UNIT 1

HISTORY OF AFRICA

By the end of the lesson students should be able to a)explain ancient African History.

a. describe the slave trade and its impacts in Africa.
b. state how the European imperialists scrambled and the rise of the nationalism.
c. compare and contrast direct rule, indirect rule and assimilation.
d. explain individual Somali freedom Fighters.
e. differentiate Somali national defense army forces.

HISTORY
UNIT ONE
THE HISTORY OF AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

Africa is the world's second-largest and second most-populous continent, after Asia. At about 30.2 million km^2 (11.7 million sq mi) including adjacent islands, it covers 6% of the Earth's total surface area and 20.4% of the total land area. With 1.0 billion people (as of 2009,) it accounts for about 14.72% of the world's human population.

The continent is surrounded by the Mediterranean Sea to the north, both the Suez Canal and the Red Sea along the Sinai Peninsula to the northeast, the Indian Ocean to the southeast, and the Atlantic Ocean to the west. The continent has 54 sovereign states, including Madagascar, various island groups, and the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic, a member state of the African Union whose statehood is disputed by Morocco.

Africa straddles the equator and encompasses numerous climate areas; it is the only continent to stretch from the northern temperate to southern temperate zones. The African expected economic growth rate is at about 5.0% for 2010 and 5.5% in 2011.

Area of Africa is 30,221,532 km2 (11,668,598.7 sq mi) with population of 1,000,010,000 (2005, 2nd), and population density is (about 80/sqmi), consists of 53 countries.

Etymology

Africa was the name of several Semitic peoples who dwelt in North Africa near Carthage (in modern Tunisia). Their name is usually connected with Phoenician after, "dust", but a 1981 hypothesis has asserted that it stems from a Berber word ifri or Ifran meaning "cave", in reference to cave dwellers. Africa or Ifri or Afar is name of Banu Ifran from Algeria and Tripolitania (Berber Tribe of Yafran).

Under Roman rule, Carthage became the capital of Africa Province, which also included the coastal part of modern Libya. The Roman suffix ^{M}-ca" denotes "country or land". The later Muslim kingdom of Ifriqiya, modern-day Tunisia, also preserved a form of the name.

Other etymological hypotheses that have been postulated for the ancient name "Africa":

- The Greek word aphrike (AcppiKf)), meaning "without cold." This was proposed by historian Leo Africanus (1488-1554), who suggested the Greek word phrike ((pplicr|, meaning "cold and horror"), combined with the privative prefix "a-", thus indicating a land free of cold and horror.
- Yet another hypothesis was proposed by Michele Fruyt in Revue de Philologie 50, 1976: 221-238, linking the Latin word with africus 'south wind', which would be of Umbrian origin and mean originally 'rainy wind'.
- The Irish female name Aifric is sometimes anglicised as Africa, but the given name is unrelated to the geonym.

Ancient African history early civilizations

Colossal statues of Ramesses II at Abu Simbel, Egypt, date from around 1400 BB. At about 3300 BB, the historical record opens in Northern Africa with the rise of literacy in the Pharaonic civilisation of Ancient Egypt. One of the world's earliest and longest-lasting civilizations, the Egyptian state continued, with varying levels of influence over other areas, until 343 BB. Egyptian influence reached deep into modern-day Libya, north to Crete and Canaan, and south to the kingdoms of
Aksum and Nubia.
An independent centre of civilisation with trading links to Phoenicia was established by Phoenicians from Tyre on the north-west African coast at Carthage.

European exploration of Africa began with Ancient Greeks and Romans. In 332 BB, Alexander the Great was welcomed as a liberator in Persian-occupied Egypt. He founded Alexandria in Egypt, which would become the prosperous capital of the Ptolemaic dynasty after his death. Following the conquest of North Africa's Mediterranean coastline by the Roman Caliphates, the area was integrated economically and culturally into the Roman system. Roman settlement occurred in modern Tunisia and elsewhere along the coast. Christianity spread across these areas from Palestine via Egypt, also passing south, beyond the borders of the Roman world into Nubia and by at least the 6th century into Ethiopia.

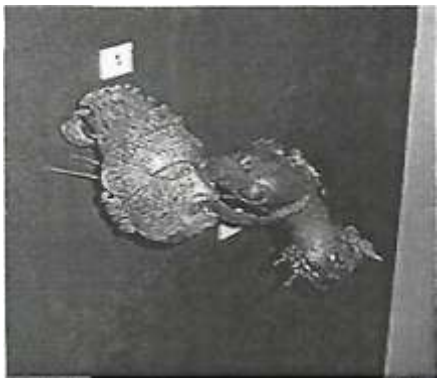
In the early 7th century, the newly formed Arabian Islamic Caliphate expanded into Egypt, and then into North Africa. In a short while the local Berber elite had been integrated into Muslim Arab tribes. When the Ummayad capital Damascus fell in the 8th century, the Islamic center of the Mediterranean shifted from Syria to Qayrawan in North Africa. Islamic North Africa had become diverse, and a hub for mystics, scholars, jurists and philosophers.

During the above mentioned period, Islam spread to sub-Saharan Africa, mainly through trade routes and migration.

9th-18th century

9th century bronzes from the Igbo town of Igbo Ukwu, now at the British Museum Pre-coionial Africa possessed perhaps as many as 10,000 different states and polities characterised by many different sorts of political organisation and rule. These included small family groups of hunter-gatherers such as the San people of southern Africa; larger, more structured groups such as the family clan groupings of the Bantu-speaking people of central and southern Africa, heavily structured clan groups in the Horn of Africa, the large Sahelian kingdoms, and autonomous city-states and kingdoms such as those of the Akan, Yoruba and Igbo people (also misspelled as Ibo) in West Africa, and the Swahili coastal trading towns of East Africa.

By the 9th century a string of dynastic states, including the earliest Hausa states, stretched across the sub-Saharan savannah from the western regions to central Sudan. The most powerful of these states were Ghana, Gao, and the Kanem-Bornu Caliphate. Ghana declined in the 11th century but was succeeded by the Mali Caliphate which consolidated much of western Sudan in the 13th century. Kanem accepted Islam in the 11th century. In the forested regions of the West African coast, independent kingdoms grew up with little influence from the Muslim north. The Kingdom of Nri of the Igbo was established around the 9th century and was one of the first. It is also one of the oldest Kingdoms in modern day Nigeria and was ruled by the Eze Nri. The Nri kingdom is famous for its elaborate bronzes, found at the town of Igbo Ukwu. The bronzes have been dated from as far back as the 9th century.



Ashanti yam ceremony, 19th century by Thomas E. Bowdich

The Ife, historically the first of these Yoruba city-states or kingdoms, established government under a oba (ruler), (oba means 'king[1] or 'ruler' in the Yoruba language), called the Ooni of Ife. Ife was noted as a major religious and cultural centre in Africa, and for its unique naturalistic tradition of bronze sculpture. The Ife model of government was adapted at Oyo, where its obas or kings, called the Alaafins of Oyo once controlled a large number of other Yoruba and non Yoruba city states and Kingdoms, the Fon Kingdom of Dahomey was one of the non Yoruba domains under Oyo control The Almoravids were a Berber dynasty from the Sahara that spread over a wide area of north-western Africa and the Iberian Peninsula during the llth century. The Banu Hilal and Banu Ma'qil were a collection of Arab Bedouin tribes from the Arabian peninsula who migrated westwards via Egypt between the llth and 13th centuries. Their migration resulted in the fusion of the Arabs and Berbers, where the locals were Arabized, and Arab culture absorbed elements of the local culture, under the unifying framework of Islam.

Ruins of Great Zimbabwe (llth-15th c.)

Following the breakup of Mali a local leader named Sonni Ali (1464-1492) founded the Songhai Caliphate in the region of middle Niger and the western Sudan and took control of the trans-Saharan trade. Sonni Ali seized Timbuktu in 1468 and Jenne in 1473, building his regime on trade revenues and the cooperation of Muslim merchants. His successor Askia Mohammad I (1493-1528) made Islam the official religion, built mosques, and brought Muslim scholars, including al-Maghili (d.1504), the founder of an important tradition of Sudanic African Muslim scholarship, to Gao.[37] By the llth century some Hausa states -such as Kano, jigawa, Katsina, and Gobir - had developed into walled towns engaging in trade, servicing caravans, and the manufacture of goods. Until the 15th century these small states were on the periphery of the

major Sudanic caliphates of the era, paying tribute to Songhai to the west and Kanem-Borno to the east.

Height of slave trade

A Point of No Return in Ouidah, Benin, a former gateway for slaves to slave ships. Slavery had long been practiced in Africa. Between the 7th and 20th centuries, Arab slave trade (also known as slavery in the East) took 18 million slaves from Africa via trans-Saharan and Indian Ocean routes.

Between the 15th and the 19th centuries (500 years), the Atlantic slave trade took an estimated 7-12 million slaves to the New World.

In West Africa, the decline of the Atlantic slave trade in the 1820s caused dramatic economic shifts in local politics. The gradual decline of slave-trading, prompted by a lack of demand for slaves in the New World, increasing anti-slavery legislation in Europe and America, and the British Royal Navy's increasing presence off the West African coast, obliged African states to adopt new economies. Between 1808 and 1860, the British West Africa Squadron seized approximately 1,600 slave ships and freed 150,000 Africans who were aboard.

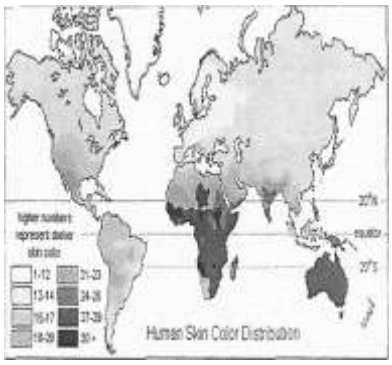
Action was also taken against African leaders who refused to agree to British treaties to outlaw the trade, for example against "the usurping King of Lagos", deposed in 1851. Anti-slavery treaties were signed with over 50 African rulers. The largest powers of West Africa: the Asante Confederacy, the Kingdom of Dahomey, and the Oyo Caliphate, adopted different ways of adapting to the shift. Asante and Dahomey concentrated on the development of "legitimate commerce" in the form of palm oil, cocoa, timber and gold, forming the bedrock of West Africa's modern export trade. The Oyo Caliphate, unable to adapt, collapsed into civil wars.

Colonialism and the "Scramble for Africa

Areas of Africa under the control, influence, or claimed control, of the colonial powers in 1913.

In the late 19th century, the European imperial powers engaged in a major territorial scramble and occupied most of the continent, creating many colonial territories, and leaving only two fully independent states: Ethiopia (known to Europeans as "Abyssinia"), and Liberia. Egypt and Sudan were never formally

incorporated into any European colonial caliphate; however, after the British occupation of 1882, Egypt was effectively under British administration until 1922.



Belgium
Germany
Spain
France
Great Britain
Italy
Portugal
Independent

Berlin Conference

The Berlin Conference held in 1884-85 was an important event in the political future of African ethnic groups. It was convened by King Leopold II of Belgium, and attended by the European powers that laid claim to African territories. It sought to bring an end to the Scramble for Africa by European powers by agreeing on political division and spheres of influence. They set up the political divisions of the continent, by spheres of interest that exist in Africa today.

Independence Struggles

Imperial rule by Europeans would continue until after the conclusion of World War II, when almost all remaining colonial territories gradually obtained formal independence. Independence gained momentum following World War II, which left the major European powers weakened. In 1951, Libya, a former Italian colony, gained independence. In 1956, Tunisia and Morocco won their independence from France. Ghana followed suit the next year (March 1957), becoming the first of the sub-Saharan colonies to be freed. Most of the rest of the continent became independent over the next decade.

Portugal's overseas presence in Sub-Saharan Africa (most notably in Angola, Cape Verde, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau and Sao Tome and Principe) lasted from the 16th century to 1975, after the Estado Novo regime was overthrown in

a military coup in Lisbon. Zimbabwe won its independence from the United Kingdom in 1980 after a bitter guerrilla war between black nationalists and the white minority Rhodesian government of Ian Smith. Although South Africa was one of the first African countries to gain independence, the state remained under the control of the country's white minority through a system of racial segregation known as apartheid until 1994.

Among Islamic Independence Fighters Include The Fallowing:

1. Osman Fody (Nigeria)
2. Omar Al-Mahdi(Sudan)
3. Omar Muqtar(Libya)
4. Abdulkadir Al-Jazairi(Jazair)
5. Mohamed Abdulle Hassan(Somalia)

Post-Colonial Africa

Today, Africa contains 54 sovereign countries, most of which still have the borders drawn during the era of European colonialism. Since colonialism, African states have frequently been hampered by instability, corruption, violence, and authoritarianism. The vast majority of African states are republics that operate under some form of the presidential system of rule. However, few of them have been able to sustain democratic governments on a permanent basis, and many have instead cycled through a series of coups, producing military dictatorships.

Great instability was mainly the result of marginalization of ethnic groups, and graft under these leaders. For political gain, many leaders fanned ethnic conflicts that had been exacerbated, or even created, by colonial rule. In many countries, the military was perceived as being the only group that could effectively maintain order, and it ruled many nations in Africa during the 1970s and early 1980s. During the period from the early 1960s to the late 1980s, Africa had more than 70 coups and 13 presidential assassinations. Border and

territorial disputes were also common, with the European-imposed borders of many nations being widely contested through armed conflicts.

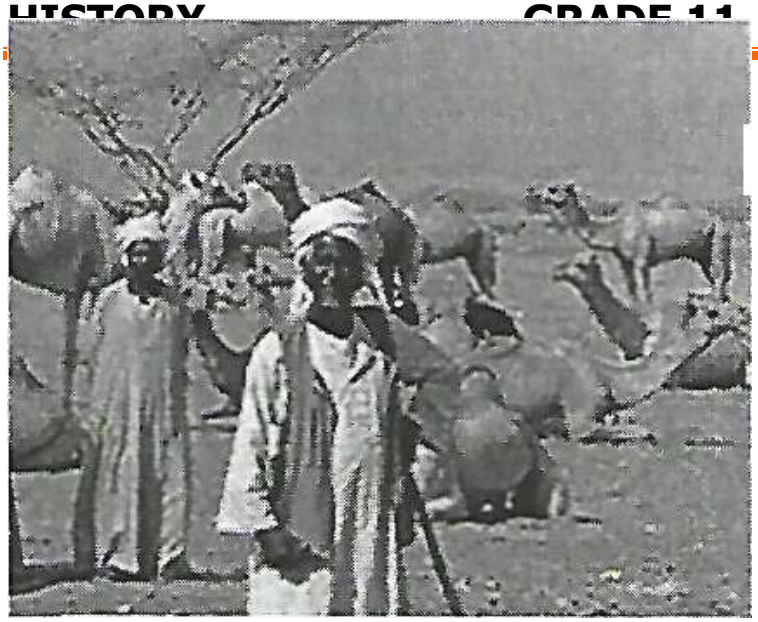
Cold War

Conflicts between the United States and the Soviet Union, as well as the policies of the International Monetary Fund, also played a role in instability. When a country became independent for the first time, it was often expected to align with one of the two superpowers. Many countries in Northern Africa received Soviet military aid, while many in Central and Southern Africa were supported by the United States, France or both. The 1970s saw an escalation, as newly independent Angola and Mozambique aligned themselves with the Soviet Union, and the West and South Africa sought to contain Soviet influence by funding insurgency movements. There was a major famine in Ethiopia, when hundreds of thousands of people starved. Some claimed that Marxist/Soviet policies made the situation worse.

The most devastating military conflict in modern independent Africa has been the Second Congo War. By 2008, this conflict and its aftermath had killed 5.4 million people. Since 2003 there has been an ongoing conflict in Darfur which has become a humanitarian disaster. AIDS has also been a prevalent issue in post-colonial Africa.

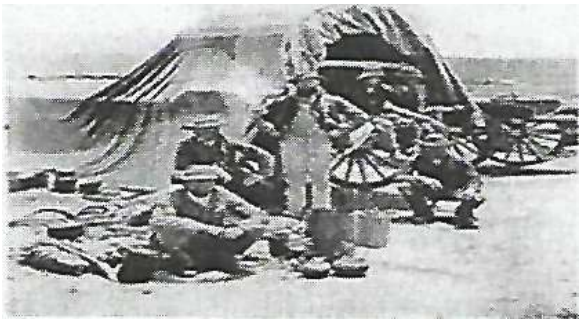
Berber boys from the Atlas Mountains

The Arabs who arrived in the 7th century introduced the Arabic language and Islam to North Africa. The Semitic Phoenicians (who founded Carthage) and Hyksos, the Indo- Iranian Alans, the Indo- European Greeks, Romans and Vandals settled in North Africa as well. Berbers still make up the majority in Morocco, while they are a significant minority within Algeria. They are also present in Tunisia and Libya. [80] The Semitic Tuareg and other often-nomadic peoples are the principal inhabitants of the Saharan Beja bedouins from Northeast Africa interior of North Africa. Nubians are a Nilo-Saharan-speaking group (though many also speak Arabic), who developed an ancient civilisation in northeast Africa.



Some Ethiopian and Eritrean groups (like the | Amhara and Tigrayans, collectively known as "Habesha") speak languages from the Semitic branch of the Afro-Asiatic linguistic family (due to invasion and settlement in the region by Semitic peoples from North Africa and Arabia), while the Oromo and Somali speak languages from the Cushitic branch of Afro-Asiatic. Sudan is divided between a mostly Muslim Nubian and Beja north and a Christian and animist Nilotic south, with Mauritania somewhat similarly structured. Some areas of East Africa, particularly the island of Zanzibar, have also received Arab Muslim and Southwest Asian settlers and merchants throughout the middle Ages and in antiquity.

Afrikaner trekboers in the karoo of south africa.



Prior to the decolonization movements of the post-World War II era, Europeans were represented in every part of Africa. Decolonisation during the 1960s and 1970s often resulted in the mass emigration of European-descended settlers out of Africa — especially from Algeria and Morocco (1.6 million pieds-noirs in North Africa), Kenya, Congo, Rhodesia, Mozambique and Angola. By the end of 1977, more than one million Portuguese were thought to have returned from Africa. Nevertheless, White Africans remain an important

minority in many African states, particularly South Africa, Zimbabwe, Namibia and Reunion. The African country with the largest White African population is South Africa. The Afrikaners, the Anglo-Africans (of British origin) and the Coloureds are the largest European-descended groups in Africa today.

European colonization also brought sizable groups of Asians, particularly people from the Indian subcontinent, to British colonies. Large Indian communities are found in South Africa, and smaller ones are present in Kenya, Tanzania, and some other southern and East African countries. The large Indian community in Uganda was expelled by the dictator Idi Amin in 1972, though many have since returned. The islands in the Indian Ocean are also populated primarily by people of Asian origin, often mixed with Africans and Europeans.

The Malagasy people of Madagascar are an Austronesian people, but those along the coast are generally mixed with Bantu, Arab, Indian and European origins. Malay and Indian ancestries are also important components in the group of people known in South Africa as Cape Coloureds (people with origins in two or more races and continents). During the 20th century, small but economically important communities of Lebanese and Chinese have also developed in the larger coastal cities of West and East Africa, respectively.

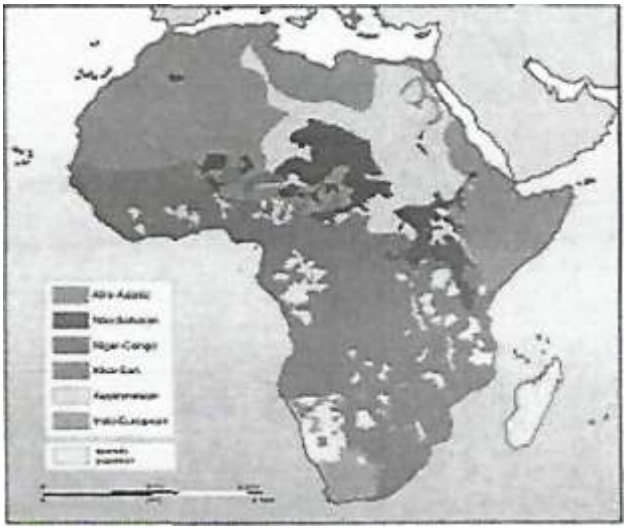
Languages of Africa

Map showing the distribution of the various language families of Africa.

By most estimates, well over a thousand languages (UNESCO has estimated around two thousand) are spoken in Africa. Most are of African origin, though some are of European or Asian origin. Africa is the most multilingual continent in the world, and it is not rare for individuals to fluently speak not only multiple African languages, but one or more European ones as well. There are four major language families indigenous to Africa.

- The Afro-Asiatic languages are a language family of about 240 languages and 285 million people widespread throughout the Horn of Africa, North Africa, the Sahel, and Southwest Asia.
- The Nilo-Saharan language family consists of more than a hundred languages spoken by 30 million people. Nilo-Saharan languages are spoken by Nilotic tribes in Chad, Ethiopia, Kenya, Sudan, Uganda, and northern Tanzania.
- The Niger-Congo language family covers much of Sub-Saharan Africa and is probably the largest language family in the world in terms of different languages.
- The Khoisan languages number about fifty and are spoken in Southern Africa by approximately 120,000 people. Many of the Khoisan languages are endangered. The Khoi and San peoples are considered the original inhabitants of this part of Africa.

Following the end of colonialism, nearly all African countries adopted official languages that originated outside the continent, although several countries also granted legal recognition to indigenous languages (such as Swahili, Yoruba, Igbo and Hausa). In numerous countries, English and French (see African French) are used for communication in the public sphere such as government, commerce, education and the media. Arabic, Portuguese, Afrikaans, Malagasy and Spanish are examples of languages that trace their origin to outside of Africa, and that are used by millions of Africans today, both in the public and private spheres. Italian is spoken by some in former Italian colonies in Africa. Prior to World War I, German was used in certain areas also.



Some of traditional African cultures have become less practiced in recent years as a result of years of neglect and suppression by colonial and post-colonial regimes. There is now a resurgence in the attempts to rediscover and revalourise African traditional cultures, under such movements as the African Renaissance, led by Thabo Mbeki, Afrocentrism, led by a group of scholars, including Molefi Asante, as well as the increasing recognition of traditional spiritualism through decriminalization of Vodou and other forms of spirituality. In recent years, traditional African culture has become synonymous with rural poverty and subsistence farming.

Visual Art and Architecture

African art and architecture reflect the diversity of African cultures. The oldest existing examples of art from Africa are 82,000-year-old beads made from Nassarius shells that were found in the Aterian levels at Grotte des Pigeons, Taforalt, Morocco, The Great Pyramid of Giza in Egypt was the world's tallest structure for 4,000 years, until the completion of Lincoln Cathedral around the year 1300.

Sports

Fifty-three African countries have football (soccer) teams in the Confederation of African Football, while Cameroon, Nigeria, Senegal, and Ghana have advanced to the knockout stage of recent FIFA World Cups. South Africa hosted the 2010 World Cup tournament, becoming the first African country to do so. According to FIFA ranking, Egypt currently has the best soccer team in Africa. Their team has won the African Cup 7 times, and a record-making 3 times in a row.

Cricket is popular in some African nations. South Africa and Zimbabwe have Test status, while Kenya is the leading non-test team in One-Day International cricket and has attained permanent One-Day International status. The three countries jointly hosted the 2003 Cricket World Cup. Namibia is the other African country to have played in a World Cup. Morocco in northern Africa has also hosted the 2002 Morocco Cup, but the national team has never

qualified for a major tournament. Rugby is a popular sport in South Africa and Namibia.

Religion

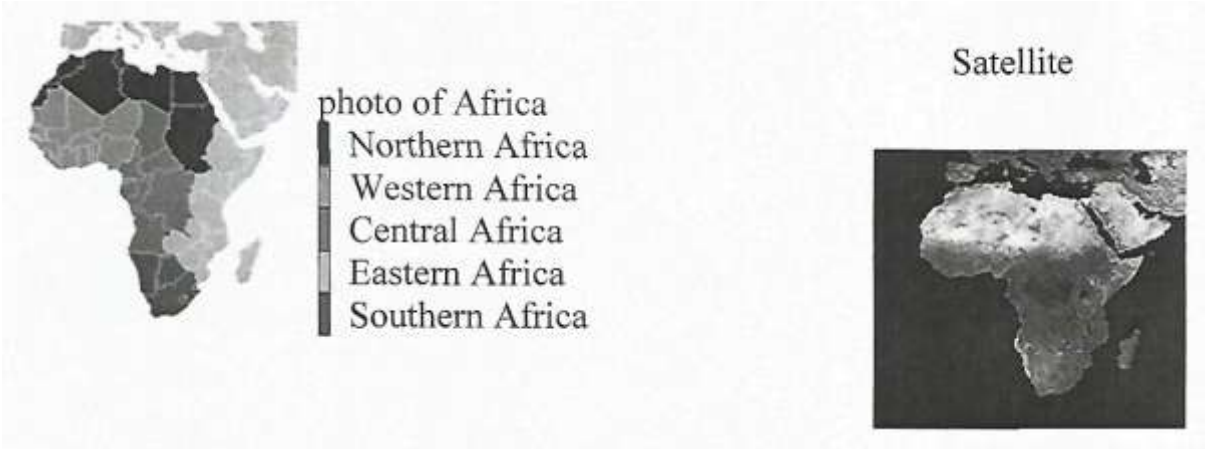
The Great Mosque of Kairouan, erected in 670, is the oldest mosque in North Africa, Kairouan, Tunisia.Main article: Religion in Africa, Africans profess a wide variety of religious beliefs and statistics on religious affiliation are difficult to come by since they are too sensitive a topic for governments with mixed populations. According to the World Book Encyclopedia, Islam is the largest religion in Africa, followed by Christianity. According to Encyclopedia Britannica, 55% of the populations are Muslims, 35% are Christians and less than 10% continue to follow traditional African religions.

Territories and regions

Main articles: List of regions of Africa and List of sovereign states and dependent territories in Africa

The countries in this table are categorised according to the scheme for geographic sub regions used by the United Nations, and data included are per sources in cross-referenced articles. Where they differ, are clearly indicated.

Regions of Africa



Assessment

Part One: Answer the following questions by putting a circle round the correct answer

1 - Area of Africa is
a) 30,221,523 km2
b) 30,211,325 km2
c) 30,222,235 km2
d) 30,212,532 km2
2- The population of Africa is
a) 1,000,100,000
b) 1,000,010,000
c) 1,000,001,000
d) 1,000,010,100
3- The population density of Africa is
a) 30.15/ Persons per Km^2
b) 35.51/ Persons per Km^2
c) 30.51/ Persons per Km^2
d) 30.05/ Persons per Km^2
4- Africa is
a) The world's third-largest and second most-populous continent, after Asia.
b) The world's second-largest and first most-populous continent, after Asia.
c) The world's second-largest and third most-populous continent, after Asia.
d) The world's second-largest and second most-populous continent, after Asia.
5. Slavery had long been practiced in Africa between the
a) 7th and 15th centuries,
b) 7th and 18th centuries,
c) 8th and 20th centuries,
d) 7th and 20th centuries,

Part two: Individually, answer all the following questions.

1. Explain heights of slave in Africa.
2. Discuss the main reasons the Colonialism of Africa
3. Discuss the "Scramble for Africa
4. Discuss etymology and ecology of Africa
5. Explain politics and economy of Africa
6. Discuss language and religious of Africa

UNIT 2

EUROPEAN INVENTION OF AFRICA AND THE PROCESS OF COLONISATION

By the end of the lesson students should be able to:

a) describe the main reasons for coming Europeans in Africa.
b) Explain methods used Europeans to acquire colonies in Africa.
c) To state factors that led to scrumble for Africa and colonization of Africa.

EUROPEAN INVASION OF AFRICA AND THE PROCESS OF COLONISATION

Introduction

Though Africa was colonized by European powers in the 19th century, European invasion and activities had started in Africa long before that time. Their main reasons for coming to Africa then were:

Exploration

The Europeans, especially the Portuguese, wanted to gain geographical knowledge about the continent. There were some of Portugal's Kings and Princes who wanted to find new lands. One such Prince was Henry The Navigator. This led them to send explorers around the coasts of Africa in the 14th century.

- ## Trade

The Europeans wanted to have a share of Africa's trade in gold, ivory and slaves. They were interested in commerce from which they could derive revenue.

Technological and Scientific Improvements

From 1400AB there had been great improvements in ship buildings. The Portuguese had taken the lead by multiplying the number of masts in their ships, called **caravels.** Navigators had learnt how to use charts, which indicated harbours along the coastline. They could note the direction of the winds and currents and used a sophisticated compass marked with 30 points to show direction.

- ## Military Strength

The Europeans had made major advances in naval warfare. Their guns and cannons were of superior quality. This gave them an advantage over the people they came into contact with.

- ## Spirit of Adventure

Adventure was another factor that made the Europeans to travel overseas. They came to Africa for the sheer joy of being the first to find and conquer new lands. Others were simply curious to see other lands and people.

- ## Competition to Dominate

The European countries that were involved in Africa before the 19th century included Portugal, Spain, Denmark, France, Turkey, Greece, Britain and Holland. Their activities were varied but from the 15ih Century they concentrated more on trade, exploration, religion and the establishment of settlements along the coasts and among the immediate hinterland with whom they traded. Some of these settlements sewed as garrisons as well as residences for the traders.

The Scramble for and Partition of Africa

The European countries which took part in the Scramble for and Partition of Africa in the 19Ih Century were Germany, France, Britain, Portugal, Belgium, Italy and Spain. Some of these countries had

been trading in different parts of Africa before the 19th Century. They had shown little or no interest to colonise Africa. However, between 1850 and the 1870s there occurred great change in their attitudes towards the continent, leading to the Scramble for and Partition of Africa. From the 1880s European interest was intensified as the powers claimed African lands and by 1914, the whole of Africa, except Liberia and Ethiopia were under European powers. European powers were effectively establishing their colonial rule in the first quarter of the 20th century.

The Definitions of the Terms Scramble and Partition

(a) Scramble

This refers to a condition in which people struggle in a hurry or haste to obtain, possess or get the same thing. It is a rivalry condition in which competing people make moves to defeat, out manoeuvre and overtake their opponent in controlling or getting something. In the 19lh Century European powers struggled to possess and control parts of Africa. Each countrv or its nationals made claims over African territories. This is what has been referred to as the Scramble for Africa.

Before 1870, Britain, France, Spain and Portugal were the main contestants. However, the unification of Germany and the reorganisation of Italy and Belgium brought in a new vigour in the scramble. The latter states shrewdly moved to outmanoeuvre the old powers. European attitude on Africa changed from that of establishing trading posts to that of colonising. Thus in 1884 1885 the Berlin Conference on Africa under the chairmanship of Otto Von Bismark of Germany agreed to end the haphazard scramble. Hence, the partition of the continent into spheres of influence and control was done.'

(b) Partition

This refers to the sharing or dividing up of material things, goods or objects between two or more parties or people in an organised manner. Partition of Africa refers to the dividing up of regions in Africa among European powers. In the 19th Century, European powers divided Africa amongst themselves following the meeting held in Berlin from November 1884 to February 1885.

From then, European powers recognised specific claims of occupation and influence in Africa. By 1900, Africa was effectively divided and recognised as specific European possession or area of influence under the principle of sphere of influence.

The process of colonisation, which began as a disorganised claim and struggle (Scramble), was well designed and effected through partition to ensure protection of European interests in Africa irrespective of nationality. It further encouraged and intensified European powers competition to make claims on Africa through varying methods.

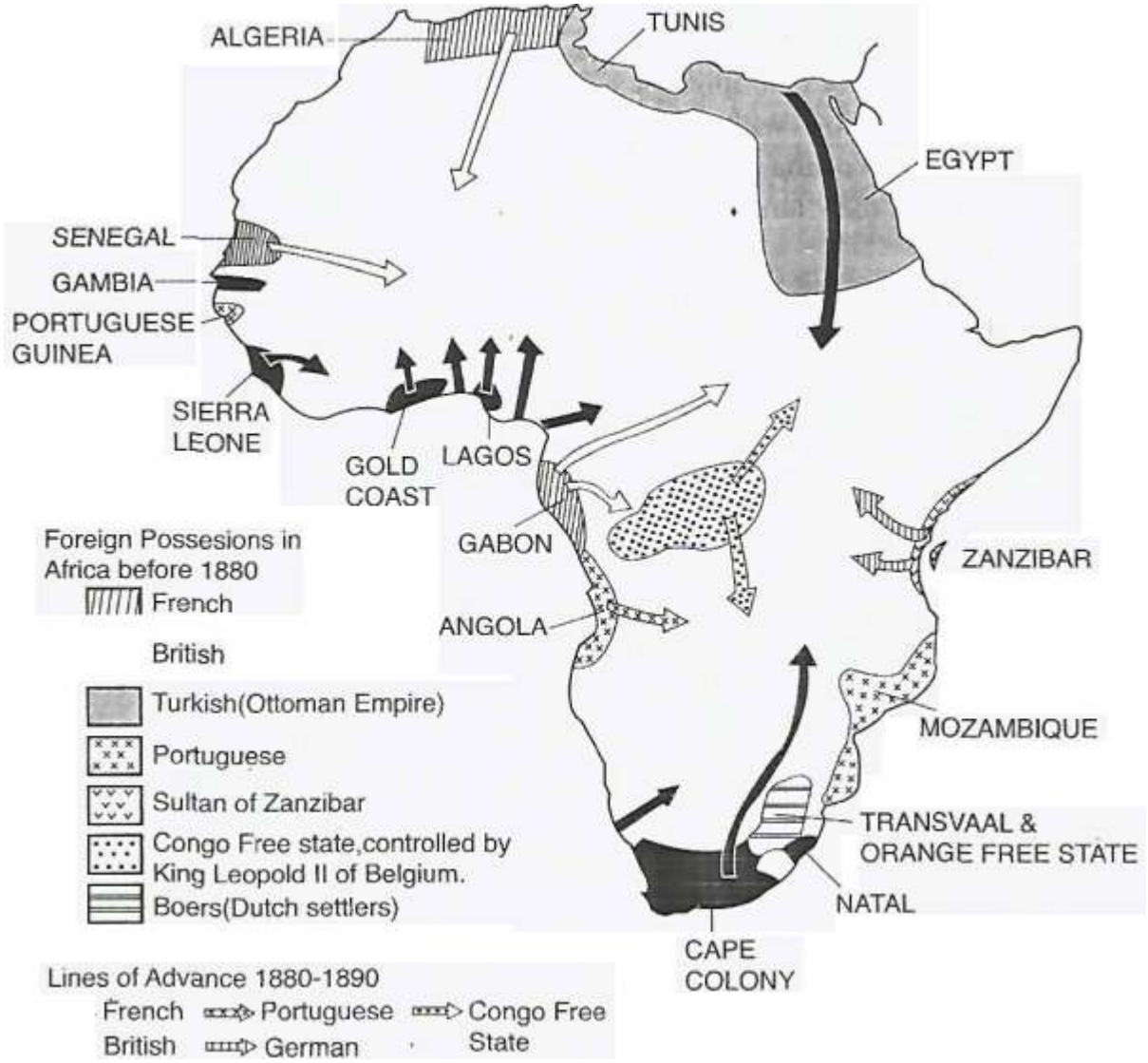


Fig. J.I: Location of European interests in Africa in the 19th Centurv.

Methods Used by Europeans to Acquire Colonies in Africa

The Berlin Conference on Africa of 1884 to 1885 successfully laid down the rules of partitioning Africa. European powers agreed to validate their claims on any part of Africa by informing others. In effect, the conference strengthened European claims in the principle of spheres of influence through effective occupatiotfclaims. By the end of the 19th century, Africa was effectively occupied and colonized by European powers.

The powers used different methods to acquire colonies in Africa. For example, individual European nationals with direct or indirect support from their mother countries made claims for their countries. Despite the occasional conflicts, these claims were settled and specific countries recognised as being effective occupants of a declared sphere of influence- The method used to acquire colonies was determined by the way the local African community responded to European contact. In most cases, a combination of methods were applied. These methods included:

- ## Diplomacy

I n their occupation of Africa, European states used **diplomatic tactics** to bring African states under their control. For example, they established diplomatic relations with African leaders like those of the Yoruba in Nigeria and eventually occupied their land.

- ## Treaty Signing

Treaty signing was another commonly used method by the Europeans in occupying different parts of Africa. There were two types of treaties, that is, treaties between Africans and Europeans on the one hand and those between the European powers themselves on the other. Most'of the treaties signed after 1885 were protection treaties between African rulers and representatives of European governments and private organisations. Once these treaties were accepted by the home government, the area whose ruler had signed the treaty became a protectorate of that particular European power. Examples of such treaties are those signed between Kabaka Mwanga of Buganda and the representatives of the Imperial British East Africa Company; King Lobengula of Matabeleland and British South Africa Company officials and some Niger Delta City state rulers and officials of the Royal Niger Company. Eventually, these areas became British protectorates.

During the partition, some European states clashed in areas where they had common interest. In cases where spheres of influence were contested, the European countries involved settled their disputes through mutual agreements. Such agreements were called **partition treaties,** for instance, the two Anglo-German agreements of 1886 and 1890 over East Africa. Consequently, Kenya, Uganda and Zanzibar became British protectorates and Germany got Tanganyika and Heligoland, an island in the North Sea, in return. It is doubtful whether any of the African rulers who signed protection treaties knew what the outcome would be; for truly, no African ruler was willing to surrender his sovereignty to a foreign power. Even those who openly sought these treaties, did not want to lose their positions. That explains why some rulers like Samori Toure of Mandinka and Lobengula of Matabeleland resorted to armed struggle after realising that they had been deceived.

- ## Luring of Chiefs

Some European states were able to occupy different parts of Africa by using their nationals to **lure chiefs** through presents of cloth, beads, tools, weapons and even intoxicating drinks. For example, the Baganda and Lozi. These chiefs were cheated through such gifts and ended up losing their independence.

- ## Divide and Rule

The Europeans also used divide and rule tactics. They instigated war between different societies by playing off one society against another. After such societies had fought and were weakened, the Europeans stepped in and occupied their land. The Nupe fought against the Fulani; the Tokolor against the Mandinka and the Banyoro against the Baganda before the Europeans occupied their lands.

- **Military Conquests**

In their occupation of Africa, European countries used military conquest whenever treaty-making failed. The French in particular favoured this method. In West Africa, they advanced eastwards from the coast of Senegal and conquered rulers like Lat Dior of Cayor, Sekou Ahmadu of the Segu-Tokolor Empire, Samori Toure of the Mandinka and Behanzin of Dahomey. In North Africa, they conquered Algeria, Tunisia and Morroco. The British did likewise as the conquest of Asante in 1890- 1 and northern Nigeria clearly proves.

They conquered the Sudan in 1898 after they realised the importance of the River Nile to Egypt, which they had taken and wanted to prevent the French from occupying any area through which it flowed. In Zimbabwe, their occupation of Matabeleland was preceded by the Matabele war of 1893. The Italians tried this method in Ethiopia but they failed.

Factors that Led to the Scramble for Africa

The main causes of the Scramble for Africa were a combination of political, economic and social factors, which occurred in both Europe and Africa. They include:

Bismark and the Rise of Germany

In 1870, France and Prussia fought in Europe in the Franco-Prussian War, and France was defeated. This resulted in the completion of the unification of Germany and the creation of the German Empire by the Treaty of Frankfurt. The French lost Alsace and Lorraine region, an area rich in coal and iron, which formed the base of her industrialisation. This created permanent hostility between France and the German Empire. Otto von Bismark, the former chief minister of Prussia, became the German Chancellor.

The rise of Germany altered the balance of power in Europe because she became the most powerful state in place of France, the continental power before 1871. Bismark feared that if France got an opportunity, she might fight a war of revenge to regain her lost provinces. He, therefore, sought alliances with other European states in order to isolate France. He also encouraged France to seek for colonies in Africa as compensation and consolation for her losses in Europe and Africa. His activities, therefore, partly caused the scramble.

- **Industralisation in Europe**

The economic factors for the Scramble for Africa arose from the expansion of industrialisation in Europe during the 19th century. Britain was the first European state to industrialise, followed by Belgium and France. At first, markets for manufactured goods and sources of raw materials were readily available. But when the other European countries became industrialised., there was a lot of competition and protectionism. European powers who relied on reports made by their explorers and travellers in Africa turned to Africa for markets for their manufactured goods and sources of raw materials. The European capitalists also looked for places to invest their excess capital.

- **Europe Rivalry**

European merchants in Africa asked for protection from their mother countries whenever they faced competition either from African merchants or those of other European states. Suspected mineral wealth

also led to the scramble for colonies in Africa. Because of the need for raw materials, entrepreneurs in Europe looked for agricultural land in Africa where they could grow cash crops.

Mic competition and rivalry of the European powers led to the scramble for colonies.

The Egyptian Question

Modern European involvement in Egypt began with Napoleon's Egyptian campaign of 1798. In the 19th century, this involvement continued, leading to the construction of the Sue? Canal in 1859-1869 for £4 million under French engineers. The canal was of strategic importance to Britain because of her economic links with India.

From 1863 to 1879, Egypt was ruled by Khedive Ismail. He had great aims for the modernisation of Egypt but had no money. His reliance on foreign loans and his extravagance (he spent £1 million on entertainment at the ceremony of the opening of the Suez Canal in 1869) led to Egypt's bankruptcy and the sale of her shares in the Canal to the British. Then the British and the French intervened in Egypt and set up a commission to regulate Egypt's finances so that she might be able to pay her debts. Khedive Ismail clashed with these commissioners (a Briton and a French) and dismissed them.

Consequently, the European powers put pressure on the Sultan of Turkey to overthrow Ismail, who was accordingly deposed in 1879. Ismail was succeeded by his son, Tawfjq who was just but a puppet of the Europeans.

The British and French dual control of Egypt caused a nationalist uprising in 1880. It was led by Colonel Ahmed Urabi Pasha. The British suppressed this revolt and later defeated the Egyptians at the battle of Tel-el-Kabir and occupied the country in 1882. The French were not involved as they too were suppressing a revolt in Tunisia. The British occupation of Egypt offended the French, who planned to occupy other territories in Africa, preferably pan of the upper Nile Valley. Britain, on the other hand, soon realised that success in making Egypt pay her debt would depend on their ability to utilise the waters of the Nile. To protect the waters of the Nile, Britain occupied Uganda in 1894 and Sudan in 1898 ensuring total control of the upper parts of the Nile basin.

- ## The French Activities in West Africa and the Congo

After their disappointment over losing to the British, the French turned to West Africa. They established a protectorate over Porto Novo in 1882 and made plans for the occupation of more territories in the region. These plans worried the British traders already stationed in West Africa, Even Germany, which had kept aloof, changed her mind concerning the acquisition of territories in Africa. She joined the race for colonies and later occupied Togo, Cameroon, South-West Africa and Tanganyika.

Savorgan de Brazza, an Italian adventurer in the service of France, obtained treaties from the Congolese King, Mokoko, dated September/October 1880. In 1882, the French government accepted these treaties as valid documents. Thereafter French activities intensified the Scramble for colonies in Africa.

- ## The Rise of Nationalism and Racialism

The late 19fh century witnessed the emergence of national pride never seen in Europe before. Each nation claimed superiority over others since the possession of colonies was regarded as proof of a nation's superiority. Europeans believed that a nation must spread overseas to prove its national vigour. Industrialisation also gave rise to theories of the white man's racial superiority over the black man who was

not yet industrialised. The reports made by missionaries, travellers and explorers such as Dr David Livingstone, fanned this spirit of nationalism.

European Imperial advocates advanced White race superiority to the detriment of Blacks. The dark continent, therefore, had to be opened to civilisation based on European powers by colonisation.

King Leopold's Activities in the Congo

King Leopold II of Belgium formed the African International Association in 1876 for the purpose of curving out for himself a personal empire in the Congo region. In 1879, he employed Henry Morton Stanley and sent him out to explore the area. The result of Stanley's journey was the creation of the Congo Free State, which was recognised by other European powers.

Portugal, which had been involved in the Congo region long before the 1880s, felt threatened by the activities of the French and Leopold II of Belgium. An international conference to solve these territorial disputes in Africa was held. The conference was held in Berlin, the capital of the German empire under the presidency of the German Chancellor, Otto von Bismark, leading to partition of Africa.

The Process of Partition

Before 1870, European powers showed little interest in occupying and effectively establishing themselves in Tropical Africa. Their interest focussed mainly on trading activities along the African coasts where they established trading posts and towns. The interior remained unknown as it was regarded as the dark region, rich in the supply of slaves, tropical fruits and ivory.

From 1870 enthusiastic European interest increased with demands and urge to have colonies. By 1884 the campaigns to set up colonial territories by the then European powers witnessed a period of intensive scramble for Africa which nearly resulted into war in Europe over claims in Africa.

European powers or their nationals encouraged the quest for occupation of Africa and the German Chancellor Otto von Bismark, in an effort to avert war in Europe over Africa, called the Berlin Conference in November 1884. Berlin appeared more neutral to other cities of the competing powers, such as London, Paris and Lisbon.

European powers, led by Britain and France as the key contestants over Africa, agreed to attend the conference. By February 1885 the powers resolved to end the disorganised scramble for Africa by effectively sharing and allocating specific regions among claiming powers. Thus the Berlin Conference became the starting point of partitioning Africa. Rules and conditions were set by the Conference on the occupation claims.

The process of partitioning the continent followed the application of the principles and terms of the Berlin Conference of 1884-5.

Terms of the Berlin Conference

- **Spheres of influence:** Arapport principle of occupation was established on the basis of spheres of influence. In this any European power occupying an}' part of Africa had the obligation to inform others. This helped to avoid double conflicting claims. The first power to inform others was regarded as the rightful claimant.
- **Effective occupation:** It was passed that any claim of any African territory had to be followed by effective occupation. A claim was regarded valid only if a European power or its nationals or agents effectively settled or exerted her authority in a region. This was meant to protect Europeans or whitemen in the regions claimed.

- **Protection of the Whiteman:** The process of partitioning Africa after the Berlin Conference was boosted by the racialistic protection principle stipulating that European, powers or their nationals who established spheres of influence in Africa were under obligation to protect and safeguard the whiteman's interest irrespective of their nationality.

Europe had successfully and effectively executed the process of the partition of Africa by 1914. The post-Berlin conference of European spheres of influence had by the advent of the First World War become European territories with elaborate boundaries. Colonisation had set in and colonial administration was being eflected. The areas had become European overseas territories except for Ethiopia and Liberia, which were never colonized. By 1914, almost the whole of Africa had been shared out among the major European powers.

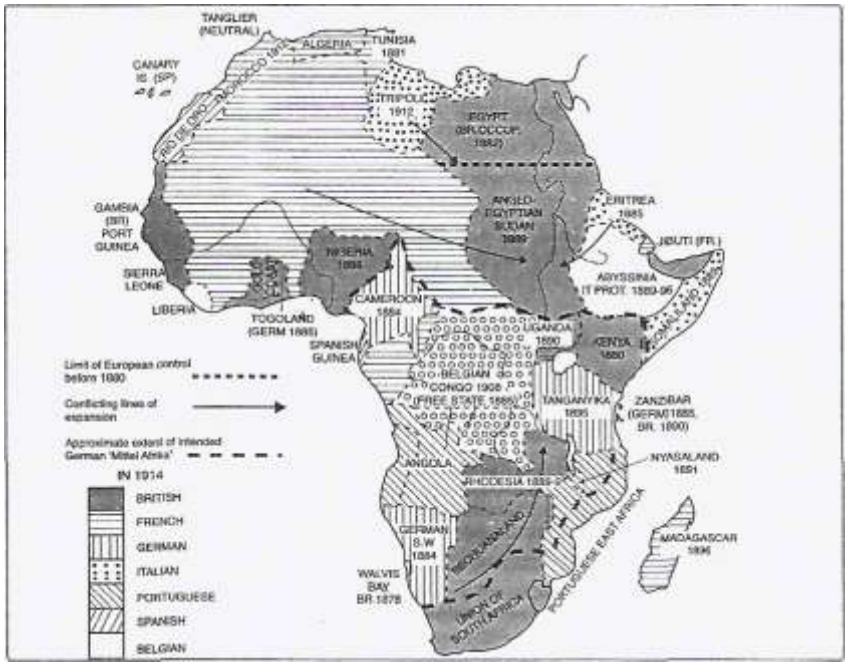


Fig. 1.2: *The partition of Africa by 1914.*

Table 1.1 European Possessions in Africa

European Country	Region	African Possession
Britain	East Africa	Kenya and Uganda
	Central Africa	Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia
	North-Eastern Africa	British Somaliland
	Southern Africa	Bechuanaland, Swaziland, Basutoland and Union of South Africa
	North Africa	Egypt and Sudan
	West Africa	Gold Coast, Nigeria, Gambia and Sierra Leone
France	Central Africa	French Congo, Chad and French Central Africa
	West Africa	Senegal, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Upper Volta, Guinea, Mali, Mauritania and Niger
	North Africa	Tunisia, Algeria and Morocco
	North-Eastern Africa	French Somaliland and Eritrea

Germany	East Africa	Tanganyika
	Central Africa	Rwanda-Burundi
	West Africa	Togo
	South West Africa	Cameroon
Belgium		Belgian Congo.
Portugal		Angola, Mozambique and Portuguese Guinea
Spain		Spanish Guinea and Spanish Morocco
Italy		Libya and Italian Somaliland and Eriteria.

The Impact of Partition of Africa

The scramble and partition of Africa had far reaching effects. These can be categorised as Political, Economical and Social.

(a) Political Impact

- European administration based on direct, indirect and assimilation approaches were established.
- Africa was introduced to world geopolitical systems (world politics) by the colonising powers.
- By 1914 Africans participated in the First World War on the side of their colonising powers.
- Modern African states boundaries were drawn during the partition.
- African communities found themselves split into" different states without consultation, e.g., Maasai in Kenya and Tanzania, Teso in Uganda and Kenya, Somali in Ethiopia, Kenya and Somalia, Akan in Ghana and Togo (see Figure 1,3).
- Africa was given to chartered companies, which administered them onbehalf of the colonising masters.
- The establishment of administrative forts and posts from where Europeans administered the continent.
- Intensification of tribal or ethnic differences as colonial powers played on one tribe against another. For instance, in Rwanda and Burundi, Tutsis were

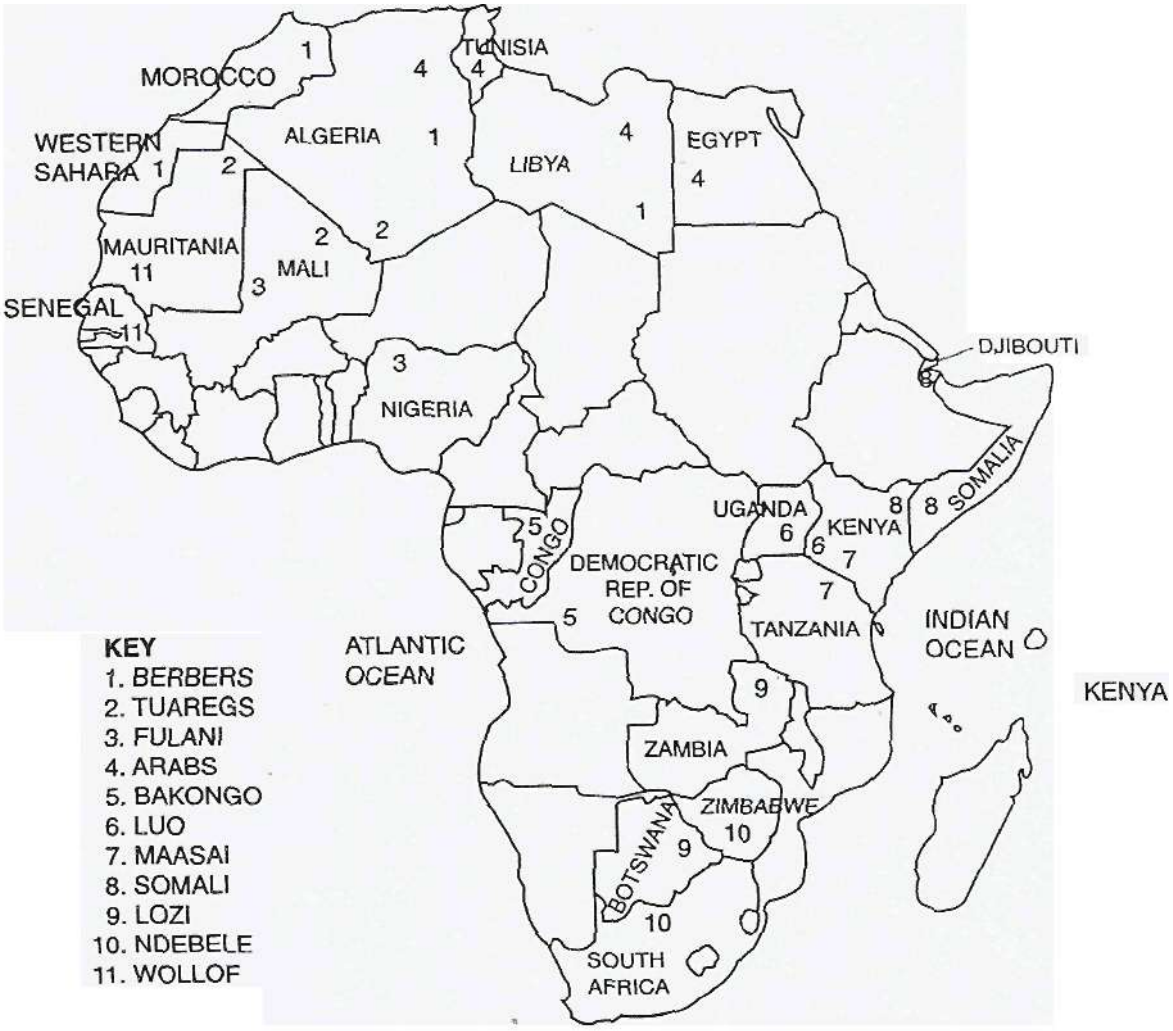


Fig.1.3: Some African communities split through partition boundaries.

set against the Hutus resulting in bitter rivalry that lingers up to today, with very serious political implications on state security.

(b) Economic Impact

- African colonies provided and supplied industrial raw materials and markets for European industries.
- African labour -was exploited for European economic gains. Labour was recruited in Africa through forced legislation and taxation.
- Infrastructure was developed to link major mining and agricultural areas. The construction of roads and railways was started and boosted throughout Africa. For example, the Kenya-Uganda Railway and the Great-North Road.
- European invaders alienated African lands, creating room for European settlements as Africans were pushed to low productive reserves. Poverty characterised African reserves.

- African economic activities were disrupted, especially among the nomadic pastoralists. Their animals were taken and area of grazing limited. Africans were introduced to international commerce through trade, financial institutions and the use of currency.
- Wage labour was introduced in Africa,

(c) Social Impact

- Permanent European settlements were established. These had profound effect on African social life.
- Many Africans lost their lives through resistance and European pacification wars.
- African cultural values were exposed to systematic erosion in the face of European settlement.
- The development of urban centres ensured roads and railways were built to link those areas.
- There emerged racial segregation in Africa as a result of the European superiority complex.
- The Whites got better health, education and other social services.
- The conditions for Africans were too squalid.

African Reactions to European Colonisation

African reaction to European colonisation varied irom one region to the other. The nature and character of reaction was influenced by a number of factors. Firstly, the response to European colonisation was basically determined by the nature and method of European entry and rule. Secondly, it was also determined by the social, economic and political state of the colonized society.

Societies, in which the social, political and economic organisation was based on fairly elaborate leadership and on recognised kingship or chieftainship, reacted differently from those built by powerful traders or merchants. On the other hand, in societies where European entry and establishment of their rule was through the maxim-gun, the societies responded differently from those who were portrayed as having made agreements of pannership or friendship.

Work to do

1. Define the following terms
(a) Scramble.
(b) Partition.
2. Discuss factors that led to the Scramble for Africa in the 19th Century.
3. (a) Outline reasons why the Berlin
Conference was held in 1884 -5. (b) List the terms of the Berlin Conference.
4. Give the various methods used by European powers to acquire colonies in Africa.
5. Outline the process of the Partition of Africa by European powers in the 19th Century.
6. Identify the positive and negative effects of European partition of Africa.

Activities

1. Draw a map of Africa in 1914 showing African countries and indicate which European powers colonized them.
2. Stage a main session of the Berlin Conference.

COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

By the year 1900, the division of Africa amongst the European powers France,1900 Britain, Germany and Portugal was practically over. The next most important and difficult phase was establishing colonial rule and making it acceptable to the Africans. But as much force was used to maintain this rule as was used to establish it. To establish and maintain their rule, they had to recruit indigenous people as soldiers, chiefs, clerks and messengers. Different colonial powers used different methods to administer their colonies. The British for instance, used both direct and indirect rule in Nigeria and Kenya and in Zimbabwe they used direct rule only. The French on the other hand, practised assimilation and association in the administration of their colonies.

Fundamentally, the colonial administrative strategies remained those that helped to subjugate African communities. Though varied in application, they all focused on the effective colonisation through the Whiteman's dominance. The Africans were useful as long as they encouraged and supported colonial interests. In both the British and French colonies just like all others, the Whiteman's interest was to be protected and safeguarded to re-affirm their racial superiority. Laws and rules were designed in the interest of the Whiteman.

Indirect Rule

This refers to a method of colonial administration using local people. Europeans applied this method in most of their colonies. In this system the colonial administration was based on the use of the pre-colonial existing socio-political structures, in places where communities had elaborate administrative structures as in Northern Nigeria, the local chiefs were used. In those places without elaborate kingship or chieftainship organisation, the colonial powers created and instituted one as in the case of the Agikuyu of Kenya.

The application of indirect rule was seen as the maximum utilisation of the local traditional systems under the supervision of the Whites. As long as the traditional rulers or the colonial local appointees served the interests of the colonists. the\ were left to exercise power and authority over their subjects. The British having applied this system in their colony of India, used it in Africa. Fredrick Lugard. a British Colonial Agent, encouraged its wide use in Africa.

(a) The British in Nigeria

Indirect rule as a method of administration in Nigeria is closely associated with one man Frederick Lugard (see Figure 3.1). According to him, indirect rule implied "a single government in which the native chiefs have clearlv defined duties and an acknowledged status, equal with British officials." The chief had a lot of power and the British administrators eould only interfere when it became necessary. In general, it was believed, especially in northern Nigeria, that it was the task of the British officials to conserve what was good in indigenous institutions and assist them to develop on their own lines.

fig. 3.1: Captain Fredrick Lugard

Reasons for Using Indirect Rule

In northern Nigeria this system was used chiefly because of the existence of an elaborate local administrative system even before the corning of the British.

The other factors that necessitated the use of this method were the vast distances and the lack of sufficient administrative officers and funds to cover this vast and densely populated territory.
Indirect rule was also found to be a suitable system for avoiding resistance from the colonized people. Furthermore, the British had prior experience in the use of this system for they had successfully used it in India. Lugard was determined to use the Kmirs of northern Nigeria and to leave them and their officials to rule the people under the supervision of a British Resident attached to each of their courts.

Indirect Rule in Northern Nigeria

Before the coming of the British, most of northern Nigeria was part of the Sokoto Caliphate. The ruler of the Caliphate (Caliph) took the title of Amir-Al-Mumin (Commander of the faithful). The Caliphate was divided into Emirates which were semi-autonomous units under the control of Emirs whose appointment had to be confirmed by the Caliph. When the British occupied northern Nigeria, they left the Emirs and their officials to rule the people under the supervision of British residents who were attached to each o£ the Emirs courts. The British residents were used merely as safeguards against the abuse of power by the Emirs.

Under the British residents, slavery was abolished and the people of northern Nigeria continued to be subject to Muslim law, administered by the Emirate courts. However, in the application of indirect rule, certain alterations were made in the old system. For example, the Fulani system of taxation which was complicated and liable to abuse was replaced by a single tax levied on each village. However, taxes continued to be collected by the Emirs' officers and were paid into the Emirs' treasuries. A tixcd proportion of the Emir's revenues was transferred to the central British administration and used to finance specialised services such as health, agriculture and railways, which could best be provided by the British experts. The rest of the revenue remained at the disposal of the Emirs' governments. The British believed that African authorities could succeed if they acquired responsibility for the collection and use of large sums of money. Consequently, African local authorities were expected to pay regular salaries to their workers, prepare proper budgets and present their accounts for auditing, subject to the guidance and advice of the British residents.

The British were more concerned to rule through chiefs whom the people considered to be their own. Corrupt and inefficient chiefs were replaced vvith others from the ruling families. However, where

they found people who had no chiefs, they appointed men who seemed to be strong enough to rule. The chiefs headed local government organisations responsible for such things as markets and administration of justice. The British did not limit the crimes which they could try as well as the penalties they could impose. Cases of murder, for example, were tried by chiefs like the Emirs of Kano. All in all, under the British, the chiefs had much more power than those under the French. They formed part of the British administrative system and had to fall in line with British desires.

There were some exceptions of this in some parts of Northern Nigeria where the Fulani, in return for jcting on behalf of the colonialists, were able to demand that their religion and customs should not be threatened by Christianity and other westernising influences. The preservation of indigenous culture thus came to be understood as an essential part of the theory of indirect rule. Lugard agreed that Christian missionaries would not be encouraged to enter the North, except in the non-Muslim areas. On top of collecting taxes, the local rulers were also charged with the responsibility of recruiting labour for public works. This system enabled the British to have effective control and administration of the northern part of Nigeria.

Southern Nigeria

Nigeria had been divided into three administrative units, thus: Lagos, the protectorate of southern Nigeria and the protectorate of northern Nigeria. In northern Nigeria, the existence of local authorities had made it possible, as we saw earlier, for Lugard to apply indirect rule. However, it was not easy in other areas like southern Nigeria, particularly among the Yoruba. In Yorubaland, there was no highly centralised government as in the North. Hence to exercise effective control, Lugard had to appoint an overlord equivalent to the Caliph of Sokoto. For example, when he decided to make the Alafin of Oyo, his principal agent and other Yoruba chiefs subservient to him, the plan failed. He forgot to take account of the fact that the power of the Alafin and generally that of the Oyo Empire had long since collapsed. It was thus impossible to expect the whole of Yorubaland to return to her 18^{lh} Century situation. Moreover, Lugard failed to consider the influence which western educated Yorubas would exert.

Indirect rule was appropriate to the Niger Delta states where traditional authorities were strong, but impractical among the Ibos and other societies which had no traditional chiefs. On the contrary, the Ibos had evolved a system of village government equivalent to the council of ciders which was far more suited to British democratic institutions than the conservative system that Lugard was championing. However, Lugard was so convinced of the general good of indirect rule that he created chiefs where none existed. These chiefs used to be given a warrant to rule on behalf of the colonial government hence known as **warrant chiefs.** These warrant chiefs were prepared to perform unpleasant duties such as tax collection and labour recruitment and became the target of attack by discontened Ibos and other eastren societies. It led tto the famous women's riot when in 1929 the British tried to impose direct taxation. This in turn prompted the dispatch of anthropologists to ^tudy the Ibo traditional government. Adjustments were ' made, though the whole system was not challenged due to Lugard's influence.

In 1931, Donald Cameroon was appointed Governor of Nigeria. During his tenure, he tried to modify the system of indirect rule by:

- Checking the growing independence of the Emirs in the North.
- Attempting to elevate the declining power of the Alaafin in Yonibaland.
- Stressing the development of institutions instead of preserving them.

He appointed, for example, educated 'elites to some chiefly councils in southern Nigeria. However, these changes were mere adjustments and did not meet the rapid changing needs of the society.

Shortcomings of the Indirect Rule in Nigeria

Indirect rule in Nigeria had a few shortcomings that included:

- The system had been devised to suit regions which already had well established indigenous administrative structures. Where such systems did not exist, as was the case among the Ibo, it needed a great deal of adaptation.
- There was the language barrier. Very few British officials knew enough of the African languages to be able to communicate with the chiefs.
- The chiefs and their councils took more interest in matters they understood than in those which were new and unfamiliar, such as forced labour and Christianity. This made it exceedingly difficult to apply indirect rule.
- Lugard's idea of education for chiefs and councillors in modern ideas needed long, patient and skilful effort. Many British officers lacked this patience and skill and therefore, gave up easily.
- It is necessary to note that northern Nigeria was isolated from the other parts of Nigeria. This had a negative, effect on the general development of the north compared to the South. This is clearly seen in the application of indirect rule in northern Nigeria whereby the British promised not to interfere with the Muslims. This was interpreted bv both parties to mean that Christian missionaries were not to be encouraged in the region. This led to the isolation of northern Nigeria, which thus missed the Western influence that had a pronounced effect in southern Nigeria.
- Chiefs whose rule never .conformed with the English monarch continued being replaced they became unpopular among fellow Africans who considered them as British puppets.
- Some aspects of the system were resented such as taxation.
- The educated elite resented the rule by uneducated traditional chiefs.

Direct Rule

In this system of administration, the colonial power ruled directly through its appointed personnel. It disregarded the traditional political leadership and appointed directly their own administrators. These were considered as employees of the colonial administration. The policy was successfully applied in those areas where the traditional leaders were unco-operative to colonial authority. In Zimbabwe (formerly Southern Rhodesia) the British widely applied this system.

The British in Zimbabwe (Southern Rhodesia)

Zimbabwe used to be known as Southern Rhodesia, one of the three colonies that made up the British Central Africa. The other two were Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia) and Nyasaland (Malawi). Colonial rule in Zimbabwe was introduced by the British South Africa Company of Cecil Rhodes which had been granted a charter in 1899 entitling it not only to control the trade and mineral resources of Rhodesia but also to establish a government. Cecil Rhodes used his collosal financial resources to organise the settlement of 200 Europeans in Mashonaland in 1890. In the following years, more settlers arrived. However, their relations with the local people were not friendly.

fig. 3.2: Cecil Rhodes.

When the Company rule gradually became firmly established, this new colony was named Rhodesia after C'ecil Rhodes (see Figure 3.2). He was from the outset for a northward extension of the South African system of White domination. The Company appointed individual settlers'as administrators and gave them free land. In the Shona area, they stopped the Africans from continuing to trade with the Portuguese. They took over their gold workings and demanded that chiefs supply thci , with labour. The matabele Order-in-council of july 1894 empowered the company to impose a hut tax and establish a native department to control the whole colony.

By the end of 1895, the Company had instituted an African administration, imposed a hut tax, created reserves and passes for livestock and minerals as well as forced African labour.

In the same year, a legislative council was established in Rhodesia. It consisted of five elected and four nominated members. The White settlers elected the five members. Thereafter, the elected membership of White settlers gradually increased. By an order in council of 1898, the British government appointed a Resident Commissioner and a Commandant General for Rhodesia which merely served to establish the British imperial presence.

The early colonial history of Rhodesia was characterised by the struggle of control between the settlers and the Company. The Company claimed to be the owners of all land not yet, occupied by the settlers, while the latter laid similar claims to it. The Company tried to compromise with the settlers by involving them more in the government and farming policies affecting the interests of the White fanners.

The settlers demanded more political power, using their growing influence in the legislative council, especially where land and labour issues were concerned. In 1898, the Company established a Labour Board for Rhodesia which supplied more than 6000 workers to the settlers in Matabeleland. The Native Department also provided huge contingents of forced labour. As for the question of land, the issue was eventually brought before the Privy Council in London, the highest Court of Appeal in the British Empire. Some missionaries spoke in support of the Africans and argued that the land belonged to the Africans and not the company or the settlers. The final decision of the Privy council was that the land belonged to the British Crown and that the Compam merely held it in trust. This decision was to the advantage of the White settlers, for it enabled them to take the land when Compam rule was brought to an end.

Meanwhile, the settlers intensified then efforts to seize the government of the colon) from the Company. The continuation o, Company rule was opposed by the candidates who returned from the mining province oi Matabeleland in the Legislative Council elections of 1902. Furthermore, Rhodes death in 1902 eut the link between the settlers and the Company, thus heightening speculation about Rhodesia's political future. Later in the year, a public meeting of the Bulawayo debating society had its motion, "The Cancellation of the BSAC's Charter, to be undertaken" made the settlers raise the slogan "Rhodesia belongs to Rhodesians" but by Rhodesians they meant the White settlers only. Finally in 1922, they were asked to choose in a referendum whether Rhodesia should join the Union of South Africa or become a Crown Colony with internal self-government and control over its own police foree and army. They chose the latter.

In 1923, Company rule was terminated and Rhodesia declared a Crown Land or Crown Colony. The same year saw the establishment of a new constitution which set up a Legislative Council and a cabinet of ministers. A Governor representing the King of England was appointed by the Crown. However, he could only act on the advice of the ministers. Rhodesia's foreign relations were the responsibility of the British government, which also had the power to veto any legislations adversely affecting the Africans.

However, this power of veto was never used. The 1923 constitution gave the small White population of Rhodesia the freedom to govern Zimbabwe as they saw it fit. The relation between Britain and Rhodesia was more like the relationship between Britain and any of the self-governing dominions in the British Commonwealth.

After 1923, the settlers strove to create a White-dominated society based on the South African model. Voting for Africans followed strict qualifications, which allowed only a small section of them to vote. Whenever the number of qualified African voters increased, the qualifications were raised higher. The land question became a sensitive issue after 1923. Before then, the law defined areas of White and Black occupation; but there was a substantial part of the country not yet assigned to either party. Reserves set aside for Africans proved inadequate because of the high African population. The situation prompted the passing of the **Land Apportionment Act** of 1930 by which Africans were denied more land and some of the best of what thtey already had was taken away. The result was a disruption* of life and poverty for the Africans. This also resulted to change of social roles in the reserves as Africans moved to seek paid-jobs in White settled areas, where they worked under inhuman conditions. The government discouraged education-for them. It was the missionaries who took the heavy responsibility of educating Africans, while the government concentrated on providing education for White children. Further, pass laws, taxation and labour laws were passed which affected Africans negatively.

In 1953, Rhodesia was brought together with Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia into a federation which the Whites felt would be economically advantageous to them. During its early years, a spirit of reform showed itself among the leadership of the Rhodesian White settlers. For example, Garfield Todd who became the Prime Minister of Rhodesia in 1953, intended to introduce measures that would considerably conciliate the Africans. Under his leadership, some sections of the White community began to question the Tightness of attempts which had been made to prevent Africans from competing with Whites in economic life. A bill was even introduced to give recognition to African trade unions. Government expenditure on African agriculture was increased. More attention was paid to the provision of African education. Multi-racial university education was started. Some thought was given to reforming the electoral system in such a way as to give more Africans the right to vote. However, the spirit of liberalism was shortlived. In the last years of the federation, the Whites became more determined to defend their supremacy. In 1958, Todd\s cabinet colleagues forced him out of office. He was succeeded by Sir Edgar Whitehead whose government abandoned Todd's reform programmes and immediately started an era of repression.

The Structure of Direct Rule in Zimbabwe

The administration was very authoritative and managed by the White minorities. It was characterised by the use of executive orders, decrees and emergency iau - to control African activities. Racial segregation was the main guiding principle in administration. Its structure was as follows:

- There was a governor who was appointed by the British government to represent the monarch. His powers and duties were ceremonial.
- The Legislative Council which was dominated *by* minority Whites was the most powerful arm of government.
- The Prime Minister controlled both the legislature and the executK e. His cabinet was made up of the White- only.
- Elections were held as per schedule, The voters and candidates were largely Europeans. Only a small population of Africans qualified.
- Racial segregation was the main government policy imposed by the Whites to discriminate against Africans, socially, politically and economically.
- There was a native affairs department. This was equivalent of a district. It was under a White officer, who was assisted by African chiefs and sub-chiefs, all appointed by the government.
- Chiefs had no power but were supposed to implement orders from the native department office.

- Duties of the native department were:

- Collection of tax.
- Allocation of land to Africans.
- Recruitment of African labour for European farms.
- Solving cases involving Africans.

In 1965, Ian Smith, Edgar Whitehead 's successor, proclaimed a

Unilateral Declaration of Independence.

By this, Zimbabwe became independent of Britain. On Britain's request, the UNO imposed trade sanctions on Zimbabwe in certain goods, but South Africa and Portugal continued to trade with her. Further attempts to isolate Zimbabwe on the part of Britain and some African countries proved futile, hi 1969, a new constitution was intiu^ueed which further narrowed the rights of the Africans and gave dictatorial powers to the White minority government.

In 1970, Ian Smith's government declared Rhodesia a republic, thus breaking links with Britain completely. In 1971. Britain announced that she had at last worked out a settlement with the White minority regime. The Africans were not consulted and the only thing the agreement held out to them was the offer of the vote to those who satisfied certain new property qualifications rule. It was stated that as more and more African majority qualified, black rule would be achieved in Rhodesia, Britain was to grant Rhodesia legal independence as soon as the new arrangements came into force, which it would only do if a majority of the Africans accepted it.

At the beginning of 1972, a commission headed by Lord Pearce was sent from London to tind out African feelings to the settlement. However, it was rejected en masse and the status of Rhodesia as an illegally independent country remained. Minority White domination persisted up to 1980 when Rhodesia achieved her independence under the Premiership of Robert Mugabe (see Figure 3.3) and assumed the ancient name of Zimbabwe.

Fig: 3.3 Robert Mugambe

Effects of Direct Rule in Zimbabwe

Direct rule as applied by the British in Zimbabwe had negative results to the life of Africans. These effects were as follows:

- Africans were displaced from their ancestral land to land alienation schemes to create room for White settlers whose number kept increasing.
- Africans were subjected to poverty and suffering.
- African traditional chiefs iost their authority and poxser over their subjects.

African chiefs who were appointed by the government acted as puppets of the British.

- The administration of the cofony was in the hands of ihe British who never referred to Africans, even where African interests were concerned.
- Africans were subjected to heavy taxation. Its mode of collection resulted into a lot of sufferng and loss of property by Africans.
- Britain delegated the administration of the colony 10 the British South African Company and later a minority government declared a unilateral independence over Zimbabwe.
- African traditional economy was undermined, as the Africans were required to work on the White man's farms and mines. Afterwards, they were paid in currency which they used to buy European imported goods.
- The introduction of Christianity and Western education undermined African culture.
- Africans were subjected to forced labour, which increased their mines and settler farms.
- African freedom of movement was curtailed by being confined in reserves. In addition, they were required to carry' identity cards.
- Racial segregation. In this case Africans were the disadvantaged group. The system legalised the oppression of Africans by the Whites through repressive laws, which resulted into African nationalism. African nationalism turned violent and led to formation of armed struggle for there was no constitutional means to articulate their problems.

Assimilation

The word assimilation is derived from the French verb *assimile,* which means to cause to resemble. The overriding factor here was the French assumption that their civilisation and culture had attained the highest possible standard.

Assimilation policy was applied with the view that colonies were provinces of the colonising power. The policy was based on the principles of **enculturalisation** of the colonized people into the colonial power. The colonies regarded their culture and civilisation as superior to the colonized. It was thus the responsibility of the imperial power to inculcate their influence on the colonized people to have them change and live like them.

The French applied this policy in Africa. They regarded the overseas territories as part (provinces) of France and were to be represented in the French National Assembly. French laws were applied in the colonies as they were in France. The French communes in Senegal were administered using the assimilation policy.

The French in Senegal

The French Revolution of the year 1789 had, in its declaration of the human rights, guaranteed the liberty of all men regardless of race or colour. In this, the idea of granting the rights of French citizenship to all men wherever they were had its origin. By a decree, in 1848 all communities in the French colonies emancipated from slavery would have representation in the French National Assembly. It is with this in mind that the policy of assimilation in French West Africa should be looked at.

Thus, the people of West Africa were to be transformed into Frenchmen, speaking, living, behaving and thinking like Frenchmen. The territories in which they lived were to be identical to the provinces in France, administratively, economically and politically. This policy was aimed at influencing every aspect of the lives of the colonized people and also to mould the colony and its society in the image of France. French rule in West Africa can be divided into three phases. The first phase begins from the earliest days of French administration in the urban coastal areas of Senegal, until the middle of the 19^{lh} Century. These early urban areas included St. Louis, Goree, Dakar and Rufisque. Their inhabitants, long dctribalised, had had long contacts with the French. They were, therefore, able to assimilate the French culture.

The second phase corresponds roughly to the governorship of Faidherbe (1854-1865), whereby the French subdued the interior territories of Senegal and brought them under their control. These Africans of the interior of Senegal had not come in contact with French civilisation before and so were not used to

the French ways of life. These, the French hoped, would eventually qualify as French citizens in the same way as the coastal inhabitants had.

The third phase starts from 1880 onwards, whereby the French conquered the vast interior of West Africa and portions of the coast of Guinea and brought them under their control. The structure of French rule in West Africa followed a federal pattern. In 1895 the post of a Governor-General was created to cover the whole of French West Africa. It was given to the Governor of Senegal. A separate headquarters was established at Dakar and Dahomey; Upper Volta and Niger. With the creation of Mauritania as a separate colony which was added to the federation, French West Africa was then made of eight colonies each with its own Governor, who was responsible to the Governor-General at

Dakar.

The Structure of Assimilation as Applied in Senegal

There was a minister of colonies based in Paris who was responsible to all French colonies. Under the minister were governors each in charge of a colony. As from 1895 a loose federation was established in the French colonies of West Africa. The Governor of Senegal whose headquarters was at Dakar became the Governor-General of all West African colonies. All other governors of Dahomey, Upper Volta, Niger and Mauritania were directly responsible to the Governor of Senegal.

All appointments in the civil service were handled by the Governor-General. He was in charge of the army and technical matters such as posts and telegraphs. Territorial governors— in charge of each colony, carried out duties transmitted from Paris through the Governor-General in Dakar.

The French set up a local government which ignored traditional boundaries. Each colony, Senegal included, was divided into provinces referred to **cercles.** The **cercles** were of the same size and population. It was administered by a Commandant de Cercle.

A cercle was in turn subdivided into **sub-divisions,** the equivalent of a district. The subdivision was under the **Chef de Subdivision.**

The sub-division was divided into cantons or locations ruled by a **Chef de Canton.** The **canton** was divided into villages or sub-locations. The last two above were all under Africans who owed their position to the French colonial government. Figure 3.4 shows the hierarchy of the structure of assimilation in Senegal.

Lieutenant—Governor	(Country')
Commandant de Cercle	(Province)
Chef de **Sub-division**	(District)
Chef de Canton	(Location)
Chef de Village	(Village)

*Fig. **1.4: Administrative** hierarchy in Senegal*

Aspects of Assimilation in Senegal

Senegal was regarded as an overseas province of France. In the four communes, the French system of government was firmly established and the inhabitants regarded themselves as French citizens. The main aspects or features of assimilation in Senegal were:

- Political assimilation, where the natives were considered to be Frenchmen.
- They were allowed to elect representatives to the French Chamber of Deputies. The municipal councils created in Senegal were modelled on those found in France.
- There was personal cultural assimilation where the French made attempts to transform the people in Senegal into Frenchmen in black skins.

- In the "civilising mission" the French educational facilities were extended to Senegal. The language of instruction was French. Senegalese who had received French education and expressed themselves in French qualified for assimilation as they met other relevant conditions.
- In economic matters, Senegal was integrated into French economic network. The infrastructure established in Senegal resembled that of France.

Benefits enjoyed by Assimilated Africans

The benefits enjoyed by the assimilated Africans especially in the four communes in Senegal inducted:

- Allowed to send representatives to the French Chamber of Deputies.
- Could vote like Frenchmen.
- Provided with educational opportunities like the Frenchmen.
- Exempted from forced labour, taxation and arbitrary arrest.
- They also enjoyed trading rights.
- They enjoyed French judicial system.
- Employed in the civil service.
- Operated local authority structures like Frenchmen.

Why Assimilation Policy Failed

- As observed earlier, the policy of assimilation was to an extent effectively carried out in Senegal more than in other French West African territories. To be specific, this policy in Senegal was confined to the four coastal communes of St. Louis, Rufisque, Gorce and Dakar. The greater part *of* Senegalese interior remained unaffected.
- The policy of assimilation was expensive if strictly adhered to, especially the cost of the privileges it provided such as education. France was unwilling to meet the cost of implementing such a policy in West Africa from its metropolitan budget.
- There was the problem of cultural difference between the Africans and the French. Africans were attached to their culture and hence they opposed the French cultural imperialism.
- African chiefs v, ho had lost their authority oxer their subjects strongly opposed the poliex of assimilation and the French present . The French lacked adequate personnel to supervise the process of assimilation. But at the same time they feared that its implication would result to the loss of labour on their farms.
- Politically the system threatened their status quo. The French feared that if many Africans were being elected to join the French Chamber of Deputies, they would soon outnumber the Frenchmen and pass laws that favoured the Blacks.
- The disregard of African laws based on African culture and Islam caused a lot of African resentment. The high standards expected by the French for one to be assimilated made the policy unworkable. Some Africans carried on with the policy and joined the Chamber of Deputies where they launched campaigns seeking for recognition of their rights. It is not surprising, therefore, that only a tiny section of the population, the French and the Mulato and some Senegalese, were able to take advantage of the education offered in Senegal. Because of religious antagonism, the rest of the population rejected this education.
- Just like other European power, the French hoped to acquire raw materials for their industries from the colonies. Assimilation policy threteaned this. T
- here was fear by some Frenchmen that assimilated Africans could be their economic rivals. Lastly,
- the French themselves who had used this policy were unable to agree to destroy the French colonial empire. To prevent this- and safeguard their economic and political domination in

Senegal at the turn of the century, they began to agitate not only for the rejection of Senegalese demands but abo for the abolition of the policy of assimilation and the civil rights they enjoyed as a consequence.

The Effects of Assimilation in Senegal

Assimilation had considerable impact to the people of Senegal. To begin with, the French made little concession to indigenous political units when they were dividing their African territories for administrative purposes, unlike the British. The traditional chief in the new arrangements losthis former power. He became the agent of the French administration with the French administrator being the overall master.

The French civilising mission was not abandoned wholly and, though education was scarce, it was modelled on the French system.

The language taught in schools was French; encouraging the formation of a native elite, which was absorbed in the territorial and federal administrative services though on a small-scale. The elite class later spearheaded nationalism in Senegal.

The policy of assimilation was abandoned in 1945, perhaps because of the many obstacles in the way of executing it. It created divisions among Africans in Senegal. Those who had-been assimilated were granted French citizenship and were treated as a privileged class compared to other citizens in the colony.

Africans in Senegal participated in political affairs of France as they took part in elections either as voters or candidates being elected to the French Chamber of Deputies.

The French realised that not only was it impossible to get Africans to forsake their customs, but that attempting to do this was in itself unwise and dangerous. They now agreed that Africans could develop along their own lines and continue doing so in close association with them. So it was then that the French government replaced the policy of assimilation with the policy of association. By this policy of asssociation, the French colonial government was to respect the culture of her colonies.

colonies were also to enjoy the freedom of developing independently following the existing traditional institutions. In any casr. less than 500 Africans had been assimilated before 1945.

Comparison between the British and French Systems of Administration

- The French used military officers while the British used professional administrators.
- British rule varied from one colony to another depending on whether direct or indirect rule was used. The French made use of a uniform policy of assimilation in their colonies.
- British rule did not interfere much with the African culture while assimilation was aimed at replacing African culture with French culture.
- Assimilated Africans in French colonies were granted French citizenship with full rights.
- The elite in British colonies were subjected to the same harsh rule as the rest of the colonized Africans.
- The British granted African chiefs a lot of power while the French undermined traditional African rulers.
- The laws in the French colonies were legislated in France while in the British colonies the laws were made by legislative colonies in each of the colonies.
- Each British colony were ruled separately by a governor.
- The French colonies were ruled together as a federation and were regarded as overseas provinces of France. The French colonies elected their representatives to the Chambers of Deputies in Paris while the British colonies were not represented in the British parliament.

Similarities

- Both the British and the French appointed their own European officials into senior positions of administration in their colonies.

- Both British and French adopted excessive economic exploitation in their colonies, e.g., land alienation, forced labour and taxation.
- Both the British and French appointed African chiefs in communities that did not have centralised systems of administration.
- Both the British and French abolished slave trade and established legitimate trade in the colonies.

Work to do

1. Define the following terms:
(a) Indirect rule.
(b) Direct rule.
(c) Assimilation.
2. (a) Explain reasons why the British used indirect rule to administer Nigeria.
(b) State the results of the use of indirect rule in Nigeria.
3. (a) Give reasons why the British used direct rule to administer Zimbabwe.
(b) Describe the effects of direct rule in Zimbabwe.
4. (a) Outline the features of the French policy of assimilation in Senegal. (b) Give reasons why the policy failed.
5. Compare the British system of indirect rule with the French system of assimilation.

Activity

Organise a debate on the merits and demerits of each colonial systems of administration.

UNIT 3
THE RISE OF AFRICA (NATIONALISM)

At the end of this chapter students should be able to:

a) Discuss the rise of nationalism in Somalia, Ghana Mozambique and South Africans.

THE RISE OF AFRICAN NATIONALISM

Background

Nationalism comes from the word 'nation'. A nation is made up of people who share cultural and social background and have a common ancestry in historical terms. Nationalism gives individuals a sense of belonging to a given State or country. It produces desire for self-determination or independence for the people in a State by creating devotion to one's country. Nationalism is defined as a sentiment based on common cultural characteristics that binds a people together as a nation.

African nationalism grew out of the desire among different African communities to fight for independence from their colonial masters. These communities were in most cases of different cultural and ancestral background. They only had been brought together to share a colonial master during the partition of Africa by European powers. Their experience at the hands of colonial masters made them to evolve into one nation.

Early nationalism in Africa was witnessed right from the period of European colonisation. It had to manifest itself in African rebellions and resistance which were staged across the content, for example, Samori Toure against the French and Maji Maji against the German. However, in spite of the fact that they were all defeated they formed the foundation for future resistances.

Factors that promoted African nationalism

Racial segregation: The colonial governments in Africa enacted laws that discriminated against Africans. Africans were discriminated against by Whites because of their skin. This discrimination affected Africans socially, politically and economically, that is, Africans were left to occupy inferior positions in the colonial set-ups.

Colonial labour laws:

Throughout colonial Africa, European colonial masters subjected Africans to harsh labour conditions. This was either through legislation or force. The working conditions for Africans were too hostile. In terms of payments, Africans were largely underpaid with the aim of keeping them working. Europeans introduced the *Kipande* system identity cards for the Africans - to facilitate labour recruitment.

Trade union movements:

Trade unions were the first large-scale organisations used for fighting for better working conditions of Africans. With lime, they acted as foundations of political parties. They nurtured the leaders who were instrumental in the freedom struggle, Trade unions also provided funds for African political parties. In times when active political activity by'Africans was banned, trade unions kept the spirit of nationalism alive.

Over-taxation: The colonial governments in Africa introduced various forms of taxes to he paid by the Africans. The colonial government used the taxes to pay for the administrative costs of the colonies.

Colonial economic policies:

Land policy in colonial Africa was made to the disadvantage of the Africans, resulting into many Africans being squatters on the land that was once theirs. If not, they were moved to reserves which were not productive. These measures by the colonial government increased bitterness among Africans.

Europeans had the right to exploit minerals throughout colonial Africa. They also owned the few industries set up in the colonies. Africans were excluded from the management and ownership, was to provide all needed labour which was not paid for adequately.

The First and Second World wars: Trie

Two world wars of 1914 and 1939 had great impact on nationalism in Africa. The war provided Africans with chances to meet m large groups from various parts of the colonies and an opportunity to travel outside their countries. During the war, Africans demystified the theory of European superiority as they all died when exposed to gunihes Africans also earne to learn about iiilier colonies apart from their own. The learner! how to use the European arms, which they used at home in the liberation struggle to fight the Europeans.

The Africans came into contact with other Europeans and black Africans from America. From them they learnt new ideas of equality and democracy as practised in the USA.

After the 2nd World War, Africans who took part in the war went to further their education. When they returned home they provided leadership to other oppressed Africans. Those who returned home directly from the war got jobs or stayed at home. The ones who got jobs with the colonial establishments found living conditions so tough that they provided all the needed impetus to trade union movements, which were later bases to political parties. At the same time those who could not get absorbed in the colonial economy spent time storytelling and squandering their incomes. With time, they became broke and dissatisfied with the system. They are the ones who led the armed struggle for independence.

Lenist-Marxist influence: There was a communist revolution in Russia in 1917. During the revolution, peasants took over leadership by forced management of the country's means of production from a few rich landlords. As from 1945,

Stalin,the Russian leader, wanted to spread the ideas of the revolution. The Marxist propaganda found a suitable ground among Africans who were oppressed by their colonial masters.

Pan-Africanism:

This was a movement of Africans in diaspora, most of them lived in America and "Europe. Marcus Garvey and W.E.B Dubois founded the movement. It addressed problems experienced by the Africans both abroad and at home. The 5th Congress was the landmark congress of Pan-Africanism which was held in 1945 in Manchester, England. In attendance were Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya, Namdi Azikiwe of Nigeria, Leopold Sedar Senghor of Senegal and Kamuzu Banda of Malawi. The Congress called for intensified self-determination for Africans against oppression.

The United Nations Organisation:

The UNO was formed after the 2nd World War of 1945. The UNO declared colonisation as illegal and against human rights. Colonies were equated to slavery. It called for colonial powers to decolonise. This was one way of attaining world peace where no country will be subject to another.
After the end of the 2nii World War, the USA emerged as one of the super powers. France and Britain's economies had been extensively affected by the war. These former powers were the leading colonial powers in Africa. The United States offered to help them under the Marshal Plan to rebuild their economies. This aid was given on condition that they first must decolonise. To the USA, the colonies were an additional and unnecesary economic burden to those powers.

Socialist and labour parties:

There emerged political parties and societies which were against colonies in Europe. For example, in Britain the Labour Party formed a government and began its policies of decolonisation. It was more economical and peaceful to decolonise and let the countries manage their own political affairs but maintain economic influence.

Indian and Pakistan examples:

In 1947 India and Pakistan attained their independence. The two Asian countries provided African nationalists with an example. In this chapter we shall examine the rise of nationalism in Ghana. Mozambique and South Africa.

Ghana

Ghana was a British colony. Before Ghana attained independence, she was known as the Gold Coast. Nationalism aimed at ending British rule in Ghana started after the Second Word War. Before then, there was a mild form of nationalism whose demands were for constitutional reforms but not for total overthrow of the colonial system.

After the Second World War, the UN declared the right of all the people to choose the form of government under which to live and also recommended that sovereign rights and self-government be restored to those who had been deprived of them. Africans in Ghana, like everywhere else, interpreted this charter to mean that they were also covered by the declaration. On this understanding, they started to demand total independence.

The Second World War gave rise to radical nationalism in Ghana. The Africans (ex-soldiers) who fought against the Whites killed so many. As a result, the myth of the White man's superiority was shattered. This gave them the confidence and psychological inspiration to fight for their freedom. Furthermore, Africans came into contact with different people from different countries such as: India, Burma and Borneo with whom they shared a lot in terms of self-determination.
When they came back from war, they were ready to fight for their independence. They also felt that the White man should reciprocate for the war services they rendered by giving them a say in the running of their country's affairs. However, the White man became intransigent and, therefore, their expectations did not materialise. The White man continued being the master, the controller of the economic and political sectors. This disillusioned the soldiers who became very active in the struggle for independence.

Before discussing the formation of political parties that led to Ghana's independence, it is important to review the immediate conditions that led to the formation of these parties. First, the colonial education that was offered in Ghana produced many school leavers who could not get jobs. These frustrated people who flocked in towns and were easily influenced by the upcoming political parties. Again, the decision by the British government to construct one university only for the whole of West Africa at Ibadan, Nigeria, rather than in Ghana, created a nationwide discontent which enhanced disillusionment and hatred against them.
The British continued to exploit the incomes from Ghanaian mineral and agricultural produce, thus embittering the people even more. Africans were also not happy when th*ey were forced to cut down their

cocoa trees because they were affected by the swollen shoot disease. Cocoa was, and is still, the major source of income to the Ghanaian farmers. The ex-servicemen also complained of unemployment.

In the commercial field, many Africans were denied import and export licences in favour of the Whites. These discontent resulted to riots.

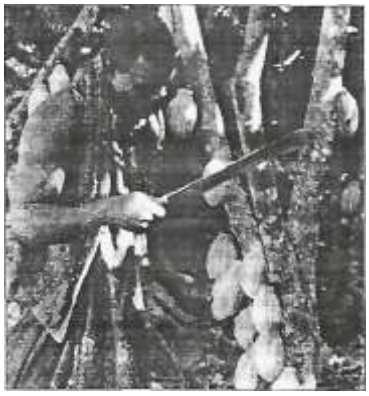


Fig.6.1: ***Cocoa,*** *the coca.*

The constitution was reformed by Governor Burns in 1946, proxiding for an African majority representation in the legislative 'council. However, ii was framed in such a way that the majority of Africans in the council were chiefs. This created more disenchantment among the Africans, particularly the educated elite. They regarded chiefs as collaborators and being more educated, they felt that they were the right people for the Legislative Council. Due to these nationwide frustrations, it became inevitable that political movement with the aim of removing the White man would be started.

The first party to emerge was the National League of the Gold Coast. This was started by Akufo Addo in 1941. Many more were formed with a similar aim. They joined together to form the United Gold Coast Convention (UGCC) in 1947. Most of the leaders of the UGCC were educated men and businessmen. George Grant became its Chairman and Kwame Nkrumah its Secretary-General. It was Kwame Nkrumah who did most to strengthen the party.

The spread of the UGCC was accelerated by the riots and looting of February 1948. They were sparked by trigger-happy British soldiers who fired and killed people who had marched to the Governor's palace to present a petition. People expressed their indignation by looting European shops, which resulted in total civil chaos. This looting and the hopelessness of the government at that time strengthened the UGCC, because many more people joined the party and overnight, its leaders became national heroes. The leaders demanded a probe to establish the causes of the disturbances. The British government agreed and the Andrew Alken Watson Commission was formed.

The Commission submitted its report in June 1948. Its conclusions were that the disturbances were caused by social, political and economic conditions. It recommended that a new constitution be drawn up to cater for the people's interests. It went on to say that the Black community should be given more say in the running of the country, that the local government should be reorganised and that education development should be greatly accelerated. These recommendations prompted the British government to appoint a committee under the chairmanship of J.H. Coussey to prepare a new constitution for the country. But surprisingly enough, Nkrumah (see Figure 6,2) was not included in it. At this time, a rift had developed between him and the other leaders of the UGCC as a result of his radicalism. Consequently, he formed his own party, the Convention Peoples Party (CPP). The charismatic Nkrumah was a well read person, widely travelled and a good orator. His ideas appealed to the young people who joined his party in thousands. It was his belief that no political movement could succeed without the support of the masses. He won them by his oratorical and radical sentiments against the colonialists. He had read Marxist-Leninism and, therefore, he was well equipped to mobilise the masses.

Meanwhile, the Coussey Committee went ahead to recommend some constitutional changes. It provided for a semi-responsible government: an executive council of three ex-officials and eight representative ministers and a nationally elected assembly. The recommendations created the basis for the 1951 general elections. Nkrumah's party swept the polls by winning nearly all the seats. He was allowed by the governor, Arden Clarke, to form a government with him as Prime Minister. In 1954 Gold Coast attained full internal self-government under the CPP. However, as soon as it appeared that the British were about to hand over political power to the CPP government, other parties sprang up in various parts of the

country to protect local ethnic interests. This created an uneasy situation v/hich delayed *full* independence up to 1957. Ghana, thus became the first State in Africa to gain independence.

Fig. 6.2: Dr. Kwamt' Nkrumah.

Methods Used by Nationalists in Ghana in their Struggle for Independence

- They held public rallies to mobilise the masses to articulate their grevancies.
- Trade unions in their struggle for independence.
- Mobilised protests and demonstrations against colonial rule.
- They wrote publications and various forms of literature whose editorial objectives were to voice and popularise the African course. For example, Nkrumah used the *Accra Evening News* to articulate African grievances. The nationalists used international forums. Nkrumah made known the plight of Africans at the 5"[1] Pan-African Congress held at Manchester London in 1945.
- Participated in constitutional negotiations, for example, the Burns and Coussey Constitutional negotiations.

Problems Faced by Nationalists in Ghana

The nationalists in Ghana faced many problems in the struggle for independence. The problems were as follows:

- Lack of adequate funds to finance nationalistic activities caused by the general economic hardships.
- Disunity among Africans where African chiefs clashed with the political elites who were spearheading nationalism.
- There was rivalry among political parties, e.g., the CPP and NLD diverting the attention of the struggle to internal unity building.
- African nationalists were arrested by the colonial government.

Reasons why Ghana Achieved Independence Earlie'r than other African Countries

- There were rapid economic and social changes which were caused by the extensive cultivation of cocoa. The economy of Ghana depends on cocoa cultivation hence developments that affected cocoa farming after the 2"[d] World War resulted into political change.
- There was a large group of educated elites. The missionaries had set up schools throughout the colony with the assistance of the colonial government. The traditional chiefs also supported African education provided by Europeans. Some Africans were able to receive education abroad. The educated Africans were the people on the frontline calling for decolonisation of Ghana.
- Kwame Nkrumalvs populist leadership provided the unity required for nationalism in Ghana. These made his party the CPP to be very popular as a mass movement in the country.
- He also participated in the Pan-African Manchester Conference of 1945 that resolved that all countries have a right to self-determination.
- Ghana was comparatively a small country in size. It was also well served with a good system of transport and communication. These made the movement of information from one area to another faster and effective.
- There was presence of a few European settlers in the country compared to countries like South Africa. These made the struggle for independence not to be bloody or to have any complication.

Mozambique

Mozambique was a colony of the Portuguese. Portugal was the first colonial power to make its permanent presence at the East Coast of African in the 16[lh] Century. However, it was also the last European power to deeolonise. The headquarters of colonial Mozambique was Maputo, which was by then referred to as Lourenco Marques.

Reasons for slow decolonisation of Mozambique

- Portugal, though having been the first colonial power, was very poor and backward compared to other European powers. It even lacked the means of establishing neo-colonial structures in its colonies once they attained independence. Portugal had to keep its hold on colonies such as Mozambique to sustain its economy. The independence of Mozambique would have meant loss of all the needed revenue.
- Portugal encouraged Western multinationals to settle, establish mines and plantations in Mozambique. This was because it lacked the capital to invest in the colony. The presence of multi-national companies was also aimed at getting the support of Western powers irrespective of its human rights record in the colony.
- Colonial Mozambique witnessed high settlement of Whites whose number rose from 85,000 in 1939 to 130,000 in 1970. The White settlers were coming to Mozambique to utilise cheap labour provided by Africans on their farms and "develop" the vast tracts of empty lands. The presence of Whites was characterised with the increase in exports from the colony, i.e., sugar and sisal. In return Mozambique also provided market for industrial produce, Profits from the above arrangement went to the Portuguese middlemen and Portuguese government.
- The exploitation of the Africans was characterised by forcing them to grow cash crops at the expense of food crops; forcing them to sell cash crops (their produce) to particular companies and making them to provide labour on plantations and public works. Africans were denied the right to strike and if they did strike the penalty was heavy. This made them to accept low pay and poor

working conditions without question. There were labour recruitment companies for Africans to work in mines in South Africa. Laws were enacted where Africans who were perceived to be idle were punished. By the year 1960 there were 400,000 Mozambicans working outside Mozambique, mostly in South Africa.

- To maintain their hold and control of Mozambique, the Portuguese, with financial assistance from the west built the Cabora Bassa Dam on the Zambezi River. The darn was to supply South African mines with the most needed HER By then South Africa, in spite of its apartheid system of government, was an important country to the West during the Cold War period, as it supplied them with uranium a raw material in the production of nuclear bombs and electricity.
- On the political scene, the large size of Mozambique combined with strict and rigorous censorship by the security forces, made it impossible for a> nationalistic mass movement to emerge. Mozambique, in this case, could not be compared to neighbouring countries of Zambia and Tanzania.
- Unlike other colonial powers such as France, Belgium and Britain, Portugal refused to decolonisc until the middle of 1970s.
- There was an authoritarian government set up by Dr. Salazar (1928-68). The authoritarian government in Lisbon could not accept the ideas of freedom or independence in the colonies which would inspire freedom at home. Salazar established a fascist style of government managed by the secret police whose activities were extended to colonies, During his reign, colonial Africa was treated as part of Portugal without political concessions. It was against the law to form political associations or trade unions.
- On paper there existed democracy where even Africans were allowed to participate. African men who had been westernised in education and religion were given the *assimilado* status which made them to be elevated from the "indigenous or native class." The *assimilado* status was, however, open to very few Africans if any. These were the ones who were allowed to vote. African territories were under-represented in the parliament in Lisbon. There were no constitutional means to register protest. It was against this background that armed uprisings were staged in Mozambique and the entire Portuguese colonies in Africa.
- Racialism also greatly undermined nationalism in Mozambique and other Portuguese colonies in Africa. It was at its peak in the 1960s, when there was an influx of Europeans into Mozambique and Africans into the urban areas in large numbers to look for jobs. The Africans were pitied against the Whites, the Whites took over the jobs that had been traditionally African, i.e, in semi-skilled areas. Africans were prejudiced against because of their skin colour. Consequently, the Portuguese doctrine of *Luso-tropicalism* lost meaning to Africans. *Luso-tropicalism* stated that Portuguese, whether in Portugal Africa or Brazil were in partnership with the non-Whites.
- The attempts to change the living conditions of Africans had little success. In 1949 a group of African secondary school students set up a cultural association which asserted the value of African culture besides spreading nationalistic values among Africans. The association did not.meet its goals due to police surveillance. The period between 1945 1960 witnessed many strikes by urban workers, protesting against low pay and poor working conditions. As much as they were defeated, they drove their point home. There were other strikes by peasant co-operatives in the north of the colony. The peasants strike was led by Lazaro Kavandeme in 1950. The peasants were protesting against exploitation by middlemen. The strike was defeated by restricting the operation of co-operative movements and making them pay heavy levies. The failure of several isolated reactions against the Portuguese convinced the natives for the need of a large-scale peasantry revolution. There were very few intellectuals in Mozambique who were of African origin. The Portuguese feared that intellectual growth among Africans could lead to political unrest. Educational facilities for Africans were backward compared to other African colonies. The Portuguese spent an estimated six cents on African education compared to four dollars spent by the British on Africans in Northern Rhodesia. However,
- there were few Africans who were privileged to have higher education in Portugal itself and local mission schools. As from 1920s the Press had been subjected to strict censorship and the police were quick to deal with any signs of political unrest. In spite of the activities of the police, there were Mozambicans who went to neighbouring territories of Tanzania, North Rhodesia

(Zimbabwe) and Belgium Congo (DRC) where they learned revolutionary ideas emerging from the continent.

Front for the Liberation of Mozambique

The Mozanibican war of independence began in 1964 after the formation of the Front for the Liberation of Mozambique (FRHLIMO). FREL1MO was formed in June 1962 by a coalition of forces opposed to Portuguese rule, living in exile in East and Central Africa. Its leader Eduardo Chivamho Mondlane was born in 1920. He had lived and worked in the USA as a lecturer in Syracuse University. Before then he worked for United Nations Department of Trusteship as a research officer. This position made him be in contact with what was taking place in Mozambique. He resigned as a lecturer and joined FRELIMO in 1962.

Preparations for the war lasted two years. The officers for the liberation army were trained in Algeria while guerrilla camps were set up in Bagamoyo, Tanzania. Before the war, the Portuguese were able to crush strikes among dock workers at Louranco Marques, Beira and Nacala, after which they thought they had overcome the Africans. The war began in 1964. The Portuguese had full knowledge that FRELIMO was operating from Tanzania. They amassed troops on the boarder with Tanzania in an attempt to prevent what they thought would be guerrilla warfare across the borders. But instead FRELIMO opened full-scale peoples war against the Portuguese. In the event of a guerrilla war it was not from across the borders but from within. The war broke out at once in four provinces which undermined the Portuguese defence throughout the country, that is, from Niassa, Cabo Delado in the North-East to Zambesi and Tete in the North-West. ERELIMO consolidated its position in the North-East and opened new fronts in the North-We st.

Fig. 6.3: Eduardo Mondlane with Machel (in the middle of picture) in 1968.

Reasons why FRELIMO Succeeded in its Armed Struggle Against Portuguese

- The success of FRELIMO was due to its organisation. From 250 trained men in 1964, the number of fighters increased to 8,000 by 1967. The Portuguese tried to counter the gains made by FRELIMO by doubling their soldiers from 35,000 in 1967 but they were of no use for only small portion was used in combat. Most of their soldiers were to guard towns and government installations.
- The other factor in the success of FJIELIMO was that areas such as Tete, Niassa and Cabo Delgado were suitable for guerrilla warfare because of their forest vegetation unsuitable for armed vehicles and processions of the Portuguese bombers.
- The local people played another principle role in the victories of the FRELIMO fighters. They gave logistical support to the fighters by providing information (operational intelligence) about the whereabouts of the Portuguese army. Unlike the Portuguese, FRELIMO was a

peasantry revolt which naturally received support of the locals. The Movement cultivated its own food and never relied on local people for any supply. They fought a free war with no supply line to defend when it came to equipment and supplies.

- In acquisition of arms FRELIMO got the support of the communist countries of Eastern bloc. African countries like Tanzania also gave the Movement military aid alongside giving it international recognition. The Organisation of African Unity (OAU), played a key role in international affairs as far as the liberation movement was concerned. It united independent African countries against Portuguese rule in Mozambique.
- In liberated zones which were areas under FRELIMO control, government was set up which was geared towards people's needs and goals. This gave the locals reason to fight on the side of the movement against the Portuguese. FRELIMO involved women in the management of its military. Women proved to be very resourceful in mobilisation of the masses. Their presence astonished men who rushed for recruitment in the FRELIMO ranks.
- Ethnicity was overcome in the movement by the free mingling of people from different areas. The people fought in the same units as one. There was also a cultural revolution as all the Africans in liberated areas respected each other's culture.
- FRELIMO also achieved its success because it was a democratic open movement, modelled along one-party state line. People were allowed to air their views freely and elections were held for party officials.
- The assassination of Mondlane, its leader in Dar-es-Salaam by a parcel . bomb posted from Western Europe in 1969, besides being a set-back, was overcome quickly and his succession well managed. There was a three-man presidential committee established to run the affairs of the Movement. Samora Machel was elected President after the transition, in the same year.
- FRELIMO-controlled areas were occupied by ZANU guerrillas of Zimbabwe - who were fighting to liberate Zimbabwe as from 1972. ZANU helped FRELIMO in fighting the Portuguese. As from 1970 1971 FRELIMO repulsed attacks by the Portuguese in Niassa and Cabo Delgado.
- The Portuguese adopted the policy of moving villagers to fortified centres in order to have them cut links with FRELIMO. However, the spirit of
- Nationalism was much stronger in fortified centres as conditions of living were poor. By 1972 the activities of FRELIMO went up to Manica and Sofala, leaving the Portuguese to operate in urban areas alone.
- The achievements of FRELIMO were boosted by the coup in Lisbon carried out by officers who were not in support of colonial wars. In Africa, the wars, besides claiming lives of 8,000 officers, had drained the economy. Antonio de Spinola overthrew Gaetano in 1974 who had replaced Salazar. Antonio de Spinola arranged for a ceasefire with Mozambique, but his slow approach to decolonisation saw him being overthrown by a military Junta. The Junta signed an agreement with FRELIMO where a transitional government was established in September 1974. Mozambique won its independence in 1975 under FRELIMO with Samora Machel (See Figure 6.4) as President.

Challenges Faced by FRELIMO in the Liberation Struggle

- Throughout their struggle, FRELIMO was faced with the following challenges:
- Severe shortage of food and clothes in liberated areas, which made peasants to migrate and withdraw their support for the Movement. But as from 1966 the worst shortage had been overcome with the re-organisation in agriculture
- FRELIMO was denied Western aid in spite of Mondlane's request. This made FRELIMO turn to the Russians, Yugoslavia and China for assistance.
- The attitude of the Catholic Church was hostile towards FRELIMO.
- The church supported colonial Portugal and termed FRELIMO group as terrorists. Mozambicans who belonged to the Catholic Church and supported FRELIMO were threatened with ex-communication from the church.
- Assassination of its leaders, i.e., Mondlane provided a temporary set-back to the liberation struggle before Samora Machel took over leadership.
- Ethnicity posed a big challenge to the liberation struggle in Mozambique. This was because of the fact that the natives were from many tribes. It was solved by the free mixing of fighters from different tribes.

South Africa

The history of South Afiricarwj-as, in reality, a conflict between two competing nationalisms: Afrikaner nationalism on one side, Africans and other non-Whites in the country on the other.

Afrikaner Nationalism

Afrikaner nationalism started late in the 19th Century as a resistant movement of mainly the descendants of the Dutch-speaking Ehite people against British imperialism. Whenever the British encroached on their rights or territory, discontent arose. That happened before the Great Trek in connection with the *Uithmders.* The causes of the Boer wars later in the centuiy were ladden with that nationalism.

Work to do

1. Disucss the rise of Nationalism of Somalia, Chana, Mozambique and south Africa?
2. Identify factors Permoted Africa nationalism?
3. Mention methods used by nationalists on chana and their struggle for independence?
4. What was the reason for slow decolonization of Mozambique?
5. Discuss the role of SYL Somali Youth League in Somali nationalism?

UNIT 4

LIVES AND CONTRIBUTION OF SOMALI FREEDOM FIGHTERS

At the end of this chapter students should be able to :

a) Discuss the live and contribution of the above freedom fighters

The Rise and Contribution of Somalia Freedom Fighters

1. Imam Ahmed Gurey:

He was Imam Ahmed bin Ibrahim, the invader nicknamed "Gurey" Meaning left hand man. He was the ruler of Adal Emirate in Somalia. He was born in region "Hobito" lived in western Somalia in 1506AB his youth story was unknown, but mostly he was lived in the city of Zeyla. There, he married the princess "donberito the daughter of emir of zeyla. Also imam of emir Mohamud masque. Imam Ahmed Gurey relatively retuned to Imam Omar waisal-creative of Emirate IFAT of Somalia in 13th century. The order seems to be good in this emirate they choose Imam Ahmed Gurey emir of the Adal emirate in the year 1532 A.B At that time its headquarter was Harar city

Imam Ahmed was one of the heroes of the Somalia, and qualified leader from the great city of Harar, The assaults from Abbyssinia on the land of Somalia never rests or stops and the wars were competition until Imam Ahmed come to power of Adal Emirate, he followed his great judicious for Administering the country internally, he united and lined the tribes, there trade recovered and stronged the economic, security, peace and hope spread between the citizens from there he prepared, trade and economic recorerd and strength also the season peace and hope. From here Imam began to prepared a complete attacking to Abbyssinia Empire when he began to attack the Abbyssinia take it as velitation towards accustomed (Small wars) on the border between them but this time it was completely different from the others. After 15 years only Imam Ahmed captured 3/4 of Abbyssinia land even the former capital Axum. The king of Abbyssinia died while running with his defeated soldiers by Imam Ahmed in 1538 before the king Lebed dangle died he agreed a treaty with king of portugale to help him against Imam Ahmed in return of allowing the or thordox clerks the catholic clerks to spread their sectarian religion.

According to the agreement the portaguer sent 450 soldiers Armed with their weapons wars continue between the allay of the portugnes Abbyssinia and Imam Ahmed soldiers at the beginning they meet looses and between for the half of the portague including their leader christofor do gama.

After strong wrestling of fighting continue some years later the allay sadly to be able to defeat Imam Ahmed and killed him in year 1543AB suddenly the he was killed and defeated but his courageous still hit on.

Exercise

I answer the following question

1. Where Imam Ahmed Gurey born?
2. When he come to power of Adal emirate?
3. What are the reasons Imam Ahmed to attack Abbyssinia?
4. When Imam died?

II- Fill In The Blank Spaces

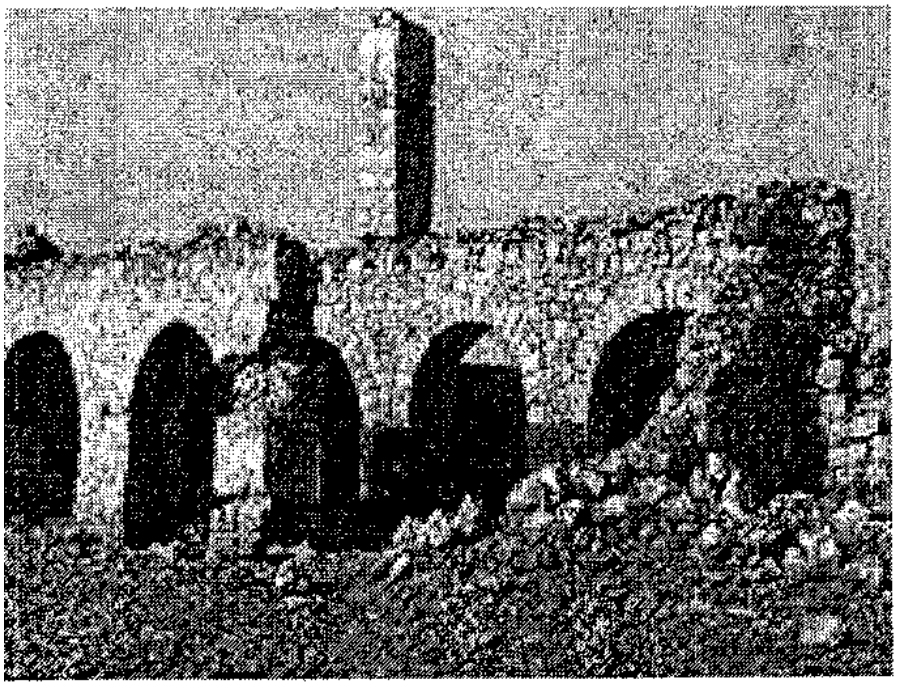
1. Imam Ahmed born in the year_____

2. Imam Ahmed came to power_____ and died in the year_____.

3. Imam Ahmed bin Ibrahim nick named _____

III: Put (T) if true and (F) if false

1. He Take addis ababa city as his head quetr ( )
2. Imam Ahmed died in 1543 A. ( )
3. Imam Ahernd Gurey was Sudani freedom fighter ( )



Ruins of the Sultanate of Adal in Zeila, Somalia.

IV: Match A and **B** Of The **Following:-**

A	B
1 . Adal emirate	a) The capital Imam Ahmed
2. Imam Ahmed Was famous	b) nick named "Gurey" left hard man
3. Imam Ahmed was famous	c) none of the great Islamic emirates in Somalia
4. Harar city	d) Died in 1543 A.D

2. Amir nor He was imam nor bin Mohamed. he was a nephew of imam Ahmed Gurey. He came into power of Adal Emirate, no body knows the date of brith and place.

He came into power at 1552 AD After 15year the martyre of his nephew imam Ahmed Gurey. He ruled the Emirate in a good way stability he raided continuously the colony of Abbysian with their portugnes helpers and he was victorious, especially on the king of Abbysian colodio lebin dengle and has called him the second conqueror.

s He took his headquater to city of Harar. Harar at that time was a great centre of Education and trade in horn of Africa. The trade carvans brought goods to and form parts cities of Somalia as zeyla and berbera. They also carry the different products in different areas of Africa to the ports and export to foreign markets.

Amir Nor Built a great wall a round the city of Harar to protect the people and trade and also their belongs from looting and robbing the wail around the city still stand upto now . Besides, that wall harar was a great centre for Arabic science and Islamic culture in horn Africa. Its schools were similar for that of mecca; medina and cairo, for teaching way and development of curriculum Amir Nor was in love of Arabic language and seholar of different culture and also interested of following Islamic education Amir Nor, he himself was good modest and merciful to the poor people also spread islam and persuasion of more people from Oramo and Abbysian to become Islam. He was good rational and reasonable man'until he died in 1568 A.D at city of harar and buried there.

Exercise

I - answer the following Questions

1. When Amir nor came to power of Adal Emirate?
2. Why Amir Nor built a wall around the city of harar?
3. Whom was the second conqueror?

II fill in the blank spaces of the following

1. Amir Nor built a wail a round well known city of_____
2. Amir Nor fought the king_____and his soldiers.
3. Amir died in the year_____ and buried in city of _____

Ill Put( ) If True And (X) If False Of The Following Statements

1. Amir Nor lame to power his nephew Ahem Gurey. ( )
2. Amir Nor died in Zeyla. ( )
3. Amir Nor were victorious with of Abbyions. ( )

IV match the following A &B

A	B
1. Amir nor came into	Ethiopians and portages Power of Audel Emirate.
2, Amir Nor built	After 15 year when Imam Ahmed gurey died
3. Amir Nor fought the colonayes	In l558 A.D

3. **Sayid Abdullah** Hassan

Sayid Muhammad Abdullah Hassan (born 1856, Somalia, died 1920, Emey) was Somalia's religious and nationalist leader (called the Mad Mullah by the British). For 20 years he led armed resistance against British, Italian, and Ethiopian colonialist forces in Somalia.

He was the eldest son of Sheikh Abdulle. Hassan's hero was his maternal grandfather, Sade Mogan, who was a great warrior chief. In addition to being a good horseman, by 11, Hassan had learned the entire Qur'an by heart. In 1875, he worked as a Qur'anic teacher. He then devoted 10 years to visiting centres of Islamic learning in Somalia and Sudan.

In 1891 he married and in 1894, he went On Hajj. He stayed in Makkah for a year and half and joined the Saalihiyasuffl order. In 1895, he returned to Somalia. By then the Ethiopians were plundering and occupying Somali Ogaden. Somalia came under rule of several countries including UK, Italy and Ethiopia. In 1897, fearing Christian influence he started preaching religious reform, Hassan got weapons from Turkey. Sudan, and other Muslim countries. He appointed ministers in different areas of Somalia and sent emissaries appealing for Somalis to join his moyement

In 1900 Hassan attacked the Ethiopian garrison at Jijiga successfully. He then raided British areas. From 1901-1904, the Dervish army inflicted heavy losses on Ethiopian, British and Italian forces. By 1913, Hassen ruled the entire hinterland of the Somali peninsula.

In 1920, the British struck Hassan's settlements with an air and land attack and inflicted defeats. Hassan's army fled to Ogaden. Here he tried to rebuild. He refused a British subsidy peace deal Then smallpox and rinderpest broke out In Ogaden and half of Hassan's forces died.

A tribal raid under Somalis armed by the British killed the remaining Dervish but failed to catch Hassan. Along with some followers, he escaped to Arsi Oromo in Ethiopia where he tried to stabilize his position.

In 1920, Hassan died of influenza at the age of 64.

Consolidation

Mohammed Abdullah Hassan's fort in Taleex

4. Abdulkadir Sakhawadin

Ahdulkadir Sakhawadin , the founder of Somali National Unity, was the first leader of the youth organization. He was born in Teyeglow in Bakol Region onl919A.B,

In his childhood, he learnt the Holy Koran by heart within few years, and then educated well the Islamic knowledge and the Arabic Language.

Abdulkadir had moved to Mogadishu and opened a library center where the Islamic books and Arabic languages have been found, and it was the first Islamic library opened in Mogadishu.

Abdulkadir Sakhawadin had seen the hostility of Italian and British colonists to the Somali People, this was resulted the establishing of new political party to unite the Somalis in the struggle against colonists, then he suggested his idea to his colleague Yasin Hagi Osman in which he welcomed warmly , after that, Abdulkadir had decided to relate and spread his idea against the colonist to many of his youth colleagues

On 15^{dl} May 1943, thirteen Somali youth had made a conference in Mogadishu and announced the establishment of the SYL political party and they were appointed Abdulkadir as the first chairman of SYL party. SYL members were as fallows:

1. Sheikh Abdulkadir Saqaawudiin.
2. Hagi Mohamed Hussein
3. Dhere Hagi Dhere
4. Yaasin Hagi Osman
5. Moharned All Nur
6. Osman Geedi Rage
7. Hudow Mo'alim Abdulahi
8. Ali Hassan Balduur
9. Dahir Hagi Osman
10. Moharned Osman-Baarle
11. Moharned Farah Hilowle
12. Hagi Mohamed Abdulahi
13. Moharned Hersi Nur.

SYL had soon started struggle against colonist and the information spread immediately throughout the Somali peninsula within short period, it was opened around 100 branches in many various places.

Abdulkadir sakhawadin died in Mogadishu in 1945 and his colleagues won to be continued the struggle and finally they gained the independence of two parts of Somali territory (Somali British Somaliland, and Italian Somaliland) in 1960.

Activirty

Write a short repot about how Abdulkadir Sakhawadin took part the struggle of Somali independence.

5. HAWA TAKO

In the middle of 19th country, after the colonist conquered Somali territory which resulted the division of the Somali peninsula into five parts, this caused the Somali People to stand and struggle against the colonist to defend their territory together.

Hawa Osinan “Hawa Tako" was among women heroes. She was born in Somali Western region an early of 20th century, during this period she moved to Mogadishu that was under Italian colony.

Hawa Tako joined die independence struggle movements and become famous and she was able to motivate and bring national sprit among Somalis, she also put great efforts to up rise of the youth and showed them to oppose against the action of colonists.

After the Italian colonist had seen her risk to them they decided how to kill her, and finally Hawa Tako died after she was shot with poisoned arrow by colonists in Ilthjanuaryl949.

Work to do

I - answer the following Questions

1. Discuss mature causes of war between Sayid Mohamed Abdulle Hassan and British Colony?
2. Mention were and where Sayid Mohamed Abdulle Hassan was Born and died?
3. Who was the founder of Somali national Unit?
4. What was the causes of establishing new political part to unite Somali’s in the struggle against colonist?
5. mention SYL members?
6. Write a short passage about how Hawo Tako took part the struggle movement of Somali independence.

UNIT 5
NATIONAL DEFENCE, MAINTAIN, LAW AND ORDER

By the end of this unit student should able to:

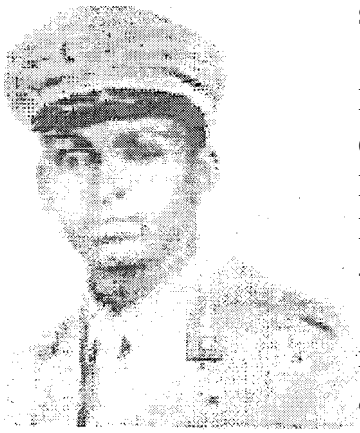
a) Illustrate different national defense forces and how they maintain the law and order.

NATIONAL DEFENCE, MAINTAIN, LAW AND ORDER

Just prior to independent, the trust territory of Somalia sought and obtained UN permission to establish a national army to defend the Somali Republic borders, the Somali police forces was formed December 20, 1943 has since been marked as armed forces day, British Somali land became independent on 26 june, 1960 as the state of Somali land and the trust territory of Somalia (the Italian Somali land) followed suit five days later, on July 1, 1960 the territories united to form the Somali Republic and in 12 April 1960 Somali Army forces was established. Somali national forces were divided into three:

1. Somali army forces
2. Somali air forces
3. Somali navy forces

After independence, the Darawish merged with the Somaliland scouts of the former National Army(SNA), The New Military's first Commander was Colonel Daud Abdullahi Hersi, Consequently, the Somali Gender merie officers were trained in Britain, Egypt and Italy, the force was expanded and modernized with the Assistance of Soviet and Cuban advisors, the library of congress writes that in 1962 the Soviet Union agreed to grant US$ 32 millions loan to modernize the Somali Army and expand it to 14,000 personnel, Moscow later increased the amount to us$ 55 millions, the Soviet union, seeking to counter united states influence in the Horn of Africa, made an unconditional loan and fixed a generous twenty -:- year repayment schedule.



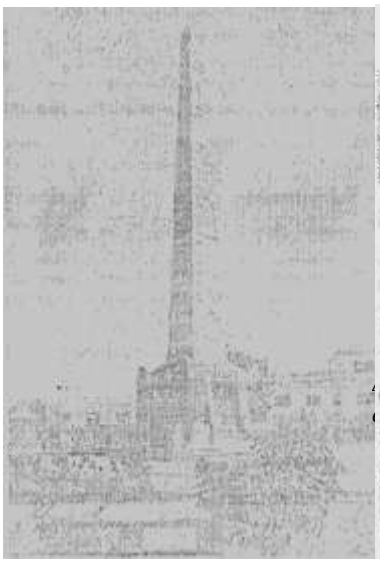
The Army was tasked in 1964 when the conflict with Ethiopia over the Somali inhabited Ogaden erupted into warfare, on 16 june 1963, the Somali guerrillas started an insurgency at Hodayo, in eastern Ethiopia, a watering place with of warder after Ethiopian Emperior Haile Selassie rejected their demand for Self - government in the Ogaden.

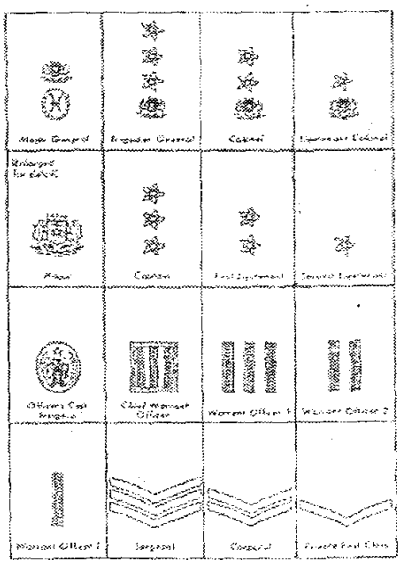
However in January 1964, after Ethiopia sent reinforcement to the Ogaden, Somali forces launched ground and air attacked across the border and started providing assistance to the guerrillas the Ethiopian Airforce responded with punitive strikes across its southwestern frontier against feerfeer, Northeast of Beledweyne and Galkacyo, on 6 match 1964, Somalia and Ethiopia agreed to

b)

ceasefire, at the end of the month, the two side, signed an accord in Khartoum, Sudan agreed to withdraw their troops from the border, cease hostile propaganda and start negotiations. The assassination of Somali's second president, Abdirashid Ali Sharmarke, the military staged coup on 21 October 1969 (the day after Sharmarke's funeral) and took over office, major General Mohamed Siad Barre, who had succeeded Hersi as chief of Army in 1965, was installed as president of supreme revolutionary council (SRC). The new government of Somalia, the country was renamed the Somali democratic republic, and Barre became the spokesman and leader of the new supreme revolution council(SRC) in July, 1976 the international institute for strategic studies estimated the army consisted of 22,000 peronnel, 6 tank battalion, 9 mechanized infantry battalions, 5 infantry battalions, 2 commando battalions and 11 artillery battalions (5 anti .; aircraft), two hundred to have been' delivered, three divisions (the 21 st , 54 and 60th) were formed and later took part in the Ogaden war.

Under the leadership of General Abdullahi Mohamed Fadil, Abdul1ahi Ahmed Erro and other senior Somali military officials were mandated by Barre's government in 1977 with formulating a national strategy in preparation for the Ogaden campaign in Ethiopia.
At the start of the attack, the Somali National Army SNA consisted of 35,000 soldiers and was vastly outnumbered by the Ethiopian forces, the Somali National Army seized the Godey Fronton July 24, 1977, after the SNA's 60th division brigades defeated the 4th Ethiopian infantry division, Godey's capture allowed the Somali side to consolidate its hold on the Ogaden concentrate its forces and advance further to other regions of Ethiopia, followed by almost the entire communist world siding with the latter, the soviets halted their previous supplies to Barre's regime and increased the distribution of aid, weapons and training to Ethiopia's newly communist Derg regime, General Vasily Ivonovich Petrov was assigned to restructive the Ethiopian Army, the soviets also brought in around, 15,000 Cuban troops to assist the Ethiopian military, by 1978, the Somali forces were pushed out of most of the Ogaden.





Work to do

1. **When the Somali army force was founded?**
2. **Identify the different types of the Somali national army forces?**
3. **Discuss the wars and between Somali and Ethiopia During 1964-1977?**

UNIT 6
HUMAN RIGHTS
(SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS)

By the end of the lesson, the learner should be able to:

a)Recognize social rights to every one b)Recognize cultural rights to every person.
c)Appreciate values of social and cultural rights to every person.
d)Evaluate social and cultural rights in the school and the community which the student lives in.

Lesson 1: Human Rights (Social & Cultural Rights)

In the grade five and grade ten, you learned the topics civil and political and economical rights.

In this lesson, you will learn the topic social and cultural rights. For every person has, social and cultural rights. These rights should be respected.

Social rights include:

1. Rights to social security
2. Right to rest and leisure
3. Right adequate living standard (health, food, housing, etc.)
4. Right to education

Cultural rights include:

1. Right to participate in the cultural life of community

Social and cultural rights keeping are very important for the stability, unity and development of every community.

Most disorders and conflicts throughout the world are based on injustice and violation of the social and cultural rights.

Wisdoms / Proverbs

Human rights start with recognizing the importonce of every individual.

Peace starts from fostering friendship with others.

Respect for other people is the essence of human rights.

Activity

1. Write a short report about situations of the social and cultural rights in Somalia?
2. Discuss position of Islam on keeping social and cultural rights.

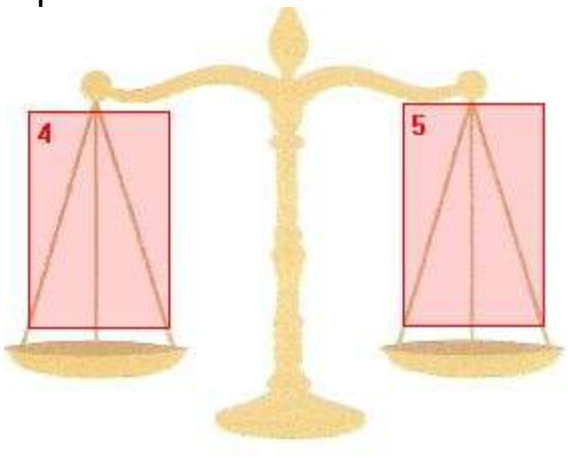
UNIT 7 JUSTICE

By the end of the lesson, the learner should be able to:

a. Define "justice"
b. Count types of justice
c. Appreciate value of justice
d. Give reason to importance of justice to peace and unity.
e. Give evidences from the Holy Quran and Hadith which affirm justice.

Lesson 3: Justice

Justice can be defined as the legal system used to punish people who have committed crimes. It can also be defined as the fair treatment of people.



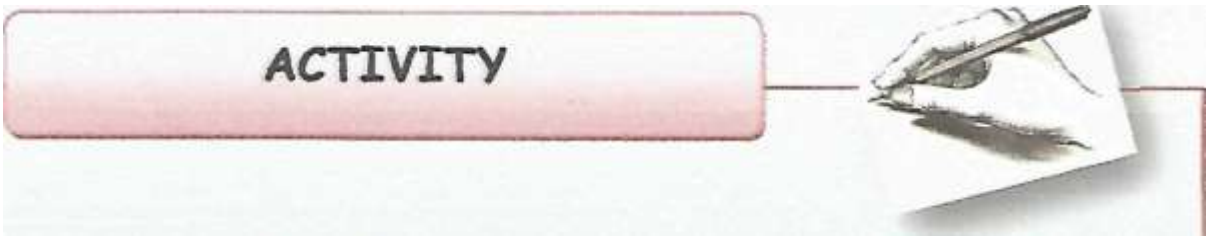
The person who is just is fair, impartial, unbiased, rightful, honest and fair-minded. For example, the prosecutor and defendant are equal in a court of law.

Rights of people should be respected equally, regardless their age, sex, ethnic, tribe, religion, property, physical ability and color.
Justice is very important for every nation and community in the all aspects of life. For instance, without justice, people cannot share equally their resources.
Justice builds moral of the person, while injustice destroys moral of the person. The person should know that the other people like justice as he likes it.

Wisdoms & Proverbs

Knowledge which is divorced from justice may be called cunning rather than wisdom.

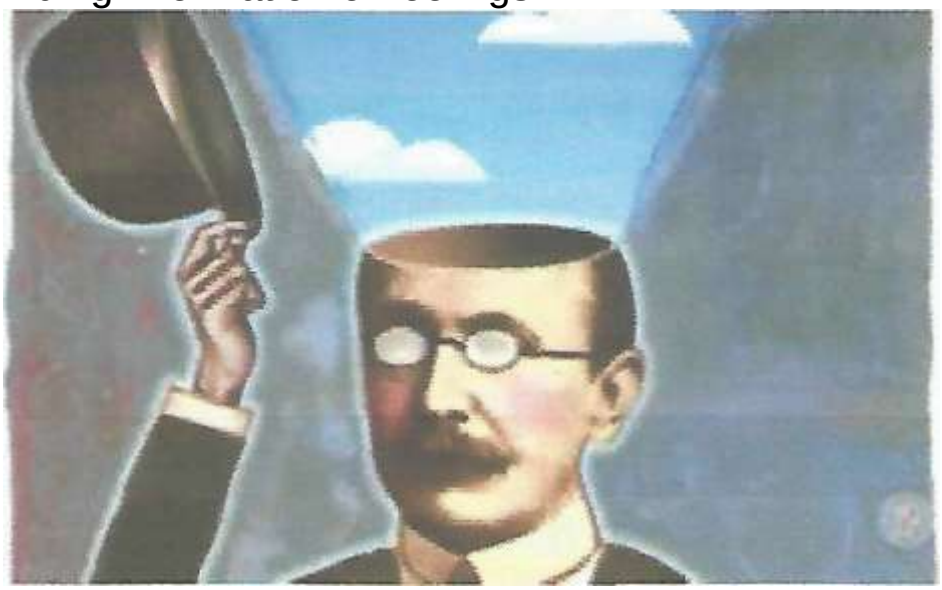
Justice delayed is justice denied



1. Tell 3 characters of the Justice person.
2. Write a Somali wisdom or proverb that related to justice apart from that mentioned in the lesson.

Lesson 2: Openness

Openness can be defined as the quality of being honest and not hiding information or feelings.

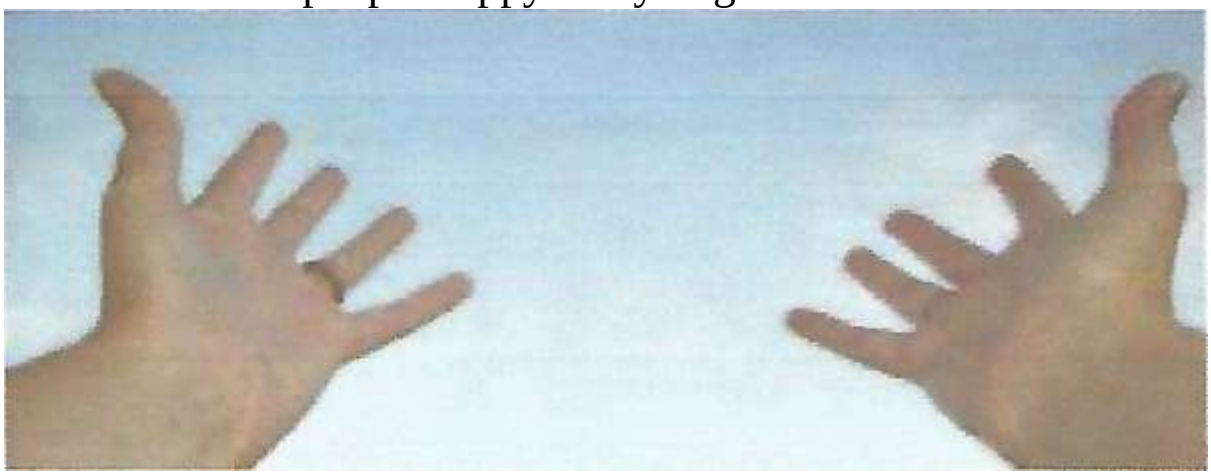


The open person is always open with the others. He is able to think about, accept or listen to different ideas or people.

These are some of the open person's characters: initiative, flexibility and brave. The open person likes to meet new faces of people and things in his daily life.

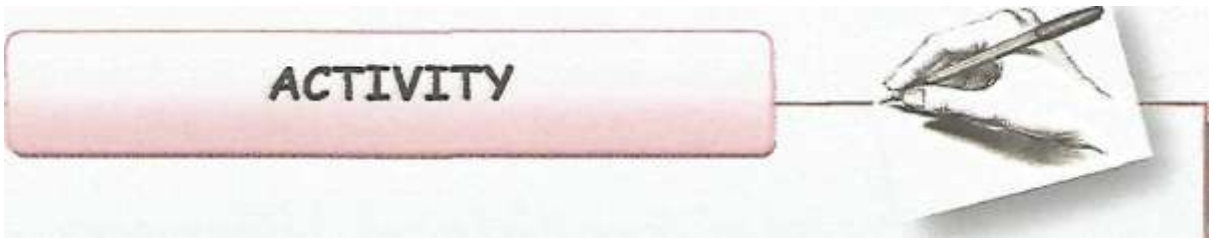
Sometimes, openness is called transparency, especially at the fields of science, engineering and commerce. However, openness is well-known in the fields of the social activities.

Openness is always very important. Being a cheerful person makes the other people happy and you gain more friends.



Remember this wisdom "you cannot enter an open door, but you can enter a cheerful face."

The man who listens is the one who understands.
To profit from good advice requires more wisdom than to give it
The great ocean is able to accommodate hundreds of rivers while the great man is able to accommodate thousands of different views.



1. Write 3 characters of the open or cheerful person.
2, Write a Somali wisdom or proverb that related to openness apart from the wisdom mentioned in this lesson.

UNIT 8
PUBLIC INTEREST

By end of the lesson, the learner should be able to:

a) Understand the meaning of "public interest"

b) Classify types of public interest

c) Appreciate value of public interest

D) Recognize importance of keeping public interest

c) Compare between public interest and personal interest.

Lesson 4: Public Interest

Public interest is to share the same aims to help people in general. Personal interest is the opposite of the public interest. Public interest organizations aim is to help people rather than to make profit.

People of a country or specific community have public interest. They share schools, hospitals, streets, public transport and governmental institutions involved in social services. *All* the above mentioned things are commonly shared by the people, not for specific individuals, tribes or families. Therefore, people should protect them and benefit from them equally.

<u>Advantages of Public Interest</u>

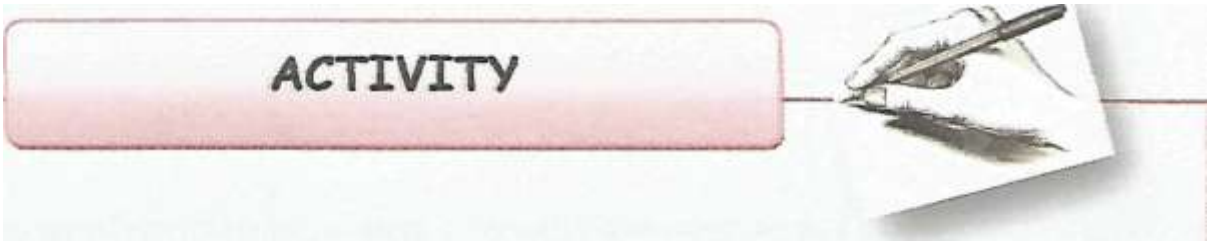
1. The person who improves public interest is known as national/native by the community.
2. The person who is interested in his own interest rather than the public interest is known as narrow- minded by the community.
3. When we serve for the public interest, we become a developed and united nation.
4. When we work together for the public interest, everybody gets his rights.
5. The only way that everybody gets his rights is to serve, first, for the public interest.

The person should know the difference between public interest and personal interest. Also, he should know that the public interest is commonly owned by the nation as a whole. Your

personal interest is part of the public interest. If you develop the public interest, you develop your personal interest. On other hand, if you lose the public interest, you lose your personal interest.
Remember this wisdom "Those who have common interest, are the same people."

Wisdoms and Proverbs

Personal life is in the public interest. Public before private country before family The public interest depends on private virtue.



1. Tell 2 advantages of public interest.
2. Why do we focus on public interest?

UNIT 9

DISCIPLINE IN SPEECH

By the end of the lesson, the learner should be able to:

a. Understand the meaning of "discipline in speech".

b. Identify types of discipline in speech.

c. Appreciate value of discipline in speech.

Discipline in Speech

The person should be disciplined in speech. It is type of inner peace. People are different in the way they speak. Some people are disciplined in their speech. Others are undisciplined in their speech.

The person who is disciplined in speech is respectable in community. The person who is undisciplined in speech is not respectable in the community.

Our Prophet Mohammad (PBUH) Said, "Who Believes In Allah And The Judgment Day, Should Say Good Or Keep Silent."

Desirable types of the discipline in speech include:

1. Greeting
2. Gratitude words or expressions
3. Words of wisdom
4. Encouragement words to support the vulnerable people
5. Encouragement of peace and every positive attitude for the interest of community

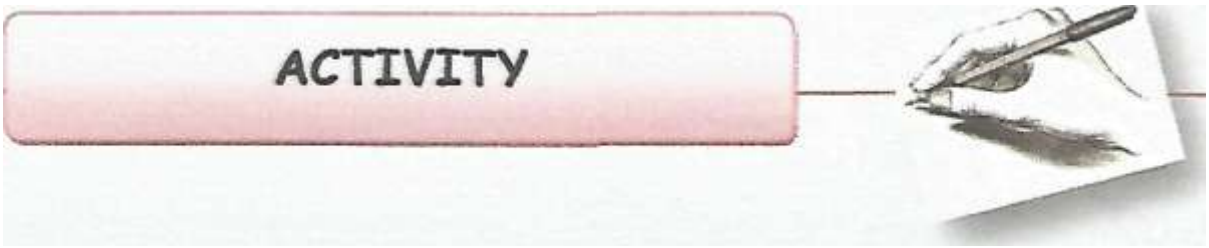
Undesirable types of the discipline in speech include;

1. Imprecation
2. Cursing
3. Detraction
4. Shouting
5. Calling of insulting names

Wisdoms & Proverbs

Self-respect is the fruit of discipline; the sense of dignity grows with the ability to say no to oneself.
Never be in a hurry; do everything quietly and in a calm spirit
Do not lose your inner peace for anything whatsoever, even if your whole world seems upset.

ACTIVITY



Tell the relation between peace and discipline in speech,