sense that they never addressed many issues except to identify different races. In other words, history teachers did not relate the racial issues with society where people live. Therefore, history teachers did not address most of the issues in relation to racial issues.

Another finding suggests that School History promotes social responsibility. The argument of history teachers was that School History teaches learners about their responsibilities as citizens of their respective countries and big roles they are expected to play. Furthermore, learners are taught about the duties to perform in their diverse societies. History teachers also contended that School History deals with the bill of rights which encapsulates responsibilities for learners. This view supports one of the aims of the CAPS which is to produce learners who can show responsibility towards the environment and health of others (CAPS for History, 2011). This implies that School History promotes social responsibility. In this regard, Tambyah, (2017) also stress that one of the aims of School History is to foster an informed and responsible citizenry through a deep understanding of history. This suggests that learners who have studied history may have a better understanding of societal responsibility since School History emphasises the importance and relevance of societal responsibility. In support of this view, Yilmaz, (2008) states that one of the fundamental goals of history teaching is to help learners become responsible and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about societal issues confronting local, national and global community. The view of Yilmaz is further reinforced by Husbands et al., (2003) who affirm that School History can play a modest part in creating responsible and questioning citizens. The views of history teachers were complemented by the literature. However, history teachers did not mention anything about questioning societal issues. Therefore, most of the views that history teachers presented were in line with the literature.

This study also revealed that School History as specialised subject knowledge is viewed as having the potential to develop common knowledge in relation to international relations. International relations are the relations of states based on negotiating political, social and economic strategies or cross-border transactions, and are diplomatic, military and strategic relations between countries (Brown & Ainley, 2005). According history teachers, School History may produce learners who are globally competitive thus able to take part in international space. So, learners need to acquire this kind of knowledge so that they can compete with other international students. To reinforce the importance of international

relations, Dunne, (2003) argues that international relations hopes to promote the common interests and rules (Burchill et al., 2013), and moral values (Roach, 2016) which enhance sociality amongst the states. This begins to say that international relations are critical in order to ensure that different states socialise as it is the case with people. Unfortunately, the views of history teachers did not emphasise the socialisation process amongst the states.

Another finding suggests that School History promotes good citizenship. According to Hearn and Tregenza, (2014), good citizenship is about qualities of character which serve as a foundation of national strength and these qualities are discipline, self-reliance and patriotism. On the same note, Reichert, (2016) asserted that good citizenship is about knowing what happens in one's country and other countries, being politically aware, participating in community issues and organizations and partake in activities that promote human rights and protect environment. In line with this, history teachers elaborated that when learners have a good understanding of the values, respect, tolerance and life-skills they may become good citizens. Schoeman, (2006) adds that if learners have acquired proper knowledge relating to good citizenship they may reflect critically, understand and accepts their rights and responsibilities. History teachers focussed their their views on individuals and not nation when it comes to good citizenship. In other words, history teachers did not expound on how the whole country or nation may benefit from individuals who are good citizens. However, one can assume that if individuals can display signs of good citizenship, that can impact on the type of the nation that the country may have which is made up of good citizens. So, good citizenship is not only about individuals but the whole country at large. On the other hand, history teachers did not allude to the skills that good citizens may have which may enable learners to live a better life. This begins to say that history teachers only mentioned aspects they viewed to be promoting good citizenship. This on its own shows that the views of history teachers on good citizenship were not good enough.

In summary, history teachers viewed School History as a significant subject because it furnishes learners with common knowledge which is informed by racial identification, social responsibility, international relations and good citizenship. It was good to note that the views of history teachers were not far-removed from the literature.

7.3.3. Political knowledge

The findings also revealed that School History as specialised subject knowledge is viewed as being about political knowledge. In other words, as per the views of the participating history teachers School History educates learners about political issues. One of the political issues history teachers alluded to was the constitution. For history teachers, School History deals with the constitution of the Republic of South Africa. As participating history teachers address political issues relating to the constitution, they make learners aware on the certain significant clauses that are embroiled in the constitution. They also argued that School History enlighten learners about human rights, freedom of speech, tolerance and democratic values. In the light of this, Arthur & Phillips, (2000) argue that School History is closely related to issues of power and values. The issues of power are embroiled in the constitution and the government uses the constitution to exercise its authority and exercise its power. Also, Tambyah, (2017) contends that School History should be harnessed to further the national goals. The major structure that encapsulates the national goals is the constitution of each and every country. In other words, School History via the constitution can make learners aware of the national goals that govern the country. Husbands et al., (2003) submit that School History is a means of national identity, national sentiment and common cultural heritage. The participating history teachers did not associate the constitution with the issues of power. In other words, history teachers only focussed on what the constitution entails but not its function and purpose. Furthermore, participating history teachers did not associate the constitution with the national goals to be achieved and that are envisaged. In a nutshell, history teachers did not consider the constitution in relation to its national function but focussed on individual benefits. This begins to say that the views of history teachers pertaining to the constitution did not cater for a number of aspects that the constitution addresses; therefore, they were dearth.

The results also revealed that leaners develop political knowledge about leadership and leadership styles. History teachers argued that via School History learners develop political knowledge about democracy, autocracy, Ubuntu, political leaders and governance. According to Wheeler, (2008), leadership is about the ability to anticipate, prepare and get positioned for the future, mobilise and focus resources and energy on the factors that make a difference and will position one for success in future. So, learners are, as argued by the participating history teachers, at the better position of knowing how to mobilise people for future success because they learnt and saw how historical leaders performed their duties for the success of their countries. Therefore, leadership enhances and aims for collective outcome (Veldman, 2012)

through democratic processes that are the responsibility of the government and citizens. In the light of this, the views of participating history teachers did not cover numerous aspects that relate to leadership and leadership style. The views that history teachers presented did not cover, for example, the responsibilities of leaders and did not also relate leadership with future endeavours as outlined by Wheeler, (2008). Furthermore, the views of history teacher did not address the aims of leadership which amongst others to promote collective outcome. Therefore, the views of participating history teachers did not encapsulate most of the aspects that leadership covers.

The findings suggest that School History develops understanding of the values in learners. According to the participating history teachers, School History deals with basic values enshrined in the constitution. History teachers further elaborated that School History teaches learners to keep the values and comply with the constitution thus channelling the behaviour of learners. They also argued that there are values that have evaporated and need to be instilled. In line with this, participating history treachers eluded to tolerance, human rights, *Ubuntu*, respect, honesty, discipline and democracy values. As per the views of history teachers, the above mentioned values were the cornestone of the society. In other words, these values are similar to the foundation of the society. To put more clarity on the values, Schwartz, (2006, p.1) refers to values "as the criteria people use to evaluate actions, people and events". Also, Mendes, (2014) asserts that values are human creation out of nothing, embodied mental images, associated with emotions, practical and intentional. Furthermore, Schwartz, (2012) affirms that values are beliefs, desirable goals, transcend specific actions and situations, serve as standards or criteria, ordered by importance and guide action. Therefore, the argument of Narasimhan et al., (2010) that the behaviour is the base for the values and value commitment leads to the worth of an individual, is rational and substantive because values promote ethics and guide actions of individuals. To this effect, the manner and level people adhere and commit to the values, determine how worthy and respectful they are in terms of morals. In line with this argument, the History teachers argued that values guide the behaviour to the expected and anticipapted positive direction. Therefore, people may behave well and better if they observe values. In this regard Schwartz, (2012) submits that values characterise cultural groups, societies, and individuals, to trace change over time and explain motivational bases of attitudes and behaviour.

Mendes, (2014) argues that the values have to be always attached to both a person who acts and things on which the person acts. Therefore, values are meaningless without the individual actions. In other words, people care about the values if individuals are involved and therefore, values are embedded to human action. For example, the values of the group often pull the group together (Douglas, 2013) and therefore, learners should contribute towards the values of the society they belong to since they are group members. However, learners might not work in tandem with other societal members if they are unaware of what values are and what are their roles and responsibilities in values. Since they have studied certain values in School History, they know and understand their role and responsibilities within the society. On the other hand, the values address the human behaviour in totality. So, it means that learners are expected to uncompromisingly adhere to all the above-metioned values regardless of the situation and this adherence is not for immediate outcome (Narasimhan et al., 2010) but long term purpose. The views that history teachers presented covered some of the critical issues in relation to the values but also did not cover a number of issues. In the light of this, history teachers did not address the role of values in evaluating the actions of people and events as it is the case. Furthermore, history teachers did not look at values as the desired goals of the society. In other words, history teachers did not outline the relationship between the values and society. Also, history teachers did not look at the values as mental images as Mendes, (2014) argues. History teachers did not emphasise the role of values in bringing the group members together due to the values that are common and prevalent in them. Lastly, values are for a long term purpose and history teachers may have alluded to that but they did not. Therefore, the views of history teachers pertaining to understanding values did not cover a number of critical issues.

7.3.4. Skills

In addition to historical knowledge, common knowledge and political knowledge, history teachers submitted that School History develops generic and historical skills. In other words, School History is also about skills. They argued that via School History learners develop skills and skills prepare learners to cope with challenges of higher education. In support of this argument Abbott, (2009) argues that skills and qualities of mind are identical to those needed by a range of employers. In line with this, teachers should acquaint learners with historical methodology that can help learners facilitate decision making skills needed in life outside the classroom walls. This suggests that the argument of history teachers that School History prepares learners to cope with the outside world is substantive and rational. On the same note, Boulton-Lewis et al., (2001) contend that School History should transmit and develop a certain

level of skills and understanding of learners. So, it is one of the responsibilities of School History to develop skills that learners need.

History teachers alluded to two historical skills which are historical thinking and critical or reasoning skills. In line with this, School History should develop historical thinking and reasoning skills so that learners can recognise if they are exploited and manipulated by certain interest groups (Yilmaz, 2008/2009; Bain, 2005; Sandwell & Heyking, 2014). This suggests that history teachers may apply these skills in other situations since history teachers have equipped them. In addition to historical thinking, Boulton-Lewis et al., (2001) remark that School History should lead to intellectual development or conceptual change thus intellectual independence (Abbott, 2009). The intellectual development means that learners have achieved envisaged or targeted skills and they can use their reasoning power independently and appropriately. Also, Pattiz, (2004) argues that School History should be taught to critically examine, evaluate complex information and analyse multiple perspective. Therefore, these are some of the skills that learners should acquire to enhance their historical thinking and reasoning skills. According to Bain, (2004) if learners have acquired anticipated skills they can use the 'Big Six' historical concepts (Seixas & Peck, 2004) which are significance, cause and effect, change and continuity, evidence, historical accounts and empathy efficiently. Learners cannot effectively and appropriately use these concepts if are acquainted with proper meaning and understanding. The views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge in relation to historical skills were momentous but did not address and clarify some of the issues. History teachers did not emphasise the importance of skills in relation to the cognitive development of learners. Furthermore, history teachers did not put more clarity and elaboration on the benefits of having knowledge of historical skills. Moreover, they did not expound on how historical skills can help with the mastering of other historical issues.

In addition to historical skills, history teachers accentuated that School History develops the generic skills as well. The most important skill that history teachers alluded to was English language communication. They argued that the development of the ability to communicate better using English language is an outcry and priority for a number of rural schools. To this effect, parents send their learners to attend former Model C schools or urban schools in order to improve the English communication skill. In line with this, history teachers asserted that School History helps learners develop their level of English communication skill. History teachers argued that knowledge about English language can help learners to express themselves

freely using English language. According to history teachers, School History is a mechanism to develop and improve the English language communication skill for history learners. They argued that learners also develop vocabulary thus improving the level of English communication skill. The view of history teachers pertaining to English communication skill was supported by one of the aims of the NCS Grades R-12 which is to produce learners who can communicate effectively using language skills (CAPS document for History, 2011). This is further supported by Gardiner, (2008) when arguing that learners in rural areas want to learn English and be fluent in it. Therefore, it means that the views of history teacher in relation to English communication skill were in line with the literature.

Other generic skills that history teachers alluded to were listening, information sharing and planning skills. According to history teachers, the study of School History develops planning skill. They also argued that School History educates learners to air their views freely and listen to others. Furthermore, learners learn to share the knowledge they acquired with others. History teachers alluded to some of the skills that are encapsulated in CAPS document for History which are to produce learners who can organise, analyse, collect and critically evaluate information (CAPS document for History, 2011). History teachers shared some of the skills that are envisaged by CAPS. However, they did not elaborate on a number of generic skills like analysis, evaluation and discussion.

7.3.5. Character education

The findings revealed that School History develops characters of learners. School History develops characters developing positive self-esteem and self-concept, promoting life skills and life lessons and promote ethical behaviour. History teachers argued that School History equips learners with knowledge which promotes the self-esteem of learners. In addition to self-esteem, history teachers submitted that School History promotes life skills and life lessons. In line with this, history teachers asserted that learners need life lessons in order to live a better life. History teachers also argued that via School History learners are exposed to ethical behaviour. They went on to argue that ethical behaviour promotes good characters. and it teaches learners to be mindful of their actions so that they do not suffer negative consequences of their actions. In a summary, for history teachers School History develops characters via promoting ethical behavior, developing positive self-esteem and life skills. These views were unique to history teachers.

7.3.6. Conclusion

The views of history teachers were diverse but centred on the acquisition of knowledge via the study of the School History as specialised subject knowledge. The views that history teachers elaborated on were about significant world events, family history, chronology of events, heritage, development of countries from ancient times to date, "big men" who led different international countries and transition from apartheid to democracy. All these views were first, related to historical knowledge and secondly, complemented by the literature. In other words, the views of history teachers were in line with some of the existing literature. Furthermore, the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge were informed by racial identification, social responsibility, international relations and good citizenship, and these views promoted and developed general or common knowledge. This begins to say that history teachers viewed School History as capable of equipping learners with common knowledge.

History teachers also viewed School History as capable of developing political knowledge of learners via the study of the constitution, leadership styles and the values. In addition to historical, common and political knowledge, history teachers also viewed School History as developing and promoting both historical and generic skills. The historical skills they elaborated on were historical thinking and critical thinking. Whereas the generic skills were analysis, evaluation, information sharing and problem solving. What is momentous was that all the views that history teachers alluded to were not unique to them only but were backed and supported by the literature. In other words, some scholars (Boulton-Lewis et al., 2001; Pattiz, 2004; Sandwell & Heyking, 2014) also argued for the same skills to be promoted due to their significance in learners. Therefore, the above views explains how history teachers viewed School History as specialised subject knowledge.

7.4. The factors that influenced the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge

The second research question was: Why do rural South African history teachers have the views they have on School History as specialised subject knowledge? In response to this question, this section discusses reasons that shaped the views of history teachers. The views of the history teachers on school history as specialised subject knowledge were shaped by the epistemologies that they held. In other words, the nature, scope and sources of historical knowledge (DeRose,

2002) determined the manner history teachers looked at school history as specialised subject knowledge. The kind of knowledge that history teachers had in their mind affected the way they viewed school history. The kind of knowledge that history teachers had was also underpinned by different senses which are propositional knowledge, acquaintance knowledge and practical 'how to knowledge'. As a result, when history teachers presented their views they already had their own epistemologies.

There are several factors that shaped the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. These factors were:

- A deep rurality as experience,
- Their primary training as history teachers in a different era under apartheid when School History as a memory discipline under apartheid was the key as is borne out by their teaching experience of more than 20 years,
- Different curricula they endured over two political eras,
- Their lack of exposure and understanding of the specialised subject knowledge of School History.,
- History serves as a utilitarian value to the society and their possession of strong views.
- History teachers were set in their views on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

All these factors which shaped the views of history teachers are discussed in the following section.

7.4.1. A deep rurality as experience

There are numerous issues that define rurality which influenced the views of history teachers. Rurality is characterised by the unconducive conditions that affect effective and quality teaching (*Emerging Voices*, 2005; Gardiner, 2008; Hlalele, 2014). These conditions did not only affect teaching and learning but affected the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. When the history teachers presented their views on School History as specialized subject knowledge, they only considered the factors that affect rural schools and did not think broadly taking into cognizance other factors outside rurality. This manifested itself when they stressed the importance of improving English language communication which is one of the priorities of the rural schools. This begins to say that they did not think out of the rurality but their view was shaped by rurality.

Due to deep rurality, history teachers did not have adequate exposure on issues affecting the teaching and learning (Hlalele, 2014) of School History as specialized subject knowledge. In other words, rurality limited the specialized subject knowledge for School History that history teachers had. Since the views of history teachers were shaped by the views of history teachers, this automatically suggests that the views of history teachers were also limited to the inadequate knowledge that history teachers had. One of the incident that raised eyebrows and showed the lack of exposure and inadequate knowledge on School History as specialised subject knowledge was when one of the participating history teachers ranked historical time as the least important view whereas it is amongst the big six concepts that define history. If he had adequate knowledge about the nature of history, he would have known that he cannot regard it as least important since it defines history.

One of the rural experiences that affected the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge was the shortage of textbooks as programmatic curriculum to support NCS and then CAPS to facilitate better teaching and learning activities. This point is also supported by Gardiner, (2008) when arguing that teachers in rural areas work without enough material or human support. Consequently, history teachers are compelled to compromise the quality teaching in order to get teaching and learning activities taking place. Drawing on what they know from the past This compromise of quality teaching affected the knowledge history teachers had because they had to dig deep for the learners to benefit knowledge. In a long run this affected the specialised knowledge history teachers had thus affecting the views they had on School History as specialised subject knowledge. With this given awkward situation, history teachers were expected to adjust their views accordingly bearing in mind that some learners do not have textbooks. As they adjust their teaching style, this made history teachers view School History in a certain way. Therefore, the shortage of textbooks for learners in rural schools shaped the views history teachers had on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

Another rural factor that affected and shaped the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge was that most rural communities do not value education hence they do not support teaching and learning activities as expected. This suggests that history teachers are on their own since most parents do not bother themselves about getting involved with teaching and learning issues because they do not value education. In other words, the chances of history teachers improving their level of knowledge due to challenges from parents'

involvement are very slim. This meant that the views of history teachers on School History as specialized subject knowledge were not influenced by the views from parents due to the involvement with the school work for learners. However, the lack of understanding the value of education may have had a negative influence on the views of history teachers in the sense that the community do not encourage and support learners hence the only knowledge that matters is the one from the teacher. Even the way history teachers taught might have been characterized by the lack of enthusiasm which influenced the way they viewed School History as specialized subject knowledge. It was for this reason that Jonathan argued 'in some cases if there was a ceremony or function in the community most learners do not come to school on Mondays because of the hang-overs from the weekend'. Therefore, the lack of understanding the value of education influenced the manner history teachers looked at School History as specialised subject knowledge.

The views of participating history teachers were also influence by the illiteracy rate that defines most of the rural areas. This factor means that most parents cannot read and write. This is problematic because they cannot help their children with school work. This affected history teachers because they had to teach learners taking into cognizance that learners may not receive further assistance with school work. This illiteracy rate had an impact on how teaching takes place and how history teachers viewed School History as specialized subject knowledge. In other words, as history teachers look at School History as specialized subject knowledge they look at it as having no further assistance from parents. Therefore, as history teachers presented their views on School History, they may have borne in mind that parents do help learners with teaching and learning activities because of inability to read and write.

Furthermore, the views of participating history teachers were affected by the faction fights which are also popular in rural areas. These are the fights that are normally common in rural areas where regions within the same area fight over a certain issue. These fights are normally between members of different political parties whereby members fight over political parties they belong to. Sometimes these faction fights are caused by a fight or quarrel between two people who fought or quarrelled during a ceremony in the same area and it spreads to the entire region. When these fights break out, they interrupt teaching and learning activities learners become involved. It means that even history teachers should be cautious of what they say when teaching some of the themes in School History. For them to be careful and cautious, they need to be very selective of what they say. This selection and caution shaped the knowledge that

teachers had. In other words, it affected the knowledge that history teachers have thus affecting the views they have on School History as specialized subject knowledge.

In addition, the views of history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge were shaped by the values that define the rural area. Each and every society has its values that shape and determine how people in that particular area live. These values also shape the characters of learners. In line with this, Phillips, (2000) suggests that School History should be taught with an aim of pursuing the ethical values that add to learners' characters. This begins to say that the rural communities have their own values which define them. These values have an impact on how learners learn in schools and the values affect the knowledge that teachers hold. Consequently, these values shape the way history teachers looked at School History as specialised subject knowledge. Maybe it was for this reason that history teachers emphasized the importance of values to be incorporated in history teaching. This was in line with the argument of Elgström and Hellstenius, (2010) who argue that School History helps learners understand the value base of society. Even CAPS envisaged learners who are conversant with values and can act in the interest of the society (CAPS document for History, 2011). One of them, Bethel argued "there are values that have evaporated and need to be instilled; one of them is respect". This suggests that Bethel regarded respect as one of the values that are lacking. Therefore, values determined how history teachers viewed School History as specialized subject knowledge because they emphasized the importance of values as well as alluding to those that need to be revived in learners.

In conclusion, the views of history teachers on School History as specialized subject knowledge were shaped by several views. One of these views were a desire to improve the level of English communication skill for rural learners. This can be attributed to the isolation and lack of exposure and training on new developments and the experience of rurality which inhibit certain view of School History that is archaic. Another view was an inadequate exposure on issues affecting teaching and learning which made history teachers unaware of a number of historical issues. Moreover, the views of history teachers were shaped by the shortage of textbooks which is common in most rural areas. Furthermore, the views of history teachers were affected by the fact that most rural communities do not value education hence. The illiteracy rate also shaped the views of history teachers. In addition, the views of history teachers were affected by the faction fights that normally occur in rural areas. Lastly, the values that are prevalent and dominant in rural areas influenced the views of history teachers.

7.4.2. The primary training history teachers received in a different era when memory discipline under apartheid was the key

The finding suggests that most if not all history teachers who participated in the study received their primary training in different eras when memory discipline under apartheid was the key more than 20 years ago. This suggests history teachers received the kind of historical knowledge long ago when it served apartheid education (Stolten, 2003; Kallaway, 2012; Cole and Barsalou, 2006). By then, history teachers were automatically expected to teach the type of historical knowledge which focused on political history of a certain kind which had an apartheid agenda. This is because the School History is prescribed and approved by the government (Kitson & Pendry, 2003) and the government has national aims it fulfils through education policies. In other words, education system is structured according to the government policies. Therefore, the primary training which was masterminded by the apartheid government affected the views of history teachers on School History as specialized subject knowledge. In other words, this primary training created a background for history teachers which focused on race, tribalism, political history as memory discipline and not a disciplinary discipline which stood the test of time even in democratic era this background shaped the views of history teachers. History teachers presented various views emanating from the primary training that they received which affected their knowledge for School History as specialised subject knowledge.

The background knowledge that history teachers received in relation to teacher training affected the views they had on School History as specialized subject knowledge. Especially since no real subsequent interventionist training were experienced on new developments related to school history as specialized subject knowledge. This begins to say that they held on to the primary training historical knowledge they received long ago even in the new democratic dispensation. In other words, even during the era of CAPS and democracy they still strongly believed in the historical knowledge they received during primary training. The background historical knowledge that history teachers received was meant to perpetuate the political agenda. However, in due course the new system of government, which is democracy, superseded apartheid. This meant history teachers were expected to teach a curriculum aimed at perpetuating democracy instead of apartheid for which they received primary teacher training. They understood this as a rudimentary political construct but not as a way of viewing history. Under democratic South Africa School History was expected to make learners understand the new world they lived in. In the light of this, Grever et al., (2011) argued that

School History is meant to develop learners with a sophisticated understanding of the world in which they live. Unfortunately, when history teachers presented their views on School History as specialized subject knowledge they showed some elements that reflected the background knowledge they received during their primary training as history teachers.

The background or primary teacher training that history teachers received made them to associate history teaching with political issues like the constitution. This was one of the political issues that was used by the apartheid government to achieve its apartheid purposes. The primary training for history teachers exposed learners to this political issue. In the light of this, when history teachers presented their views they emphasized the same political issue that was part of the apartheid education. To support this, Zanele asserted "School History encapsulates the clauses of the constitution of Republic of South Africa". Also, Siyanda argued "history learners study the constitution via School History, thus becoming well versed about the issues entailed in it". During apartheid era the constitution was not taking care of human rights as it is the case under apartheid. As a result, history teachers still view the constitution as something very important to be taught and emphasised to learners. In other words, according to participating history teachers they still associated the constitution with the apartheid era when it was not adhered to and addressing and protecting the rights for South African citizens. In support of this, Kallaway, (2012) and CAPS document for History, (2011) also state that School History should help learners understand the South African constitution. If learners understand these political issues as encapsulated in School History, they may develop ability to effect positive changes in society and thus contribute to a more peaceful and just future (Cole and Barsalou, 2006)

In summary, history teachers based their views on the background knowledge they received during their primary training. even though they were in the democratic era where things were done differently, but they still viewed School History as important in addressing political issues that were abused during the apartheid era.

7.4.3. History teachers had to endure numerous curricula over two political eras

The fact that the participating history teachers had to endure numerous curricula in different political eras influenced the manner they viewed School History. In the end, they opted for the familiar or created a concoction of an understanding based on the familiar as a way to survive. These history teachers received exposure on history education during the apartheid era, Bantu

education. This type of education had its own motives which were meant to perpetuate apartheid. Soon after the end of apartheid in 1994, Curriculum 2005 superseded Bantu education. This new education system aimed at addressing the inequalities of Bantu education and instilling democratic ways of doing things. The Curriculum 2005 was replaced by the RNCS and NCS which also perpetuated democracy and addressed imbalances of the past. Both RNCS and NCS were replaced by CAPS. All these curricula meant that participating history teachers had to adapt to each of them since they taught School History which takes into account the needs and conditions specific to schools (Audigier & Fink, 2010) and prescribed by the national government. This had an impact on history teachers because they ended up confusing issues relevant to each curriculum. It is for this reason that they missed some of the issues that were the key to history and could not be forgotten or overlooked. They did not rank historical time as an important aspect of history since it underpins historical thinking. On the contrary, they emphasized racial identification which can be attributed to racial discrimination during apartheid. Furthermore, they elaborated on the promotion of patriotism. It should be remembered that during apartheid era patriotism was only meant for minority group of people since apartheid perpetuated racial discrimination in all aspects of life. This suggests the impact of background knowledge history teachers received during apartheid era. In other words, due to this exposure on different curricula history teachers were not conversant with major and current issues that affect the history teaching. Therefore, the exposure on different curricula that history teachers experienced influenced the views they held on School History as specialised subject knowledge.

7.4.4. Lack of exposure and understanding of the specialised subject nature of School History

The findings highlight that history teachers did not move beyond their initial training. History teachers had a liberty to rank aspects of either general or historical knowledge as most important, important or less important. When they were expected to use their discretion and rank these aspects, they opted for aspects that inform general knowledge instead of aspects that underpin historical knowledge. This is in line with the argument that if history teachers have in-depth knowledge of history (Ubuz & Yayan, 2010), they will have good understanding of all topics. On the contrary, if they do not have in-depth understanding history teachers cannot relay the required knowledge as expected. The ranking of aspects that relate to general knowledge as most important was a clear indication that history teachers never understood the essence of historical knowledge as opposed to general knowledge. This implies that history

teachers could not differentiate between the key elements of historical and general knowledge. One of the issues that made their choice of general knowledge over historical knowledge viewed as undermining the integrity of history was that historical knowledge develops historical thinking (Tamisoglou, 2010; Yimaz, 2008/2009) and reasoning skills (Nye et al., 2011). Also, historical knowledge is about knowledge of history as a valuable storehouse of information about how people and societies behaved and why complex species behaved as they did in social settings (Gilbert, 2011). These are some of the reasons that make historical knowledge significant. Therefore, it was surprising to find teachers who should be encouraging and imparting learners with historical knowledge, prioritizing with aspects that underpin general knowledge. According to them, School History is about racial identification, assuming responsibilities, South Africa and international relations, and good citizenship. To this effect, Zanele submitted "School History helps learners to identify themselves as either Zulus or Indians or Whites or Coloureds". On the other hand, Sipho affirmed "societal responsibility teaches history learners to be responsible in their societies". In addition, Sizwe submitted "School History prepares learners to be responsible in their societies as young ones and adults". Joseph asserted "teaching history learners about international relations can help produce learners who are globally competitive thus able to take part in international space". For Sipho "School History promotes the skills that lead to good citizenship". Joseph argued "nothing is as important as the development of a good citizenship via School History". These are all the views from participating history teachers which proved the importance of historical knowledge. However, what participating history teachers did when ranking these views is contrary to their views. In other words, what they mentioned was not represented by their ranking. If they had enough and appropriate knowledge of what history is all about, they would have understood the essence of historical knowledge hence they would rank aspects that underpin historical knowledge as the most important. On the contrary, they would not prioritise with aspects of general knowledge but those of historical knowledge.

The present findings also suggest that history teachers undermined aspects that inform historical knowledge. They declared aspects that reinforce historical knowledge as least important in comparison to aspects that inform common or general knowledge. This is another point that prove that history teachers lacked understanding of School History. History teachers are expected to always display a deep understanding of history since it is their specialisation. It is assumed that they have in depth disciplinary knowledge. This suggests that they should always be conversant with aspects that reinforce historical knowledge so that they can prove

their capabilities as history teachers. Having said that, when presenting their views participating history teachers alluded to a number of aspects that support historical knowledge. However, when ranking these aspects as opposed to those of general knowledge, they prioritized with aspects that strengthen common knowledge. One of these aspects was that historical knowledge is about significant world events and places. In line with this Sipho argued "School History creates awareness about significant world events". To support this view, Arthur and Phillips, (2000) argue that history learners should be taught how to assess the significance of the main events, people and changes studied. To reinforce the importance of historical significance, Seixas and Peck, (2004; Haydn and Harris, 2010; Kallaway, 2012) identified historical significance as an element of historical thinking. Surprisingly, participating history teachers did not know the importance of historical significance hence they declared it as least important.

The finding provides evidence that School History is about family origins, background and identity. To this effect, Zanele affirmed "School History equips learners with knowledge about identity in terms of family history". Also, Zanele posited "School History gives learners knowledge about their background and development". In line with this, Stolten, (2003; Cole and Barsalou, 2006; Meyer, Blignaut, Braz and Bunt, 2008) School History emphasises and is about the origin of people and their background. Cole and Barsalou, (2006) go on to argue that if one does not know his/her history, he/she suffers from amnesia. The intention was to support the importance of studying about the origins and backgrounds in history. In addition, School History deals with heritage. Meyer et al., (2008; CAPS document for History, 2011; Stolten, 2003) state that when history learners leave school they should understand their present in relation to their heritage. Also, Ashworth and Larkham, (2013) assert that history is used to shape socio-cultural identities. It is clear that knowledge about identities and heritage are important in informing historical significance.

Another finding suggests that School History develops understanding about chronology. Sipho postulated "historical time promotes and develop chronology of events". In addition, Siyanda argued "historical time is about chronology of events and understanding timeline". This finding is supported by Arthur and Phillips, (2000) when they argue that chronology has a central role to play in the learner's historical understanding. Crawford, (2013) supports this view by arguing that chronology helps to measure time periods relative to historical events in order to establish which event is old and which is young. This begins to say that chronology develops historical understanding for learners. In addition, Haydn and Harris, (2010) classify

chronology as one of the key concepts of history. Surprisingly, after outlining everything pertaining to the importance of chronology but participating history teachers ranked it as least important.

The findings suggest that School History deals with the development of countries from ancient time to the present. In support of this, Sizwe alluded to "learners acquire knowledge about their background, development and changes that occurred in the past in their societies and country at large". Moreover, Jonathan suggested "School History encapsulates change and development in the sense that development is rooted in change". The views of participating history teachers were not strange to existing scholars. For instance, Grever et al., (2011) argue that School History contains history of a particular country which emphasise the major features of the past including developments. Also, Husbands et al., (2003) posit that School History enables learners to know and identify historical actors who played a crucial role in the development of the country. Lastly, Seixas and Peck, (2004) and Seixas, (2006) postulate that School History is about continuity and change. According to these scholars, continuity is similar to development. Therefore, it means that the argument of participating history teachers that School History is about development, is substantive.

Another finding provides evidence that School History is about big men who played a pivotal role in leadership in different countries. Joseph argued "many leaders who have led African countries had an interest in School History during their school days and examples are Robert Mugabe, Nelson Mandela, Kenneth Kaunda and Hastings Banda to mention but a few". In support of Joseph, Bethel emphasised "when Joseph Stalin of Russia saw the Russia's economic conditions deteriorating in early 1900, he planned for the future". The examples that participating history teachers alluded to are a clear indication that according to them, history was about men not women. Unfortunately, this view is only unique to them. This implies that it was not supported by other scholars.

Lastly, findings suggest that School History is about the transition of South Africa from apartheid to democracy. To support this finding Sizwe argued "School History equips learners with knowledge about transformation of South Africa from apartheid to democracy". This was an emphasis that apartheid and democracy are amongst the factors that School History covers and should cover. Furthermore, Jonathan asserted "history learners also learn about struggle for freedom since they learn about historical actors who played pivotal role during the struggle for freedom or democracy". One of the struggle against apartheid, argued by Kallaway, (2012)

was the construction of education to replace apartheid education. Also, Dean and Sieborger, (1995) submitted that School History under apartheid was structured to justify the values of the government. This was a clear indication that apartheid was promoted even through education. Therefore, this finding about apartheid and School History is not unfounded because even some scholars alluded to it.

In summary, history teachers ranked aspects that inform general or common knowledge as the most important. Furthermore, they undermined the aspects that underpin historical knowledge. These issues indicated that history teachers lacked exposure and understanding of historical knowledge.

7.4.5. History should serve a utilitarian value to society

Another most striking result to emerge from the data was that participating history teachers did not view School History as specialised subject knowledge but as having a utilitarian value to the society. They argued that School History addresses issues related to the nature, scope and sources of historical knowledge. This view is in line with the argument of DeRose, (2002) when affirming that teacher knowledge is a branch of philosophy that deals with questions of the nature, scope and sources of knowledge. Therefore, according to history teachers School History has a value in the sense that it informs learners with in-depth historical knowledge. To this effect, history teachers use their views to develop historical knowledge by building on and advancing from what learners already know and what others have known (Hautala & Jauhiainen, 2014). Therefore, history teachers are constructivists who help learners construct their own knowledge through observation and engagement.

In order to emphasise the utilitarianism of School History, history teachers alluded to all the aspects that support good citizenship. In other words, history teachers argued that School History has a value because it promotes good citizenship. One of the participants, Sipho argued "School History promotes skills that lead to good citizenship". Also Joseph posited "School History is about good citizenship". This view is supported by Hearn and Tregenza, (2014) when they argue that good citizenship is about qualities of character which serve as foundation of national strength and these qualities are discipline, self-reliance and patriotism. To put more further clarity, Reichert, (2016) asserts that good citizenship is about knowing what happens in your country and other countries, being politically aware, participating in community issues and organizations and partake in activities that promote human rights and protect environment.

Schoeman, (2006) adds that if learners have acquired proper knowledge relating to good citizenship they can reflect critically, understand and accepts their rights and responsibilities. In line with this, history teachers outlined issues that were outlined by CAPS and supporting citizenship. These issues were values, equal representation, raising of concerns, promoting human rights and assuming responsibilities.

This implies that for history teachers, values, equal representation, raising of concerns, promoting human rights and assuming responsibilities may help learners achieve good citizenship. History teachers argued that School History instil and promote values that are pertinent in learners. In line with this, Zanele asserted "School History instils democratic value". In support of this, Sizwe also mentioned "history learners learn about democratic values and of one of them is human rights". According to history teachers, discipline, respect, Ubuntu, human rights and tolerance are some of the values that need to be instilled and developed. These are the values that history teachers declared as significant and should be developed in history learners. Additionally, Sipho posited "School History is about equal representation of citizens and equal acknowledgement of everybody's concerns". Also, in line with this, Joseph argued "history learners also learn to tolerate each other and tolerance is one of the features, in his view, of the good citizenship". Their argument was that if these values can be instilled and promoted they may result to good citizenship because most of them are lacking. In bolstering the views about values, Bethel argued "as Africans we have those values and attitudes that need to be instilled in our children. Some of these values have evaporated and one of them is respect". Lastly, Zanele asserted "Ubuntu constitute a good leader". It is clear that for history teachers it is significant to instil and promote values that have evaporated because they constitute good citizenship.

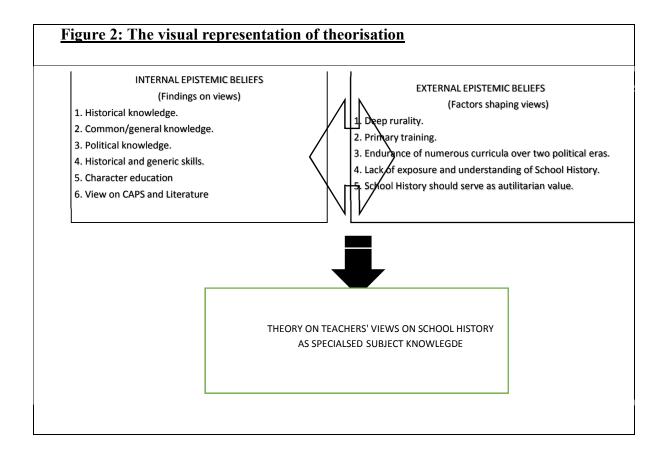
Mendes, (2014; Stolten, 2003) posits that values have to be always attached both to person who acts and things on which the person acts. This implies that values are meaningless without an individual actions. In other words, people care about the values if individuals are involved and therefore, values are embedded to human action. For example, the values of the group often pull the group together (Douglas, 2013) and therefore, learners should contribute towards the values of a group since they are group members. However, they might not work in tandem with other societal members if they are unaware of what values are and what are their roles and responsibilities in values. However, since they studied values in School History, they know and understand their roles and responsibilities within the society. Furthermore, Mendes, (2014)

asserts that values are human creation out of nothing, embodied mental images, associated with emotions, practical and intentional. Therefore, values are not specific to a particular aspect of human behaviour but are about various aspects that affect human beings. On the other hand, Schwartz, (2012) adds that values are beliefs, desirable goals, transcend specific actions and situations, serve as standards or criteria, ordered by importance and guide action. The values address the human behaviour in totality. Therefore, values must be uncompromisingly adhered to regardless of the situation and this adherence is not for immediate outcome (Narasimhan et al., 2010) but for long term purpose. The learners should be aware that the issue of values is not meant for a short period of time but it is something that everybody should adhere to unremittingly. In a summary, it was good to find out that history teachers thought like CAPS in issues that support citizenship.

In summary, according to participating history teachers School History serves as a utilitarian value in the sense by promoting good citizenship in learners. School History does this by elaborating and addressing historical matters relating to values, equal representation, raising of concerns amicably, promotion of human rights and assumption of responsibilities. Therefore, according to participating history teachers if learners can master and clearly understand these issues, they can become good citizens for their country South Africa.

7.5. Theorising the findings of the study

Epistemic beliefs are the core mental structure that influences what teachers learn and how they make decisions for instructional purposes (Muis, Pekrun, Sinatra, Azevedo, Trevors, Meier & Heddy, 2015). Furthermore, they are views about knowledge and knowing that teachers hold (Bråten, Britt, Strømsø & Rouet, 2011; Chen, 2012) about the nature of knowledge and knowing. Epistemic beliefs play a major role in shaping teachers' motivation (Chen, 2012); therefore, they can affect a teaching practice (Chai, 2010). Epistemic beliefs are crucial since they form part of the views that teachers have and they shape the way teachers teach. The epistemic beliefs of teachers are affected by external conditions such as a context, thus epistemic external beliefs and internal conditions such as prior knowledge, thus epistemic internal beliefs (Muis & Franco, 2009; Ferguson & Bråten, 2013). External epistemic beliefs and internal epistemic beliefs affected the views that history teachers held on School History as specialised subject knowledge. Therefore, the external epistemic beliefs and internal epistemic beliefs of history teachers were used to build the theory for this study.



There are issues that may have determined the status or the condition of History subject in schools. Maybe the way history teachers help learners understand the subject is not good enough; it needs to be revisited and revived. They might be using teaching methods that are ineffective and outdated since they still belong to and believe in the old school of thought. The PCK that history teachers have affects both their views and teaching style. This suggests that history teachers might not be equipping learners with proper knowledge that can enable them to act on a specific situation. The manner history teachers blend the content and pedagogy might not be helping learners to have a clear and deep understanding of historical concepts as well as applying them appropriately and efficiently. This in a long run may be causing learners as well not to see the necessity of the subject because it is not properly presented to them. The teachers' PCK should take the interests and abilities of learners into cognisance when designing learning activities. However, it looks like that is not the case with history teachers because learners would be motivated and develop love history subject if their interests were taken into account. It may also be possible that history teachers do not use the knowledge from historians appropriately and transform the subject matter into effective experience for the benefit of

learners. furthermore, it is possible that history teachers lack the understanding of the accepted mode of inquiry into the discipline. As a result, they do not facilitate teaching and learning experiences adequately. It is possible that the way history teachers facilitate teaching and learning activities are attributed to their own experiences both as learners and teachers. Lastly, it may be the exposure to relevant departmental and cognitive research, as well as the nature and depth of CK they have. Therefore, history teachers do not facilitate their teaching and learning convincing enough for learners to develop interest in School History because learners see the necessity of doing it.

7.6. The implications of history teachers'views on School History as specialised subject knowledge

The third research question was: How do the views of rural South African history teachers impact on the teaching of School History as specialised subject knowledge? To this effect, this section answers this question. The argument of Hlalele, (2014) is that the rurality affects the teaching and learning activities in a number of schools. This may suggest that the delivery of historical knowledge as per CAPS was also affected. The numerous socio-economic and political conditions that define rurality impacted on how teaching and learning take place. In line with this, the manner history teachers convey the historical knowledge to learners may also be affected. These factors include, amongst other factors, that some learners may not have textbooks required for teaching and learning activities. Additionally, even the learning environment is not conducive because they are overcrowded in classrooms and some do not even have desks. Furthermore, getting into schools is a big challenge because road conditions are not good. History teachers and learners might not access facilities because they are far away from the urban areas and the bad road conditions makes it difficult to reach the school. In summary, the socio-economic and political conditions of rural areas affect the delivery of CAPS because these conditions lead to the teaching and learning environment that is not conducive to quality education.

The kind of primary training that history teachers received may also have affected the way they teach CAPS. The fact that these history teachers received primary training long time ago when the government and the system of education was apartheid and now they have to teach and work under democratic conditions affect their teaching of CAPS, may have shaped the way they conducted teaching and learning activities. The saying 'first touch is the deepest' manifested itself when participating history teachers still held on to what they learnt long time

ago instead of being conversant with the new education system, CAPS. It means that these history teachers hardly conform to the prescripts of CAPS. It was not easy for them to adapt to the new situation because of their background. For this reason, they still believe School History should prioritise with political issues instead of historical knowledge which is a determinant of history. In other words, their views were still based on the primary training they received thus affecting the way they teach CAPS because consists of elements that perpetuate and promote democracy.

It also surfaced from the findings that history teachers do not have enough and good understanding of the nature of School History. This may be problematic because they are expected to develop the historical knowledge of learners. If they are not clear with the nature of School History, it means that they cannot cascade the information from CAPS accordingly. The lack of understanding the nature of School History manifested itself when they undermined the aspects that define and inform historical knowledge but instead opted for those that inform general knowledge. This makes one wonder how they handle historical issues during teaching and learning activities because it is clear that according to them historical knowledge is not important as compared to general knowledge. In summary, the lack of understanding of the nature of School History can definitely affect the delivery of CAPS to learners.

Having their views influenced by rurality, primary training they had to endure over different eras and the lack of understanding of the nature of School History, but history teachers still viewed School History as of utilitarian value. For these history teachers, School History encapsulates aspects of historical knowledge that they may emphasise because they strongly believe in them. It should be noted that most of the issues that history teachers viewed as of utilitarian value supported good citizenship. Fortunately, this is in line with one of the aims of CAPS. This suggests that these are some of the aspects of CAPS that history teachers agree with and hence they may go an extra mile when dealing with them in order to ensure that learners grasp them accordingly. In summary, their view of School History as of utilitarian value could strengthen the importance of CAPS for teaching and learning activities.

The findings also revealed that history teachers had strong personal views. These strong personal views manifested themselves when history teachers contested the views from literature and CAPS. History teachers viewed their views as strong as those from literature and CAPS. It means that their personal views, as well, are important and can play a crucial role in

the curriculum delivery. It means that their views may support the historical knowledge as pronounced in CAPS. It also means that history teachers' views might reinforce CAPS or even patch where CAPS falls short.

The fact that history teachers were set in their views means that they could hardly cope with the new changes from CAPS. This is because they strongly believe in the kind of historical knowledge that equates the one they received as their primary training. This means that they might not be able to teach historical knowledge as outlined in CAPS. In other words, they might miss some points that do not stress and address issues they strongly believe in. Obviously, this can affect the delivery of quality education.

7.7. Conclusion

Since epistemology is informed by the belief (Pollock & Cruz, 1999) it means that history teachers had a strong belief in the primary training they received some years back then the aspects that underpin the current education system. This suggests that the epistemic beliefs (Molla, 2010) for these history teachers were strong enough to influence choices and decisions they make when teaching about historical knowledge. In addition to belief, O'Connor & Carr, (1982) alluded to the truth as informing knowledge. This suggests that history teachers regarded the primary training they received as a true belief hence they held on to it even after more than 20 years. Furthermore, their belief in promoting patriotism and political knowledge was an indication that they received primary training which was politically motivated. In other words, for history teachers, the 'priori' knowledge (Tahko, 2011; Bo, 2011) is all that matters for them rather than the new knowledge they do not know. Additionally, the body of knowledge (Anderson & Clarke, 2012) that history teachers hold cannot be easily influenced by other factors and issues. These history teachers did not understand structures of the subject matter for the new education system that (Shulman, 1986) argues they should be known by teachers at large. In summary, history teachers have strong views based on the primary training they received more than 20 years ago and they were not prepared to sacrifice or do away with.

CHAPTER 8 CONCLUDING THE STUDY

8.1. Introduction

When undertaking this study, I wanted to understand the views of South African History teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge. Subsequently, the study was guided by three research questions the research questions as outlined in chapter 1.

In order to conclude the study logically, I organised this final chapter into seven sections:

- Firstly, I present a summary and review of the stages I experienced in order to come out with findings and how I reached my conclusions.
- Secondly, I provide a summary of the findings in relation to the research questions posed.
- Thirdly, I reflect on the appropriateness of methodology and methods that I employed when generating data.
- Fourthly, I reflect on the impact that the study had on me, personally and professionally in terms of my development as a scholar.
- Fifthly, I present the contributions of my study
- Sixthly, I reflect on the limitations of the study.
- Seventhly, I highlight my recommendations based on the study.
- Finally, I conclude my PhD.

8.2. Summary and review of the study

I organised this study into eight chapters. I used chapter one to introduce the study. In doing so, I highlighted the context and background with the aim of clarifying the geographical location and socio-political conditions where this study was conducted. I declared my position and biographical background as a researcher and also, discussed my motivation and rationale for undertaking the study. Furthermore, it was in chapter one that I presented the research problem that underpinned this study. Additionally, I alluded to the purpose, focus and research questions that guided and channelled the study. Moreover, I reviewed the literature and conceptually clarified epistemology and specialized subject knowledge of history as key concepts to the study. Finally, I provided a summary of the theoretical and conceptual

frameworks used as well as the research design and methodology that informed my study. Therefore, this chapter outlined a plan of how the study would be conducted.

When I reviewed the literature in chapter two, I started by conceptualising the concept 'School History', looked at its nature and aims. I explained that it was the history that is taught to learners and is regulated and prescribed by the DOBET. It is constructed, transmitted and informed by the needs and conditions specific to schools (Audigier & Fink, 2010). Additionally, it is about significant events and characteristic features of lives of people for that particular country (Husbands et al., 2003). It means that School History is about issues that affect human lives and their societies. So, School History presents that learners should be made aware of these issues at school so that they can understand the societies in which they live.

Having clarified the concept, I also shared the views on School History as specialised subject knowledge in social, political and educational aspects. One of the views was that School History defines who we are in the present, our relations with others and within the civil society i.e. nation and state, right and wrong, good and bad, and broad parameters for action in the future (Stearns (eds) et al., 2000). Most importantly, School History is the, "only available laboratory for studying complex human and social behaviours" or, "the only available source of evidence about time" Stearns (1993, p.281.). School History is multi-perspective because it encapsulates so many aspects that affect human beings, but above all, it is the storehouse for those who want to study different behaviours of human beings. School History also, makes learners understand mutual relations between their country of residence, former colonies and international countries (Grever et al., 2011). Finally, it is a central role player in the transmission of a common culture, passing it from one generation to another (Pendry & Husbands et al., 1998). Therefore, these are some of the views that were shared by scholars. It is notable that these arguments prove that School History is a useful subject that can benefit learners by developing their knowledge.

I continued to review the literature in chapter three and focused on two major issues i.e. theoretical and conceptual frameworks. It was for this reason that I started by explaining the concept 'theoretical framework'. I discussed teacher knowledge deeply since it was the theory that underpinned or focused my study. After introducing teacher knowledge, I also looked at the concepts that focused my study as was the case with theoretical framework. These concepts,

introduced in chapter one were epistemology and specialized subject knowledge. Therefore, these concepts were deliberated on and in-depthly discussed in chapter three.

In chapter four, I provided the plan that I put in place in order to generate data. Subsequently, I discussed the research design and methodology that I employed to propose answers to my research questions. The first part of this chapter was used to clarify the research design which is the theoretical part of data generation. I explained that I used a qualitative research approach and interpretivism as my paradigmatic positioning. Moreover, I positioned my study ontologically and epistemologically in this chapter. Additionally, I presented purposive sampling as the sampling procedure used in this study.

Having alluded to research design, I addressed the second part of the research design which was my research methodology. I began by presenting a case study as the chosen methodology for my study. Thereafter, I introduced the research methods I used to generate data, namely: card sorting, document analysis and semi-structured interviews. I used semi-structured interviews immediately after card sorting for participants to explain the manner in which they sorted cards. It was also in this chapter where I explained how I analysed data using thematic analysis. Furthermore, I also discussed the ethical issues that I took into account to ensure that my study was properly conducted and thus did not harm anyone. I concluded this chapter by addressing the trustworthiness of my study.

In chapter five, I presented data that I generated using the above-mentioned research design and methodology. Using thematic analysis method, as indicated above, I analysed the data generated in chapter six. I therefore, summarized themes that resulted from my analysis. These themes surfaced from the views of participants and the blending of views and views from literature and CAPS. In chapter seven, I discussed the findings in relation to the literature as reviewed in chapters two and three. When discussing the findings, I clarified and indicated how different sections answered research questions as indicated in chapter one. Most notably, was that the discussion of the findings I reached confirmed the results of previous studies in School History (see chapters two and three). In these two chapters, I also provided possible answers to the research questions posed. I concluded my study in chapter eight.

The above overview served to unpack the research process that I utilized in order to answer the research questions. It also shows how I adhered to the purpose and focus of the study in order

to ensure that the study did not deviate from the core questions. In the following section, I relate my findings with the research questions as a way to indicate how the findings responded to research questions.

8.3 Relating the findings to the research questions

8.3.1. Research question 1: What are the views of rural South African history teachers on School History as specialised subject knowledge?

One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is knowledge. Based on the personal views, findings revealed that School History contributes to the development of knowledge, characters, skills and prepares learners for career. The knowledge that emerged from the findings was historical or general or political. According to the findings, these forms of knowledge were informed by a number of aspects. The study revealed that historical knowledge was underpinned by the understanding of significant world events, the South African freedom struggle against apartheid, family backgrounds and origins and, development and changes. Beside historical knowledge findings also show that learners acquire common knowledge through studying about their identities, societal knowledge, good citizenship and patriotism, international relations, acquiring vocabulary and life lessons and diverse cultures. Lastly, the study has shown that learners also develop political knowledge through studying about leaders and leadership styles, governance and about the constitution of the Republic of South Africa.

The results also show that school history enable the development of characters. The issues that emerged in relation to character development were the promotion of good citizenship, understanding of values and development of self-esteem. Furthermore, the study has found that learners also develop skills which are either generic or historical. The skills that came out tops were English communication skill, listening, critical thinking, information sharing and planning. Lastly, the results suggest that school history prepares learners for relevant careers which can lead to employment. In a summary, the findings based on personal views reveal that school history equips learners with knowledge.

After coming out with above-mentioned findings from personal views, history teachers were expected to rank their personal views mixing them together with the views from literature and CAPS to form a single whole. To this effect, the findings suggest that according to participating history teachers school history should address aspects that define historical knowledge equally

to aspects that inform common knowledge and generic skills. In line with this, history teachers ranked the above aspects as the most important ones. Furthermore, it was shown that history teachers ranked more aspects that inform historical knowledge as important followed by aspects that underpin generic skills, general knowledge and historical skills. This implies that for history teachers, historical knowledge was crucially important. Lastly, the study reveals that history teachers did not surrender their personal views but ranked them as the least important. This was an indication that even though their views were not as important as those from literature and CAPS but may background the 'official' views.

In a summary, according to history teachers school history is all and mostly about knowledge which is threefold i.e. historical, common and political. According to them, the 'official' knowledge in its totality is the most important aspect and should be prioritised. However, it should be backed by their views.

8.3.2. Why do rural South African history teachers have the views they have on School History as specialised subject knowledge?

The views of history teachers that I discussed in section 8.3.1. are answering the first research question which is: 'What are the views of South African history teachers? These views were informed by some issues and these issues are fully discussed in chapter seven.

The views of history teachers may be attributed to the rurality where they come from. The rurality, like any other contexts, affected the working conditions of history teachers thus influencing their views as well. Furthermore, the views that history teachers had were influenced by the more than 20 teaching experience that they held. This teaching experience means that the background that history teachers had was characterised by political motives attributable to the apartheid regime. Another reason history teachers had these kinds of views was due to the lack of deep understanding of what school history entailed. There are decisions that they took while ranking the cards they would have not taken if they had a good understanding of school history. From their ranking, it appeared that they were unaware or unsure of the key elements of history that Seixas and Peck, (2004) refer to as the big six concepts. Lastly, history teachers had strong beliefs in their capabilities and capacities. As a result, they had strong views.

In a summary, rurality, more than 20 years teaching experience, lack of deep understanding of history and strong belief in their capacities and capabilities shaped the views of history teachers.

8.3.3. How do the views of rural South African history teachers impact on the teaching of School History as specialised subject knowledge?

The views of history teachers impacted on teaching School History both negatively and positively. It has been argued that teaching and learning in rural areas face serious challenges. The reason can, amongst other factors, be attributed to the disadvantages that dominate rural areas as well as rural education. Amongst these factors, is the lack of resources. The lack of resources affects the teaching and learning activities. In line with this, School History and history teachers are not strange to this. Since, history teachers' views were affected by rurality, their teaching was challenged as well. This implies that the history teaching of participating history teachers was characterised by the rural elements. Therefore, there is a great possibility that their teaching and learning activities were not of good quality and also effective as envisaged by the authorities.

The fact that history teachers taught school history for more than 20 years and were the victims of apartheid education, it means that their views as well were characterised by the elements of apartheid education. It is for this reason that they did not prioritise with issues of historical knowledge but political knowledge. This begins to say that the views they held were still stuck in the past and were characterised by the type of educational background they received more than 20 years ago. Since, so many changes have taken place in diverse aspects of life, including education, their views were not addressing and adhering to the current needs. Therefore, the teaching experience for more than 20 years of the same subject in the same area affected the history teaching negatively.

The findings also suggested that history teachers lacked deep understanding of school history. This implies that their views were not good enough for effective history teaching. In other words, there are aspects of historical knowledge that these history teachers were not sure of and thus did not address them appropriately and equitably. This indicates that the views of history teachers did not contribute to the development of historical knowledge. Surely, teachers go to classes to deliver content that they are sure of and will help learners acquire knowledge. On the contrary, if the teacher does not have a proper content, he/she may deliver and present

a content that is scanty and insufficient thus affecting the promotion of effective learning. Therefore, the dearth of deep understanding of school history impacted negatively on the teaching of school history.

On a positive note, it was good to acknowledge that history teachers strongly believed that good citizenship should be promoted at all costs. This was good for the education of the Republic of South Africa because it was in line with CAPS which also envisaged the development of learners who are good citizens, behaviourally and morally. This implies that the views of history teachers impacted positively and may yield a positive effect on teaching and learning. In other words, the views of history teachers may supplement and fill up the gaps where CAPS is not clear or does not address all the issues that can promote good citizenship. This also means that the teaching of aspects relating to good citizenship may be emphasised since even teachers believe in them. So, the strong belief on good citizenship that history teachers had may impact on history teaching positively.

Lastly, history teachers showed that they had strong views. These strong views meant that history teachers may develop a positive historical knowledge because they do not need to force matters with something they do not know but they have strong knowledge of school history. This also suggests that the views that history teachers have may impact positively on history teaching. This also implies that history teachers, with their views, may not heavily rely on secondary sources for the deliverance of historical knowledge but their own views may contribute towards the achievement and development of historical knowledge. Therefore, the strong views that history teachers had impacted positively on history teaching.

8.4. Methodological reflections on the study

In this section, I look back, and reflect on and evaluate the methodological choices I made to respond to the research questions. It is worth noting though that I had never been involved in any research relating to School History and or education since at my Masters level I focused on tourism history. Since I did my Masters degree in the faculty of arts, I found it challenging finding the appropriate methodology for my PhD study because the styles of research in the arts faculty and education faculty differed. Having not received proper guidance during my Masters degree, I had to start from scratch and learn everything new during my PhD journey. This made it very difficult to undertake this study. It was against this backdrop that I had to dig deep through articles and books in order to understand what I was supposed to do. Also, it was

through the help from my colleagues with whom I was registered that I managed to make a breakthrough via the cohorts that were held monthly.

I began this PhD journey in 2013 which was a huge challenge because everything was new and I had no clue of what was expected from me. I remember one-day presenting a research design and methodology sections of my study in the cohort, I did not know aspects that inform research design section and those that inform methodology section. I was only corrected by the members of the cohort and I then began to have a picture of what I was up to. I also, did not know, for example, the difference between methodology and methods. As a result, the first challenge I faced was to identify the methodology that would enable me generate data I needed to understand views of history teachers. I had to adopt a methodology that would work in tandem with the purpose and allow me to understand views of history teachers. After a long time grappling with literature, obtaining assistance and guidance from the cohorts and my supervisor, I opted for the case study. Taking into account that I wanted to understand views of history teachers and case study is about gaining a deeper understanding of the situation and meaning (Henning et al., 2004), case study therefore became appropriate for my study.

The second challenge I faced was in relation to the methods per se. The only method I knew was interviews and they were not good enough for my study. Again, I had to dig deep in literature, look for assistance and guidance in order to understand other methods. Having identified card sorting as one of the appropriate methods, finding literature on it was challenging more especially those were my early stages of research when I did not even know how to search. However, I later managed to bring something out of literature that helped me understand and use as my method. I also, had to understand what was entailed in CAPS in relation to history so as to establish proper findings. I did not know the methods I had to use. I heard colleagues talking about content and document analysis which I thought were one and the same thing. However, later realized that they were two different entities. In the end, I used document analysis alongside card sorting and semi-structured interviews. Analysing documents was also a challenge since I had not done it before. First of all, identifying documents to analyse from the literature, was a serious challenge, except CAPS document which was easily accessible. After identifying documents, I also struggled to identify relevant and appropriate issues to consider and write on cards. If I did not pilot my study, as per advice from my supervisor, I would not have come out with proper and sensible issues to present for sorting.

Lastly, I had some challenges during the initial stage of the interview process. Due to inexperience, I failed to ask appropriate follow-up questions. Consequently, I relied on follow-up interviews which I conducted after conducting numerous interviews and I managed to break through irrelevant and vague responses from some of the participants. Furthermore, I had to give participants a break since our interviews took more than an hour and half hence some of them were exhausted by then. After conducting interviews, I transcribed and coded data myself. I did this in order to develop my skills and familiarize myself with transcription and coding process and also ensure that I had relevant data that would enable me to answer research questions.

However, as much as I can claim that these methods were effective which enabled me to generate data, I cannot stand tall and argue that they had no challenges and difficulties. Therefore, the combination of these methods enabled me to effectively address the first research question on what are the views of South African history teachers. Whereas when discussing the findings and engaging with the literature, I managed to answer two other research questions which were: "why do South African history teachers have the views that they have? and how do views of South African history teachers impact on the teaching of School History as specialized subject knowledge?" Therefore, I can strongly argue that the methods I opted for, were appropriate and effective. Consequently, they helped me adhere to the purpose and focus of the study effectively.

8.5. Personal-professional reflections on the study

Undertaking this study had a huge influence on me both personally and professionally. At a personal level, before I undertook this study, I had a feeling that School History was no longer significant and relevant. This feeling was informed by my experience of the situation in my context as elaborated in chapter one. However, the degree to which undertaking this study enriched my personal experience equates my personal motivation for undertaking this study that I fully explained earlier in chapter one. When discussing my personal motivation, I described my experience as a history learner at primary and high school as well as a student at university level. Furthermore, I elaborated on the good perception that was developed in me by both my primary and secondary school history teachers. It was this perception that developed my love for history, hence I decided to specialize in it even at university. My demotion from teaching history in Grade 12 to teaching Life Orientation in Grade 8 that I experienced in 2004, displayed that I was no longer relevant in the school since my subject was losing its momentum.

However, conducting this study exposed me to the other side of School History because the conception of history teachers proved that it was still relevant and significant. Most importantly, conducting this study gave me a chance to add my voice relating to history education and for that, I am so proud of myself.

Additionally, my experiences and personal challenges that I explained above prove that I was personally involved in this study. In other words, the study affected me personally. Consequently, I constantly declared and let my position come out clearly. This study also, made me understand that as a person who taught history at the FET phase, I inculcated significant aspects that shaped the lives of learners thus being able to cope with the outside world. I realized that if I had done this study while still teaching at high school, I would have had more learners since I would encourage and recruit them to do history because of the knowledge and skills it promotes and develops. Therefore, this study enlightened me a lot in terms of the significance and relevance of School History.

This study also, helped me to network with a number of academics ranging from novices to experienced scholars. Hence I must say that engaging with this study helped me create lifetime friendship with a number of scholars including foreign nationals. Subsequently, one of the foreign nationals became my external moderator for my Method of History module. On the other hand, studying while working was a challenge because I had to perform these two duties concurrently. During examination times, I had to put my study aside and complete the marking of about 460 students before I could continue with my study. Consequently, this experience hindered me from dedicating myself completely to my study. As a result, I did not complete my study within the standard time frame. But above all, this study taught me to be patient and persistent because I kept pushing though obstacles till the completion.

At a professional level, since I am responsible for teaching history education at the University of Zululand, this study had a great impact on my career. I was able to identify the loopholes in history education that I can address while facilitating the module. This study also influenced my research outlook. I indicated above that when I began with this study, I only knew interviews as a method of data generation. However, being engaged in this study I got a chance of getting involved with other methods thus broadening my research horizon. Not only did this study help me understand different methods, but it also made me thoroughly understand the

case study methodology. Consequently, when undertaking other studies in future, I will know how to apply case study methodology.

Furthermore, this study developed my ability to shape or influence the thinking of students that I lecture. I also, learnt that as a history education specialist, I must emphasise skills development to my student teachers so that they can inculcate these skills in learners. Moreover, this study taught me the importance of multi-perspectivity which encourages critical thinking, imagination and empathy. I also, developed awareness of significant aspects of history education that I can emphasise to my student teachers. So, professionally undertaking this study exposed me to the significance and relevance of School History.

Additionally, undertaking this research deepened my expertise both as a scholar and a professional teacher or lecturer. I acquired knowledge that enhanced my epistemology and thus eased and enhanced my delivery of lectures. Most importantly, this study prepared me for the transitional period to a scholar and academic community. It boosted my confidence since I know now that history teachers regard it as an important subject. Consequently, when I conduct lectures I can influence the views of my student teachers. Through my engagement with the study, I have moreover, developed in terms of presentation and understanding of historical skills. Therefore, after undertaking this study I now fully understand the importance of School History. As a result, I can encourage learners to opt for it and also encourage my students not to feel inferior and underestimate themselves as history teachers because School History is as important as other subjects.

8.6. Contribution of the study

I strongly believe that this study has contributed knowledge to the existing body of knowledge on views held about School History as specialised subject knowledge. As much as this study has made a contribution, but I cannot claim that I contributed a totally new knowledge altogether about the views of history teachers. However, it only contributed a new insight to the existing body of literature.

I noted when reviewing the literature that most of the studies conducted focused on the nature of school history (McCulloch, 1997; Stearns et al., 2000; Husbands et al., 2003; Lévesque, 2008; Yilmaz, 2008/2009; Grever et al., 2011; McCrum, 2013; Šubrt et al., 2013) and views on school history (Grever et al., 2008; Elgström & Hellstenius, 2010; Tamisoglou, 2010;

Counsell, (2011); Grever et al., 2011). Most of the views that were discussed in chapter two came from scholars (Stearns, 1993; Voss & Carretero, 1998; Wood & Rimmer, 2003; Murphy, 2007; Davies, 2011) and learners (Grever et al., 2008; Elgström & Hellstenius, 2010; Grever et al., 2011). This begins to say that history teachers, more especially from deep rural area of South Africa, KwaZulu-Natal, have never been given a chance to share their views that shape their teaching. To this effect, this study therefore contributed knowledge about the views of history teachers. Therefore, this is the contribution of this study to both the existing body of literature as well as in the field of history education.

When I discussed the findings in chapter seven, I made it vivid that the findings were in line with the existing literature (Gardiner, 2008; Abbott, 2009; Hlalele, 2014; Retz, 2016). This implies that the views of history teachers were supported by the other scholars. It was also noted that teachers' views were centered on knowledge. Furthermore, the findings revealed that common knowledge, generic skills and historical knowledge should be treated as the most important aspects and should be prioritized. The study also revealed that history teachers never surrendered their personal views to those from literature and CAPS but instead backgrounded them. Therefore, even though the findings were supported by the existing literature but this study established the views of history teachers. This means that even though a lot had been written on school history but the views of history teachers had never fully exploited. Therefore, I can strongly declare that this study contributed a new knowledge to the existing body of literature on the views of South African history teachers.

8.7. Limitations

Kumar, (2014) argues that limitations are structural problems in relation to methodological aspects of the study. This begins to say that all studies conducted should adhere to certain issues relating to the methods employed for data generation. Furthermore, Price, (2004) refers to limitation as the systematic bias that the researcher cannot control but can affect the result. To this effect, my study as well took some methodological issues into consideration. One of these limitations was that my study used a case study and unfortunately, case studies cannot be generalized but are only meant for a particular context under investigation. Another limitation could also be the methods that I used to generate data. Maybe my methods were not user friendly enough to allow participants to give quality responses. However, I tried to make participants feel comfortable through clarifying questions and allowed them to ask if they do not understand. Also maybe my sample of seven participants was not good enough to enable a

quality and relevant data. Furthermore, maybe my analysis of the CAPS document and literature was not good and accurate. However, through piloting my study I tried to verify and take such issues into consideration.

The duration of interviews might have affected the acquisition of the quality answers. This is because interviews took about 1H30 and interviewees might have been exhausted by then thus affecting the acquisition of quality answers. However, I gave them breaks in order to freshen up during interviews. The selection of the rural context as well, may have affected quality data. Maybe another different context may have given me other responses. The last limitation was that some participants gave short answers and some failed to elaborate when I posed follow-up questions. In a summary, these were the methodological issues that may have influenced the acquisition of good and quality data.

8.8. Recommendations based on the study

In this section I discuss the recommendations based on my study and they are two-fold. The first part of my recommendation is based on the policy and practice whereas the second part consists of recommendations for further studies to be undertaken.

It emerged strongly from this study that School History is significant and is a subject worth doing. I therefore, recommend that the policy should be re-visited so as to make the subject compulsory for all the learners at Further Education and Training (FET) band. If history is made compulsory, no learner will miss out from all these benefits of studying history as mentioned in chapter six and seven. In other words, every learner will acquire all the knowledge and skills as discussed in chapters six and seven. This knowledge and skills will affect learners in so many ways. It will influence their behaviour positively, teach them responsibility, bolster their understanding of values, enlighten and develop in-depth understanding of human rights. Furthermore, it will teach them to be considerate of their actions so that they do not commit mistakes like those of historical actors. It will also, teach them about their identity and background, and make them globally competitive. In addition, learners will develop a number of skills that history learners are exposed to on daily basis. Lastly, learners will know the meaning and importance of unity and the role they should play in promoting unity.

Another recommendation was that as much as history equips learners with knowledge more emphasis should be on the achievement of historical thinking skills as they are very important.

If learners have acquired skills, it is easy to use those skills and obtain the necessary knowledge. So, if learners have been thoroughly taught all the necessary skills, they will be able to withstand whatever challenge that comes their way. Consequently, they will live better lives and be responsible citizens. Therefore, if these recommendations can be considered and taken into account good and responsible citizens can be produced.

I recommend that further study should be undertaken in relation to the views of history learners on School History as specialized subject knowledge. Since the views of School History teachers have been presented and they encapsulate their views, then there is a need to understand how learners themselves look at School History. It is clear that teachers found School History significant. However, the views of learners have never been fully explored in order to understand if their thinking about history differs from teachers or not. The views of learners are important because some learners do not choose to do history but are forced to do so and others are persuaded by their teachers and even parents.

Another study should be undertaken to look specifically at those schools that omitted School History from their curricula which will allow the understanding of the omission. Subsequent to that there will be an understanding of how School Management Teams (SMTs) look at School History. It will make the academic community understand issues that informed the omission and will also help understand if the omission had something to do with views of teachers or not. Lastly, it will create understanding of the role of history teachers during the omission and how they handled it.

8.9. Conclusion

This chapter aimed at concluding the study through reflecting on the process of the research project, drawing conclusions on the research findings, providing recommendations as well as suggesting areas for further research. Consequently, the conclusion for this study was presented in eight major sections.

The first section of this chapter was characterised by the presentation of a summary of what transpired in each of the eight chapters for this study. The aim of this summary and presentation was to show how I arrived at the findings. In the second section I reflected on the influence of the study on my personal and professional capacity both as an academic, researcher and emerging scholar. In the third section I reflected on the effectiveness of the methodology and

its methods in responding to research questions. This section was followed by the presentation of a summary of findings in relation to research questions. This section aimed at showing clearly the relevance of findings to research questions and also prove that indeed the study answered the research questions and achieved its initial purpose. In section five of this chapter I presented the recommendations which were two-fold. Firstly, in relation to policy and practice and secondly, in relation to further and future studies. In the sixth section I presented what the study contributed to the academic community. In other words, I filled the gap that I indicated in chapter two after reviewing the literature. Therefore, in this last section I present a summary of the chapter and make a final reflection.

The findings revealed that the views of history teachers were affected by the internal epistemic beliefs which encapsulate historical knowledge, common knowledge, political knowledge, historical and generic skills, character education and views on CAPS and literature. Also, the views of history teachers were affected by the external epistemic beliefs which are characterised by a deep rurality, primary training, endurance of numerous curricula over two political eras, lack of exposure and understanding of school history and school history serves a s a utilitarian value. Therefore, based on the findings it is vivid that school history is significant and has a potential to develop learners with the diverse knowledge. The kind of knowledge that teachers hold, is affected by both internal epistemic beliefs and external epistemic beliefs. These two types of beliefs shape the way teachers look at their subject. Therefore, there is an interdependence of both internal epistemic beliefs and external epistemic beliefs in terms of shaping the knowledge that teachers hold.

References

Abbott, M. (ed) (2009). History skills: a student's handbook (2nd ed.). London, Routledge.

Adams P. (2006) Exploring social constructivism: Theories and practicalities. *Education*, 34(3), 3–13.

Alfsen, D., Moller, T.P., Egerod, I. & Lippert. (2015). Barriers to recognition of out-of-hospital cardiac arrest during emergency medical calls: a qualitative inductive thematic analysis. *Scandinavian Journal of Trauma, Resuscitation and Emergency Medicine, 23*(70), 1-8.

Alviar-Martin, T. & Ho, L. (2011). "So, where do they fit in?" Teachers' perspectives of multicultural education and diversity in Singapore. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 127-135.

Anderson, D. & Clark, M. (2012). Development of syntactic subject matter knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge for science by a generalist elementary teacher. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*. 18(3), 315-330.

Androne, M. (2014). Notes on John Locke's views on education. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 137, 74-79.

Appleton, J. V. (1995). Analysing qualitative interview data: Addressing issues of validity and reliability. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 22, 993-997.

Arthur, J. & Phillips, R. (2000). Issues in History teaching. London, Routledge.

Axtell, J. (2001). The pleasures of teaching history. The History Teacher, 34(4), 433-446.

Audigier, F. & Fink, N. (2010). Pupils and school history in France and Switzerland. *Education*, *3*(13), 329-339.

Baillie, J. (1930). The psychological point of view. *The Philosophical Review*, 39(3), 258 274.

Balfour, R., Mitchell, C., & Moletsane, R. (2009). Troubling contexts: Towards a generative theory of rurality as education research. *Journal of Rural and Community Development*, 3(3),

95-107.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Barbour, R. (2014). *Introducing qualitative research: a student's guide* (2nd ed). Los Angeles, SAGE.

Barker, R.L. (2003). *The social work dictionary*. Washington DC, National Association of Social Workers Press.

Barton, K. C., & Levstik, L. S. (2004). *Teaching history for the common good*. London, Routledge.

Bassoon, I. & Kriek, J. (2012). Are grade 10-12 physical sciences teachers equipped to teach physics? *Perspectives in Education*, 30(3), 110-121.

Bertram, C. & Christiansen, I. (2014). *Understanding research: An introduction to reading research*. Pretoria, Van Schaik.

Bird, A. (2008). Lowe on a posteriori essentialism, Analysis, 68(4), 336-344.

Birks, M. & Mills, J. (2011). Grounded theory: a practical guide. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Birn, D.S. (1972). The History teacher as propagandist. The History Teacher, 5(4), 17-22.

Blanche, M. T., & Durrheim, K. (1999). Histories of the present: social science research in context. In M. T. Blanche & K. Durrheim (Eds.), *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Sciences* (1-16). Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Blanche, M. T., & Kelly, K. (2002). Interpretive methods. In M. T. Blanche & K. Durrheim (Eds.), *Research methods in practice: Applied methods for the Social Sciences*, 123-146. Cape Town, University of Cape Town Press.

Bo, C. (2011). Proper names, contingency a priori and necessity a posteriori. History and Philosophy of Logic, 32, 119-138.

Botha, M.L. (2012). Science education in South Africa for the 21st century: mutualism between knowledge domains. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, *26*(6), 1265-1279.

Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40.

Bower, J.M., van Kraayenoord, C. & Carroll, A. (2015). Building social connectedness in schools: Australian teachers' perspective. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 70, 101-109.

Bråten, I., Britt, M. A., Strømsø, H. I., & Rouet, J. F. (2011). The role of epistemic beliefs in the comprehension of multiple expository texts: Toward an integrated model. *Educational Psychologist*, 46(1), 48-70.

Brickhouse, N.W. (1990). Teachers' beliefs about nature of science and their relationship to classroom practice. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(3), 53-62.

Browder, G.C. (1994). Non-content specific assessment. The History Teacher, 27(4), 465-473.

Brunner, J. (1971). The relevance of education. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Brunner, J. (2004). A short history of psychological theories of learning. *Daedalus*, 133(1), 13-20.

Bryman, A. (2012). Social research methods. New York, Oxford University Press.

Buder, J. & Schwind, C. (2012). Learning with personalized recommender systems: A

psychological view. Computers in Human Behaviour, 28, 207-216.

Byrne, D. & Ragin, C.C. (2009). *The SAGE handbook of case-based methods*. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Carr, L. T. (1994). The strengths and weaknesses of quantitative and qualitative research: What method for nursing? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 20, 716-721.

Cataldo, E. F., Jonhson, R. M., Kellstedt, L. M., & Lester, W. (1970). Card sorting as a technique for survey interviewing. *Public Opinion Quarterly, Summer* 70, 34(2), 202-215.

Caucutt, E.M. & Kumar, K.B. (2007). Education for all. A welfare-improving course for Africa. *Review of Economics Dynamics*, 10, 294-326.

Chai, C. S. (2010). Teachers' epistemic beliefs and their pedagogical beliefs: A qualitative case study among Singaporean teachers in the context of ICT-supported reforms. *TOJET: The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 9(4).

Charmaz, K. (1995). 'Grounded Theory', in J.A. Smith, R. Harré & L.V. Langenhove (eds), *Rethinking Methods of Psychology*. London, SAGE.

Chen, J. A. (2012). Implicit theories, epistemic beliefs, and science motivation: A person-centered approach. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 22(6), 724-735.

Chervel, A. (1998). L'histoire des disciplines scolaires. *Histoire de L'education*, 38, 59-119.

Childs, A. & McNicholl, J. (2007). Investigating the relationship between subject content knowledge and pedagogical practice through the analysis of classroom discourse. *International Journal of Science Education*, 29(13), 1629-1653.

Clay, B.J. (1992). Other Times, Other Places: Agency and the Big Man in Central New Ireland. *Man, New Series*, *27*(4), 719-733.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London, Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). Research methods in education. London, Routledge.

Colander, D. (2005). What economists teach and what economists do? *The Journal of Economic Education*, 36(3), 249-260.

Connell, R.W. (1996). Teaching the boys: New Research on Masculinity and Gender Strategies for Schools. *Teacher College Record*, *98*, 206-235.

Cooksey, R. & McDonald, G. (2011). *Surviving and thriving in postgraduate research*. Prahran, Tilde University Press.

Counsel, C. (2011). Disciplinary knowledge for all: the secondary history curriculum and history teachers' achievement. *Curriculum Journal*, 22(2), 201-225.

Courage, C. & Baxter, K. (2005). Card sorting. Understanding your users, 414 - 456.

Courage, C. & Baxter, K. (2010). Card sorting. User Experience Re-mastered, 73-104.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed). Los Angeles, SAGE.

Creswell, J.W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design* (3rd ed.). University of Nebraska, SAGE.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Educational Research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research.* United Kingdom, Pearson.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process.* London, Sage.

Cunningham, D.L. (2007). Understanding pedagogical reasoning in history teaching through the case of cultivating historical empathy. *Theory and Research in Social Education*, 35(4), 592-630.

Curriculum and Assessment Policy (CAPS), History, (2012)

Dance, E. H. (1970). The place of history teaching in secondary education: A comparative study. London, George G Harrap & Company LTD.

Davies, I. (ed.) (2011). Debates in history teaching. London, Routledge.

Deng, Z. (2007). Knowing the subject matter of a secondary-school science subject. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 39(5), 503-535.

Denscombe, M. (2009). *Ground rules for social research: guidelines for good practice*. United Kingdom, McGraw Hill.

DeRose, K. (2002). What is epistemology? A brief introduction to the topic. New Haven, Yale University.

Derry, S.J. (1999). A fish called peer learning: searching for common themes. In A.M.O'Donnell & A King.

Deshmukh, C.D. (1995). Views on education. *India International Centre Quarterly*, 22(4), 163-177.

Deshmukh, C.D. (2001/2002). Views on education. *India International Centre Quartely*, 28(4), 14-18.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. (2011). Research at grass roots for the Social Sciences and Human Service Professions. Pretoria, Van Schaik.

Dewey, J. (1916). Democracy and education. New York, Macmillan.

Dewey, J. (1990). *The school and society and the child and the curriculum*. Chicago, The University of Chicago Press.

Douglas, H. (2013). The value of cognitive values. *Philosophy of science*, 80(5), 796-806.

Dorfman, L. T., Murty, S. A., Evans, R. J., Ingram, J. G., & Power, J. R. (2004). History and Identity in the narratives of rural elders. *Journal of Aging Studies*, *18*, 187-203.

Drake, F. D. & Nelson, L. R. (2005). Engagement in teaching history: Theory and practices for Middle and Secondary Teachers. New Jersey, Pearson Prentice Hall.

Dryden-Peterson, S., & Siebörger, R. (2006). Teachers as memory makers: Testimony in the making of a new history in South Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 26(4), 394-403.

Dubois, C. (1949-1950). The card-sorting or psychophysical interview. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, 13(4), 619-628.

Edwards, S.F. (1992). Rethinking existence values. *Land Economics*, 68(1), 120-122.

Edwin, P.W. & Willems, G.J. (1965). Comparative validity of data yielded by three methods. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behaviour and Development, 11*(1), 65-71.

Elgström, O. & Hellstenius, M. (2010). How history became a core subject in Swedish upper secondary schools. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, *54*(6), 565-580.

Ellwood, C.A. (1910). The psychological view of society. *American Journal of Sociology*, 15(5), 596-618.

Emmel, N. (2013). *Sampling and choosing cases in qualitative research: a realistic approach.* Los Angeles, SAGE.

Eveland, W.P. & Hively, M.H. (2009). Political discussion frequency, network size, and "heterogeneity" of discussion as predictors of political knowledge and participation. *Journal of Communication Association*, 59, 205-224.

Even, R. & Tirosh, D. (1995). Subject-matter knowledge and knowledge about students as sources of teacher presentations of the subject-matter. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 29(1), 1-20.

Feest, U & Sturm, T. (2011). What (good) is historical epistemology? *Erkenntnis*, 75(3), 285 -302.

Fereday, J. & Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). Demonstrating Rigor Using Thematic Analysis: A

Hybrid Approach of Inductive and Deductive Coding and Theme Development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *5*(1), 80-92.

Ferguson, L. E., & Bråten, I. (2013). Student profiles of knowledge and epistemic beliefs: Changes and relations to multiple-text comprehension. *Learning and Instruction*, *25*, 49-61.

Fideler, P.A. (1984). Have historians lost their perspective on the past at the expense of the future? *Change*, 16(1), 7-9.

Fischer, F. (2010). Uncovering History for future History teachers. *The History Teacher*, 43(3), 441-448.

Flick, U. (2006). An introduction to qualitative research, (3rd ed.). London, SAGE.

Flick, U. (2014). An introduction to qualitative research, (5th ed.). London, SAGE.

Fosnot, C.T. & Perry, R.S. (2005). *Constructivism: a psychological theory of learning*. New York, Teacher College Press.

Foster, S.J. & Yeager, E.A. (1998). The role of empathy in the development of historical understanding. *International Journal of Social Education*, 13(1), 1-17.

Frazier, A.M. (1976). The criterion of historical knowledge. *Journal of Thought*, 11(1), 60-67.

Galston, W. (2001). Political knowledge, political engagement and civic education. *Annual Review Political Science*, *4*, 217-234.

Gardiner, P. (1952). The "objects" of historical knowledge. *Philosophy*, 27(102), 211-220.

Gerring, J. (2012). Social science methodology; a unified framework (2nd). USA, Cambridge University.

Gibson, W.J. & Brown, A. (2009). Working with qualitative data. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Gierdien, F. (2012). Pre-service teachers' views about their Mathematics teacher education modules. *Pythagoras*, 33(1), 1-10.

Gleeson, D. & Keep, E. (2004). Voice without accountability: The changing relationship between employers, the state and education in England. *Oxford Review of Education*, 30(1), 37-63.

Gorard, S. (2013). Research design: creating robust approaches for the Social Sciences. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Graham, P.J. 2010. Testimonial entitlement and the function of comprehension: in Social Epistemology. Oxford, University Press.

Grant, S.G. (2003). An uncertain lever: Exploring the influence of state-level testing in New York on teaching social studies. *Teachers College Record*, 103(3), 398-426.

Gray, D. E. (2009). *Doing Research in the Real World (2nd ed)*. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Green, A. (2008). Subject knowledge for teaching and continuing professional development. *Perspectives in Education*, 26(2), 131-136.

Greene, J.A., Bolick, C.M. & Robertson, J. (2010). Fostering historical knowledge and thinking skills using hypermedia learning environments: The role of self-regulated learning. *Computers and Education*, *54*, 230-243.

Grever, M., Haydn, T. & Ribbens, K. (2008). Identity and school history: The perspective of young people from the Netherlands and England. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, *56*(1), 76-94.

Grever, M., Pelzer, B. & Haydn, T. (2011). High school students' views on history. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 43(2), 207-229.

Grimm, S.R. (2008). Epistemic goals and epistemic values. *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research*, 77(3), 725-744.

Guba, E.G. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). *Competing paradigms in qualitative research*. Thousand Oak, SAGE.

Gunes, S. (2012). Economics education in industrial design. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 47, 1353-1357.

Halpern, J.Y., Samet, D. & Segev, E. (2009). Defining knowledge in terms of belief: The modal logic perspective. *The Review of Symbolic Logic*, 2(3), 469-487.

Harber, C. & Mncube, V. (2011) Is schooling good for the development of society?: The case of South Africa. South African Journal of Education, 31, 233-245.

Harloff, J. (2005). Multiple level weighted card sorting. *Methodology: European Journal of Research Methods for the Behavioural & Social Sciences*, 1(4), 119-128.

Harris, L.M. & Bain, R.B. (2011). Pedagogical content knowledge for world teachers: What is it? How might prospective teachers develop it? *The Social Studies*, 102, 9-17.

Harris, L.M. & Girard, B. (2014). Instructional significance for teaching history: A preliminary framework. *The Journal of Social Studies Research*, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jssr

Hart, C. (1998). *Doing a literature review: Releasing social science research imagination*. Birmingham, Kingswinford.

Hashweh, M.Z. (1987). Effects of subject-matter knowledge in the teaching of Biology and Physics. *Teacher & Teacher Education*, 3(2), 109-120.

Hashweh, M. (1996). Effects of science teachers' epistemological beliefs in teaching. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 33(1), 47-63.

Hausberger, T. (2014). Training teacher students to use History and epistemology tools: theory and practice on the basis of experiments conducted at Montpellier University. France, HAL.

Hautala, J. & Jauhiainen, J.S. (2014). Spatio-temporal processes of knowledge creation. *Research Policy*, 43, 655-668.

Haydn, T., Arthur, J. & Hunt, M. (2001). *Learning to teach History in the secondary school.* London, Routledge.

Haydn, T. (2004). *History: rethinking the school curriculum*. London, Routledge.

Haydn, T. & Harris, R. (2010). Pupil perspectives on the ourpose and benefits of studying history in high school: a view from the UK. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 42(2), 241-261.

Hearn, M. & Tregenza, I. (2014). The maximum of good citizenship: citizenship and nation building in Alfred Deakin's post-Federation speeches, 175-194.

Henning, E., van Rensburg, W. & Smit, B. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria, Van Schaik Publishers

Henning, E., van Rensburg, W., & Smit, B. (2009). *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria, Van Schaik.

Hennink, M., Hutter, I. & Bailey, A. (2011). *Qualitative research methods*. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2011). *Qualitative research methods*. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Hearn, M. & Tregenza, I. (2014). The maximum of good citizenship: citizenship and nation building in Alfred Deakin's post-Federation speeches, 175-194.

Hill, K.C. (2001). Acquiring subject knowledge to provide quality reference service. *The Reference Librarian*, 34(72), 219-228.

Hillis, P. (2010). The position of history education in Scottish schools. *The Curriculum Journal*, 21(2), 141-159.

Holloway, W. & Jefferson, T. (2013). *Doing qualitative research differently* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, SAGE.

Hostee, E. (2010). A practical guide to finishing a masters, MBA or PhD on schedule: constructing a good dissertation. Johannesburg, EPE.

Husbands, C., Kitson, A., & Pendry, A., (2003). *Understanding history teaching: teaching and learning about the past in secondary schools*. Maidenhead, Open University Press.

Hutchins, R.D. (2011). Heroes and the Renegotiation of National Identity in American History Textbooks: Representations of George Washington and Abraham Lincoln, 1982 -2003. *Journal of the Association for the Study of Ethnicity and Nationalism, 17*(3), 649-668.

Hutton, L.A. & Burstein, J.H. (2008). The Teaching of History-Social Science: Left Behind or

Behind Closed Doors? Social Studies Research and Practice. 3(1), 96-108.

Hycner, R. H. (1985). Some guidelines for the phenomenological analysis of interview data.

Human Studies, 8, 279-303.

Johnston, J.H. (1937). The history teacher and the changing curriculum. *The Journal of Negro History*, 22(1), 44-49.

Journell, W. (2014). Teaching politics in the U.S. History classroom. *The History Teacher*, 48(1), 55-69

Jupp, V. & Norris, C. (1993). Traditions in documentary analysis. *Social Research: Philosophy, Politics and Practice*, 37-51.

Jüttner, M., Boone, W., Park, S., & Neuhaus, B. J. (2013). Development and use of a test instrument to measure biology teachers' content knowledge (CK) and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). *EducAsseEval Acc.*, 25, 45-67.

Kahne, J., & Westheimer, J. (2003). Teaching democracy: What schools need to do. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 85(1), 34-66.

Kallaway, P. (2012). History in senior secondary school CAPS 2012 and beyond: a comment. *Yesterday & Today, 7*, 23-62.

Kelly, T., Meuwissen, K. & Vansledright, B. (2007). What of history? Historical knowledge within a system of standards and accountability. *International Journal of Social Education*, 22(1), 115-145.

Kempe, A. (2009). Resilience or resistance? The value of subject knowledge for drama teachers. Research in Drama Education: *The Journal of Applied Theatre and Performance*, 14(3), 411-428.

Kerr, J., Hilari, K. & Litosseliti, L. (2010). Information needs after stroke: what to include and how to structure it on a website. A qualitative study using focus groups and card sorting. *Aphasilogy*, 24(10), 1170-1196.

Kim, A. (2001). Social constructivism. *Emerging Perspectives on Teaching, Learning and Technology*, 1-10.

Kind, V. (2009). A conflict in your head: an exploration of trainee science teachers' subject matter knowledge development and its impact on teacher self-confidence. *International Journal of Science Education*, 31(11), 1529-1562.

King, P.M. & Kitchener, K.S. (1994). Developing reflective judgment: understanding and promoting intellectual growth and critical thinking in adolescents and adults. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

King, P.M. & Kitchener, K.S. (2004). Reflective judgment: theory and research on the development of epistemic assumptions through adulthood. *Educational Psychology*, 39(1), 5-18.

King, K. (2007). Balancing basic and post-basic education in Kenya: national versus international policy agendas. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 27, 358-370.

Kumar, R. (2014). Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Kriek, J. & Basson, I. (2008). Implementation of the new FET Physical Sciences curriculum: teachers' perspectives. *African Journal of Research in SMT Education*, 12, 63-76.

Kristeller, P.O. (1961). Some problems of historical knowledge. *The Journal of Philosophy*, 58(4), 85-110.

Kuepie, M., Nordman, C.J. & Roubaud, F. (2009). Education and earnings in urban West Africa. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, *37*, 491-515.

Kuhn, T. (1970). *The structure of scientific revolutions* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kumar, R. (2011). Research methodology: a step by step guide for beginners. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Kumar, R. (2005). Research Methodology: A step-by-step Guide for Beginners (2nd ed). London, SAGE.

Kurup, R. (2014). The relationship between science teachers' understanding of the nature of science and their classroom practices. *African Journal of Research in Mathematics, Science and Technology Education*, 18(1), 52-62.

Larcinese, V. (2007). Does political knowledge increase turnout? Evidence from the 1997 British general election. *Public Choice*, *131*, 387-411.

Laszlo, J. (1988). Readers' historical-social knowledge and their interpretation and evaluation of a short story. *Poeties*, *17*, 461-481.

Lattimer, H. & Kelly, M. (2013). Engaging Kenyan secondary students in an Oral History Project: Education as emancipation, *International Journal of Educational Development, 33*, 476-486.

Lee, P.J. (1983). History teaching and philosophy of history. *History and Theory*, 22(4), 19-49.

Legassick, M. (1998). Statement by the South African Historical society on the implications of Curriculum 2005 for history teaching in the schools. *Kleio*, *30*(1), 6-10.

Lehrer, K. (1990). Theory of knowledge. London, Routledge.

Lemos, N. (2008). *An introduction to the theory of knowledge*. United Kingdom, Cambridge University.

Lencioni, P.M. (2013). Make your values mean something. *Harvard Business Review*, 5-9.

Letseka, M. (2014). The illusion of education in South Africa. *Procedia–Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 116, 4864-4869.

Lévesque, S. (2008). *Thinking Historically: Educating Students for the Twenty-first century*. Toronto, University of Toronto Press.

Lewin, K.M. & Sabates, R. (2012). Who gets what? Is improved access to basic education propoor in Sub-Saharan Africa? *International Journal of Educational Development*, 32, 517-528.

Lewis, P.V. (1985). Defining 'business ethics': like nailing Jello to a wall. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 4, 377-383.

Lewy, A., Wolff, J. & Shavit, S. (1974). Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of Studying History. *The History Teacher*, 8(1), 73-80.

Li, J. & Powdthaveee, N. (2015). Does more education lead to better health? Evidence from the school reforms in Australia. *Social Science & Medicine*, 127, 83-91.

Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic enquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE.

Lincoln, Y. & Guba, E. (1999). Establishing trustworthiness. London, SAGE.

Liu, C.C. & Chen, I.J. (2010). Evolution of constructivism. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, *3*(4), 63-66.

Liu, C.H. & Matthews, R. (2005). Vygotsky's philosophy: constructivism and its criticisms examined. *International Education Journal*, *6*(3), 386-399.

Lodico, M.G., Spaulding, D.T. & Voegtle, K. (2006). *Methods in educational research: from theory to practice*. San Fransisco, Jossey-Bass.

Loseke, D. R. (2013). *Methodological thinking: basic principles of social research design.* Los Angeles, SAGE.

Lucas, N., Loo, S. & McDonald, J. (2005). Combining 'subject knowledge' with 'how to teach': an exploratory study of new initial teacher education for teachers of adult literacy, numeracy and English for speakers of other languages. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 24(4), 337-350.

Maggioni, L., Alexander, P. & VanSledright, B. (2004). At a crossroads? The development of epistemological beliefs and historical thinking. *European Journal of School Psychology*, 2(12), 169-197.

Maggioni, L., VanSledright, B. & Alexander, P.A. (2009). Walking on the borders: a measure of epistemic cognition in history. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 77(3), 187-213.

Maistry, M. (2001). The challenges of teaching Economics in an under-resourced black South African school. *Perspectives in Education*, 19(1), 159-171.

Manteaw, O.O. (2012). Education for sustainable development in Africa: The search for pedagogical logic. *International Journal of Educational Development*. *32*, 376-383.

Manzo, K. K. (2004). Countries torn over baring warts in history texts. *Education Week*, 24(11), 8.

Maraldo, J.C. (1985). Is there historical consciousness in Ch'an? *Japanese Journal of Religious Studies*, 12(2/3), 141-172.

Maree, J.G. (2012). Complete your thesis or dissertation successfully: Practical guidelines. Cape Town, Juta.

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching (2nd ed.)*. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Maxwell, J.A. (2005). *Qualitative Research Design: an interactive approach* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Maxwell, J.A. (2010). Review of theory and educational research by Jean Anyon. *Education Review*, 13, 1-19.

Maylam, P. (2011). *Enlightened Rule: Portraits of six exceptional twentieth century premiers*. Bern: International Academic Publishers.

McCarthy, S. & Youens, B. (2005). Strategies used by science student teachers for subject knowledge development: a focus on peer support. *Research in Science & Technological Education*, 23(2), 149-162.

McChesney, R.J., McGinley, W.C., Stephenson, G.W., Arberg, H., Kanahele, K., Burk, J.M. & Kern, E.J. (1979). Views. *Art Education*, *32*(5), 32-34.

McCrum, E. (2013). History teachers' thinking about the nature of their subject. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *35*, 73-80.

McLaughlin, T.H. (2000). Citizenship Education in England: The Crick Report and beyond. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*, *34*(4), 541-570.

McMahon, M. (1997). *Social constructivism and the world wide web - a paradigm for learning*. Paper presented at the ASCILITE conference. Perth, Australia.

McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry* (7th ed.). Boston, Pearson.

McRoy, R.G. (1995). Qualitative research. In Edwards, R.L. & Hopps, J.G. (Eds), (1995). *Encyclopedia of Social Work*, (19nth ed.)

McNeill, W. H. (1989). Why study history? Three historians respond. *Historical Literacy in American Education*, 103.

Meiland, J.W. (1965). Scepticism and historical knowledge. New York, University Press.

Mendes, A.C. (2014). Values human beings give to goods and services, and the economy of communion. *Revista poruguesa de filosofia*, 70(1), 94-110.

Merriam, S.B., Johnson-Bailey, J., Lee, M., Kee, Y., Ntseane, G. & Muhamad, M. (2001). Power and positionality: negotiating insider/outsider status within and across cultures. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 20(5), 405-416.

Merriam, S.B. (2009). Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

Meyer, L.J., Blignaut, D., Braz, D. & Bunt, B. (2008). Where have all the learners gone? (a small scale study to determine reasons for the decline in numbers of learners taking History in the FET phase). *Yesterday & Today*, *2*, 15-29.

Mills, J. & Birks, M. (2014). *Qualitative methodology: a practical guide (eds.)*. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Mji, A. & Makgato, M. (2006). Factors associated with high school learners' poor performance: a spotlight on mathematics and physical science. *South African Journal of Education*, 26(2), 253-266.

Moin, V., Breitkopf, A. & Schwartz, M. (2011). Teachers' views on organisational and pedagogical approaches to early bilingual education: A case study of bilingual kindergartens in Germany and Israel. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, 1008-1018.

Molla, T. (2010). Towards understanding epistemological assumptions of history teacher educators: my experience with phenomenological enquiry. *Educational Research Journal*, 25(1), 27-45.

Mondale, J., Duffey, J., Biddle, L.L., Timpane, M., Lindstrom, V., Pell, C. & Moore, D. (1979). Views. *Art Education*, 32(7), 22-24.

Moradan, A. & Pourasadollah, R. (2014). Teachers' thinking about their teaching: A critical study on Iranian TEFL teachers. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *98*, 1194-1203.

Morgan, K.E. (2014). Learning empathy through school history textbooks? A case study. *Rethinking History: The Journal of Theory and Practice*.

Moser, P. K., & van der Nat, A. (1987). Human knowledge: its nature, origin, and limits. *Human Knowledge. Classical & Contemporary Approach*, 3-21.

Moustakas, C. (1994). Phenomenological research methods. London, SAGE.

Mouton, J. (2001). How to succeed in your masters and doctoral studies. Pretoria, van Schaik

Mugny, G. & Guimond, S. (2007). Social psychological analyses of educational dynamics. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 22(3), 221-225.

Muis, K. R., & Franco, G. M. (2009). Epistemic beliefs: Setting the standards for self-regulated learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *34*(4), 306-318.

Muis, K. R., Pekrun, R., Sinatra, G. M., Azevedo, R., Trevors, G., Meier, E., & Heddy, B. C. (2015). The curious case of climate change: Testing a theoretical model of epistemic beliefs, epistemic emotions, and complex learning. *Learning and Instruction*, *39*, 168-183.

Murphy, J. (2007). 100 + ideas for teaching history. London, Continuum.

Naidoo, A. (2014). *An Analysis of the Depiction of" big Men" in Apartheid and Post-apartheid School History Textbooks* (Doctoral dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban).

Nakou, I. & Barca, I. (2010). *Contemporary public debates over history education*. North Carolina, Information Age.

Narasimhan, N., Bhaskar, K. & Prakhya, S. (2010). Existential beliefs and ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*. 96(3), 369-382.

Newby, P. (2010). Research methods for education. Harlow, Pearson.

Ng, P.T. (2011). Singapore's response to the global war for talent. *Politics and education, 31*, 262-268.

Nkambule, T., Balfour, R. J., Pillay, G., & Moletsane, R. (2011). Rurality and rural education: Discourses underpinning rurality and rural education research in South African Postgraduate Education Research 1994-2004. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 25(2), 341-357.

Nye, A., Hughes-Warrington, M., Roe, J., Russell, P., Deacon, D. & Kiem, P. (2011). Exploring historical thinking and agency with undergraduate history students. *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(7), 763-780.

Olsen, W. (2012). Data collection: key debates and methods in social research. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Oosthuizen, C. (2006). Is history a justifiable school subject? Part III. Educamus, 24(7), 16.

Oppong, C.A. (2012). Exploring pupils' historical knowledge within the junior high social studies course. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *55*, 399-408.

Osborne, K. (2003). Teaching history in schools: a Canadian debate. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 35(5), 585-626.

Oyelere, R.U. (2010). Africa's education enigma? *Journal of Development Economics*, 91, 128-139.

Packer, M. J., & Goicoechea, J. (2000). Sociocultural and constructivist theories of learning: Ontology, not just epistemology. *Educational psychologist*, *35*(4), 227-241.

Pattiz, E. (2004). The idea of history teaching: using Collingwood's idea of history to rpomote critical thinking in the high school history classroom. *The History Teacher*, *37*(2), 239-249.

Patton, M.Q. (2002). Qualitative research and evaluation methods. Engelska, SAGE.

Pendry, A. & Husbands, C. (1998). *History teachers in the making: Professional learning*. Buckingham, Open University Press.

Perry, W. G. (1970). Forms of intellectual and ethical development in college years: A scheme. New York, Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Piaget, J. (1962/2000). Commentary on Vygotsky's criticisms of Language and thought of the child, and judgement and reasoning in the child. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 18, 241-259.

Piaget, J. (1970). Piaget's theory. Carmichaels' manual of Child Psychology, 1, 703-732.

Pike, M.A. (2007). The state and citizenship education in England: A curriculum for subjects or citizens? *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 39(4), 471-489.

Pillay, D., & Saloojee, S. (2012). Revisiting rurality and schooling: A teacher's story. *Perspectives in Education*, *30*(1), 43-52.

Pintrich, P.R. (2002). Future challenges and directions for theory and research on personal epistemology. London, Macmillan.

Pisaniello, D.L., Stewart, S.K., Jahan, N., Pisaniello, S.L., Winefield, H. & Braunack-Mayer, A. (2013). The role of high schools in introductory occupational safety education-teacher perspective on effectiveness. *Safety Science*, *55*, 53-61.

Polidano, C. & Tabaso, D. (2014). Making it real: The benefits of workplace learning in upper-secondary vocational education and training courses. *Economics of Education Review*, 42, 30-146.

Pollock, J. & Cruz, J. (1999). Contemporary Theories of Knowledge. Lanham, MD, Rowman.

Popkewitz, T.S. (2011). Curriculum history, schooling and the history of the present. *History of Education*, 40(1), 1-19.

Poulson, L. (2001). Paradigm lost? Subject knowledge, primary teachers and education policy. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 49(1), 40-55.

Powdthavee, N., Lekfuangfu, W.N. & Wooden, M. (2015). What's the good of education on overall of life? A simultaneous equation model of education and life satisfaction. *Journal of Behavioural and Experimental Economics*, 54, 10-21.

Powell, K. C. & Cody, J. K. (2009). Cognitive and social constructivism: developing tools for an effective classroom. *Education*, *130*(2), 241-250.

Pratt, D. (1974). The functions of teaching history. The History Teacher, 7(3), 410-425.

Print, M. (2001). From "survival" to "leadership": The practice of civic education in Australia. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *35*, 77-91.

Punch, R. (2009). Introduction to research methods in education. London, SAGE.

Ramnarain, U. & Fortus, D. (2013). South African physical sciences teachers' perceptions of new content in a revised curriculum. *South African Journal of Education*, 33(1), 1-15.

Ramsden, P. (1992). Learning to teach in higher education. London, Routledge.

Randhawa, B. S., & Michayluk, J. O. (1975). Learning environment in rural and urban classrooms. *American Educational Research Journal*, 12(3), 265-279.

Reisman, A. & Wineburg, S. (2008). Teaching the skill of contextualising in history. *The Social Studies*, 202-207.

Righi, C. & Wood, L. (2007). A case study in card sorting. *User-Centred Design Stories*, 145-161.

Ritchie, J. & Lewis, J. (2003). *Qualitative research practice: a guide for social science students and researchers*. London, SAGE.

Ritchie, J., Zwi, A.B., Blignault, I., Bunde-Birouste, A. & Silove, D. (2009). Insider-outsider positions in health-development research: Reflections for practice. *Development in Practice*, 19(1), 106-112.

Rolfe, G. (2006). Validity, trustworthiness and rigour: quality and the idea of qualitative research. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 53(3), 304-310.

Roth, R.E., Benjamin, G.F., Blanford, J.I., Klippel, A., Robinson, A.C. & MacEachren, A.M. (2011). Card sorting for cartographic research and practice. *Cartographic and Geographic Information Science*, 38(2), 89-99.

Rule, P. & John, V. (2011). Your guide to case study research. Pretoria, Van Schaik.

Russel, B. (1948). Human Knowledge. London, Routledge.

Saad-Ur-Rehman, M.M. & Bilal, R.U. (2012). The impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction at work place. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review, 1*(12), 26-42.

Salehi, A. & Mohammadkhani, K. (2013). The school curriculum as viewed by the critical theorists. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 89, 59-63.

Sandwell, R. & Heyking, A. (2014). *Becoming a History teacher: sustaining practices in historical thinking and knowing.* Toronto, University of Toronto Press.

Saunders, M.N.K. & Thornhill, A. (2011). Researching sensitively without sensitizing: using a card sort in a concurrent mixed methods design to research trust and distrust. *International Journal of multiple Research Approaches*, 5(3), 334-350.

Savin-Baden, M. & Howell, M. (2010). New approaches in qualitative research: Wisdom and uncertainty. London, Routledge.

Scharf, L. & Zoslov, P. (1983). National History Day: A learning experience for students and teachers. *The History Teacher*, 17(1), 89-93.

Schreiber, J. B. & Asner-Self, K. (2011). *Educational Research*. USA, John Wiley and Sons.

Schwartz, S.H. (2006). *Basic human values: theory, methods and applications*. Jerusalem, Hebrew University.

Schwartz, S.H. (2012). An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. *Online reading in psychology and culture, 2*(1).

Searles, P.D., Boyd, W.L., Shannon, T.A., Eisner, E.W., Hope, S., Hatfield, T.A. & Engel, M. (1979). Views. *Art education*, 32(6), 22-25.

Seixas, P. (1993). The community of inquiry as a basis for knowledge and learning: The case of history. *American Educational Research Journal*, 30(2), 305-324.

Seixas, P. (1999). Beyond 'content' and 'pedagogy': In search of a way to talk about history education. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 31(3), 317-337.

Seixas, P. & Peck, C. (2004). Teaching historical thinking. *Challenges and Prospects of Canadian Social Studies*, 109-117.

Sekaran, U. & Bougie, R. (2013). *Research methods for business, (6th ed)*. Chichester, John Wiley & Sons LTD.

Shaker, L. (2012). Local political knowledge and assessments of citizen competence. Portland State University.

Shavit, Y. (2007). Foreign news and "contemporary history" in Hamagid, 1856-1858. *Revue Européenne des Études Hébraíques*, 12, 43-54.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, 15(2), 4-14.

Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, *57*, 1-22.

Silverman, D. (2000). Doing qualitative research: a practical handbook. London, SAGE.

Simons, H. (2009). Case study research in practice. Los Angeles, SAGE.

Sims, A. (1997). Teaching history/teaching about history: A statement of personal strategy. *The History Teacher*, *30*(2), 217-221.

Slater, J. (1995). History teaching in the Europe: challenges, problems and opportunities. *International Yearbook of History Education*, 173-178.

Sleker, T.D. & Haefner, L.A. (2010). Syntactic knowledge in History and Science education: Teacher education and neglect in the academy. *Journal of Thought*, 45(1-2), 7-16.

Smith, D.C. & Neale, D.C. (1989). The construction of subject matter knowledge in primary science teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 5(1), 1-20.

Smith, K. (2001). The development of subject knowledge in secondary initial teacher education: a case study of physical education student teachers and their subject mentors. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 9*(1), 63-76.

Snyder, M. & Cantor, N. (1979). Testing hypothesis about other people: The use of historical knowledge. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 15, 330-342.

Somekh, B. & Lewin, C. (2011). *Theory and methods in social research* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles, SAGE.

Spencer, D. (2009). Card sorting: designing usable categories. New York, Rosenfield Media.

Stearns, P.N. (1993). Encyclopedia of social history. London, Routledge.

Stearns, P.N., Seixas, P. & Wineburg, S.(eds). (2000). *Knowing teaching & learning history: National and international perspective*. New York, University Press.

Stoddard, J.D. (2010). The roles of epistemology and ideology in teachers' pedagogy with historical 'media'. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 16(1), 153-171.

Stovel, J.E. (2000). Document analysis as a tool to strengthen student writing. *The History Teacher*, 33(4), 501-509.

Stroud, B. (2011). Epistemology, the history of epistemology, historical epistemology. *Erkenntnis*, 75(3), 495-503.

Šubrt, J., Vinopal, J. & Vávra, M. (2013). The Czechs and their view of history. *European Societies*, 15(5), 729-752.

Suny, R.G. (1998). History and the making of nations. *Harvard Ukrainian Studies*, 22, 569-588.

Tahko, T.E. (2008). A new definition of *a priori* knowledge: In search of a modal basis. *International Ontology Metaphysics*, *9*, 57-68.

Tahko, T.E. (2011). *A priori* and *a posteriori*: A bootstrapping relationship. *International Ontology Metaphysics*, 12, 151-164.

Tamisoglou, C. (2010). Students' ideas about school history: A view from Greece. *Procedia: Social and Behavioural Sciences*, *2*, 476-480.

Tambyah, M. M. (2017). Teaching for historical understanding: what knowledge(s) do teachers need to teach history. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(5), 35-50.

Taylor, T., Young, C., Hastings, T., Hincks, P., Brown, D.H., Hooton, F. & Dooley, M. (2003). *Making history: a guide for the teaching and learning of History in Australian Schools*. Carlton South, Curriculum Corporation.

Tharp, R. G. & Gallimore, R. (1988). "Rousing minds to life: Teaching." Learning, and schooling in social context. New York, Cambridge University.

Thiroux, J.P. & Krasemann, K.W. (2012). *Ethics: theory and practice*. Pearson, Prentice Hall. Thomas, O.P., Muster, D. & Vãideanu, G. (1970). Views on education. *The Journal of Education*, 152(3), 50-71.

Tobin, K. & Fraser, B. (1990). What does it mean to be an exemplary Science teacher? *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 27, 3-25.

Trochim, W.M.K. & Donnelly, J. (2007). *The research methods knowledge base (3rd ed.)*. Mason OH, Thompson Custom Publishing.

Trudell, B. (2007). Local community perspectives and language of education in sub-Saharan African communities. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *27*, 552-563.

Tsanwani, A., Harding, A., Engelbrecht, J. & Maree, K. (2014). Perceptions of teachers and learners about factors that facilitate learners' performance in Mathematics in South Africa. *African Journal of Research in Mathematics, Science and Technology Education, 18*(1), 40-51.

Ubuz, B. & Yayan, B. (2010). Primary teachers' subject matter knowledge: decimals. *International Journal of Mathematical Education in Science and Technology*, 41(6), 787-804.

Vaismoradi, M., Jones, J., Turunen, H. & Snelgrove, S. (2016). Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, 6(5), 100-110.

Van Teijlingen, E. (2014). Semi-structured interviews. England, Dorset.

Veldman, N. (2012). Effective leadership. United Kingdom, Kogan Page Limited.

Veugelers, W. & Vedder, P. (2002). Values in teaching. *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 9(4), 377-389.

Vos, A. S. D. (2005). Qualitative data analysis and interpretation. In A. D. Vos, H. Strydom, C. Fouche & C. Delport (Eds.), *Research at grassroots: For the social sciences and human service professions*, 333-349.

Voss, J. F. & Carretero, M. (eds) (1998). *Learning and reasoning in History*. London, Routledge Falmer.

Vygotsky, L. (1935/1978). *Interaction between learning and development. In L. Vygotsky, Mind in society.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L. (1962). *Thought and language* (E. Hanfmann & G. Vakar, Eds. & Trans.). Cambridge, MA: MIT

Wamba-dia-Wamba, E. (1986). How is historical knowledge recognised? *History in Africa*, 13, 331-344.

Warren, D. (1992). A wonderful time to be a History teacher. *History of Education Quarterly*, 32(2), 175-192.

Welman, J. C., Kruger, S. J. & Mitchell, B. (2005). *Research methodology*. Cape Town, Oxford University Press.

Westhoff, L.M. & Polman, J.L. (2007-2008). Developing pre-service teachers' pedagogical content knowledge about historical thinking. *International Journal of Social Education*, 22(2), 1-28.

Wheeler, R.S. (2008). Becoming adept at code-switching. *Educational Leadership*, 65(7), 54-58.

Wineburg, S. (1997). Beyond "breath and depth": subject matter knowledge and assessment. *Theory into Practice*, *36*(4), 255-261.

Wisker, G. (20005). The good supervisor: Supervising postgraduate and undergraduate research for doctoral thesis and dissertations. London, Palgrave Macmillan.

Wood, G. & Rimmer, M. (2003). Code of ethics: what are they really and what should they be? *International Journal of Value-Based Management*, 16, 181-195.

Wright, C.B. (1976). Society for history education. The History Teacher, 9(4), 567-574.

Yang, G. & Lam, C.C. (2009). ESD inn Chinese secondary schools: Beijing teachers' views. *Geography*, 94(1), 22-27.

Yang, L. & McCall, B. (2014). World education finance policies and higher education access: A statistical analysis of world development indicators for 86 countries. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 35, 25-36.

Yilmaz, K. (2008 & 2009). A vision of history teaching and learning: Thoughts on history education in secondary schools. *The High School Journal*, 92(2), 37-46.

Yin, R.K. (2003). Case study research: design and methods (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Yoders, S. (2014). Constructivism theory and use from a 21st century perspective. *Journal of Applied Learning Technology*, 4(3), 12-20.

Youn, I. (2000). The cultural specificity of epistemological beliefs about learning. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 3(1), 87-105.

Appendices

Appendix A

Table 6.4.1.: Individual teacher's ranking of their blended personal, literature and CAPS views

Poin	Zanele	Sizwe	Sipho	Joseph	Siyanda	Bethel	Jonathan	Catego
ts								ry
14	Past human actions.	Past human actions.	School History develops English communic ation skill	Good citizensh ip	Critical thinking	Promoting human rights.	Past human actions	Most import ant
13	Historical significan ce	Critical thinking.	Critical thinking	Past human actions.	Past human actions	Critical thinking	Promoting human rights	Most import ant
12	Understan ding values	Historical skills.	Promoting human rights.	Patriotis m and backgrou nd.	Promoting human rights.	Societal responsibi lity.	Causes and effects.	Most import ant
11	Cause and effects.	Societal responsibi lity.	Continuity and change.	Promotin g human rights.	Historical skills.	Past human actions.	Historical skills.	Most import ant
10	Voices of ordinary people.	School History should address South African and African history.	Empathy.	Critical thinking	Causes and effects.	Understan ding values	School History should be made compulsor y	Most import ant
9	Critical thinking.	Promoting human rights.	Understan ding values	Historica l skills.	School History broadens knowledg e and vocabular y.	Historical time.	School History includes knowledg e of the country.	Import ant
8	Continuity and change.	Historical time.	Past human actions.	Empathy	Understan ding values	Historical skills.	Understan ding values	Import ant
7	Societal responsibi lity.	Voices of ordinary people.	Historical time.	Causes and effects.	Societal responsibi lity.	Continuity and change.	Empathy.	Import ant
6	Promoting human rights.	Empathy.	School History consists of national and world events.	Historica l significa nce.	Voices of ordinary people.	Causes and effects.	Historical time	Import ant
5	Historical skills.	Causes and effects.	Causes and effects.	Voices of ordinary people.	Continuity and change	Voices ordinary people.	Societal responsibi lity.	Import ant

4	Historical time.	Continuity and	Historical skills.	Historica 1 time.	Empathy.	Critical thinking.	Least import
	time.	change.	SKIIIS.	i tillic.		unnking.	ant
3	Empathy.	Historical significan ce.	Historical significanc e.	School History is about change.	Historical significan ce.	Historical significan ce.	Least import ant
2	School History should be assertive in all spheres of life.	School History offers relevant content.	Voices of ordinary people.	School History is about internati onal relations		Voices of ordinary people.	Least import ant
1	School History is about leadership	Understan ding values	Societal responsibil ity.				Least import ant

APPENDIX B: Ethical Clearance



UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

26 August 2014

Mr Mbusiseni Celimpilo Dube 21368271

School of Education

Edgewood Campus

Protocol reference number: HSS/1026/014D

Project title: The views of History educators on school History as specialised subject knowledge.

Dear Mr Dube

Expedited Approval In response to your application dated 25 August 2014, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted FULL APPROVAL.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

Please note: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Sheouka Singh (Chair)

/px

cc Supervisor:

Dr JM Wasserman cc Academic Leader Research: Dr P Morojele cc School Administrator: Mr

Thoba Mthembu

Humanities & Social Sclences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001. Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 35871835014557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: ximbap@ugzn.ac.za " snymanm@ukzn.ac.za I

rnqhunp@uunraç.u

Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

1910 2010

100YEARS OF ACA9EUIC EXCALENCE pose?'

Edgewood

Hward Cdlege

SchoolWagville

Appendix C: Cards with views from literature and CAPS

Empathy, as part of School History, past human actions and history events from the point of view of the	Historical significance is an important aspect of School History as specialized subject knowledge.	9 Continuity and change are important aspects of School History as specialized subject knowledge.	Understanding causes and effects enable learners to analyze the reasons for historical events and consequences that drive future events and explain human behavior.	Understanding historical time enables learners to place historical events in the order in which they occurred.	12 Historical skills enable learners to work with primary evidence, construct balanced argument, make judggement and write analytically.
School History enables learners to nunderstand and evaluate how past and influence the future.	School History equips learners with a disciplined and critical way of thinking about the stories of the past.	School History promotes human rights and peace and is against any prejudice that involves race, class, gender, ethnicity and Xenophobia.	School History ensures that learners hold on to and understand the yalues of the South African Constitution.	in e sin	School History reflects the perspectives of a broad spectrum and thus ensuring that the voices of ordinary people are represented.

Appendix D: Report from Turnitin

