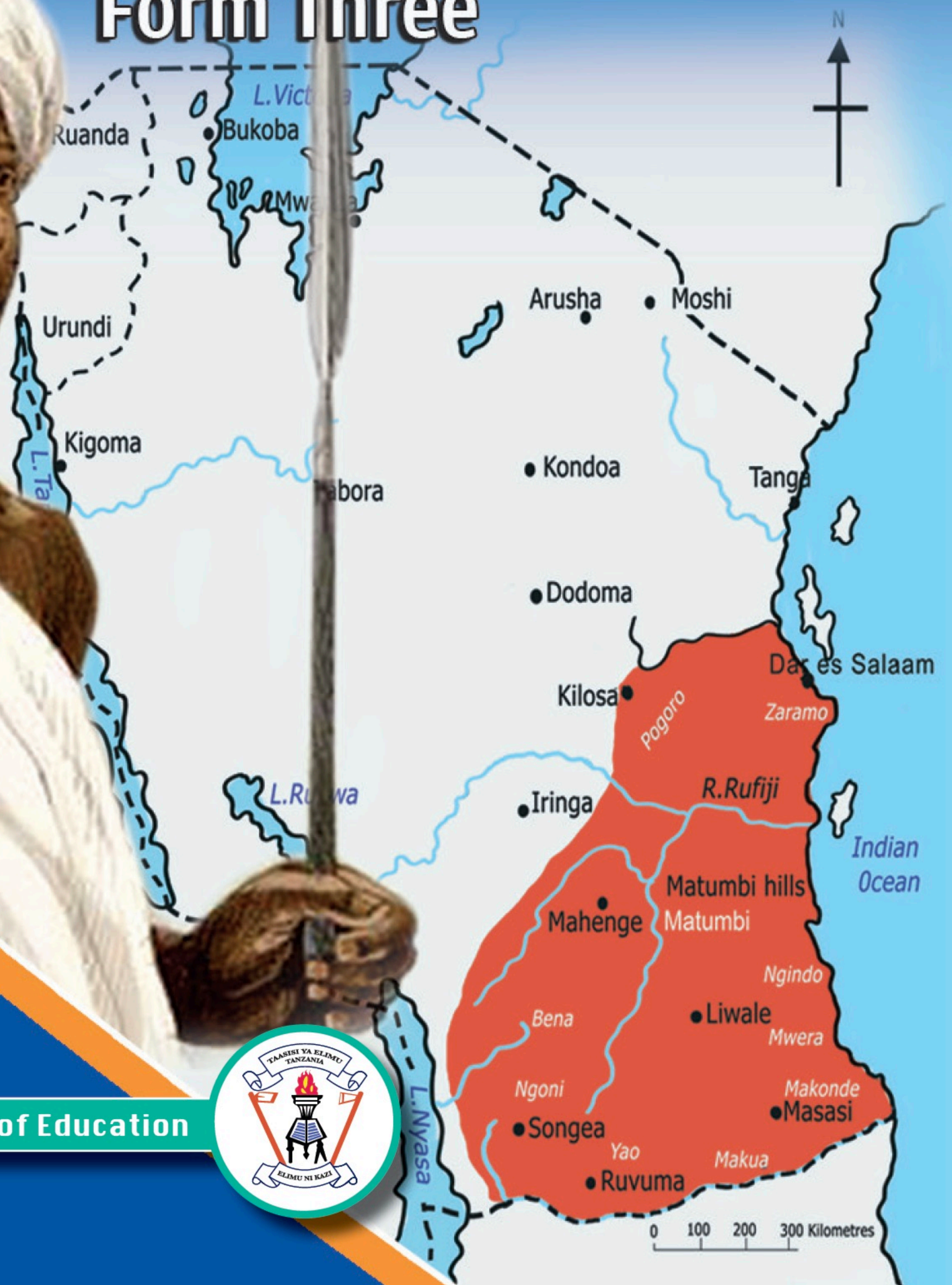


# History

## for Secondary Schools

### Student's Book Form Three



Tanzania Institute of Education





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# History

## for Secondary Schools

### Student's Book

### Form Three



Tanzania Institute of Education

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## Acronyms and abbreviations

AETC	African and Eastern Trading Corporation
BBWA	Bank of British West Africa
BSACO	British South African Company
CMS	Church Missionary Society
ECB	East Africa Currency Board
GEAB	German East Africa Bank
GEACO	German East Africa Company
IBEACO	Imperial British East Africa Company
KAR	King's African Rifles
LMS	London Missionary Society
RNC	Royal Niger Company
SB	Standard Bank
SCIO	<i>Societe Commerciale de l'Afrique Occidentale</i>
SILABU	Sisal Labour Bureau
STDs	Sexually Transmitted Diseases
USA	United States of America



UAC	United African Company
UMHK	<i>Union Miniere du Haut-Katanga</i>
VEO	Village Executive Officer
WEO	Ward Executive Officer
WNLA	Witwatersrand Native Labour Association

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Dr Aneth A. Komba

Director General

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## Preface

This textbook, *History for Secondary Schools*, is written specifically for the Form Three students in the United Republic of Tanzania. It is prepared in accordance with the 2005 History Syllabus for Secondary Schools, Form1-IV, issued by the then Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.

The book consists of five chapters, namely Scramble for and partition of Africa, Establishment of colonial rule in Africa, Establishment of colonial administrative systems, The colonial economy and Colonial social services. Each chapter contains illustrations, activities and exercises. You are encouraged to do all the activities and exercises, as well as other assignments provided by your teacher. Doing so will promote the development of the intended competences.

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# Chapter One

## Scramble for and partition of Africa

### Introduction

*In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, many European nations suffered a number of problems which resulted from the industrial revolution. The problems made Europeans rush to Africa and partition the continent among themselves. In this chapter, you will learn about the scramble for and partition of Africa, the causes of the scramble for and partition of Africa and the areas in Africa which experienced intensive scramble. You will also learn about the Berlin Conference, the scramble for and partition of East Africa and the effects of the scramble for and partition of Africa on the continent. The competences developed will enable you to safeguard our political, socio-cultural and economic independence from external invasion.*



### Ask yourself the following questions:

1. Why did Europeans develop interest in Africa from the late 19<sup>th</sup> century and not before?
2. Why did they compete among themselves for Africa?

By the last quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, many European nations such as Britain, Germany, Belgium, France and Italy had reached an advanced stage of capitalism, that is, monopoly capitalism. Monopoly capitalism emerged as a result of contradictions within industrial capitalism which were caused by political, social, economic and technological advancement. The changes had various effects such as overproduction in the industrial sector, inadequate industrial raw materials and markets for selling industrial commodities. Other effects were inadequate areas for investing excess capital and inadequate areas which could absorb the excess population in Europe. The European capitalist powers acquired overseas colonies



in Africa and elsewhere to solve such problems. The Europeans believed that land and labour could be obtained cheaply in Africa. This belief partly influenced the European nations to develop interest in Africa during the last quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. However, the nations did not come directly to Africa. They were preceded by three groups of colonial agents, namely explorers, missionaries and traders. They came to safeguard the interests of the European capitalist nations. The work they did in Africa led to stiff competition among the European nations. This competition led to the scramble for and partition of Africa.

### Scramble for and partition of Africa

The term *scramble* means rushing to take something before others. The scramble for Africa means the sudden rush of European powers to annex African territories. This happened between 1880 and 1910. The word *partition* means to divide or break something into pieces. In relation to the partition of Africa, it means the division of the African continent among the European capitalist nations in the last quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

#### Activity

1.1



With the help of your teacher, debate the abolition of the slave trade in relation to the scramble for and partition of Africa in the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

### Causes of the scramble for and partition of Africa

There are various views regarding the causes of the scramble for and partition of Africa. While some scholars mention non-economic causes, others mention economic causes. However, the main causes which are objectively accepted by many historians are economic. The following were the economic factors which are considered as primary factors for the scramble for and partition of Africa.

### The industrial revolution

The scramble for colonies outside Europe was an attempt to solve some basic economic challenges that European nations were facing as a result of the industrial revolution. African territories were scrambled for and partitioned among such nations so that they could get raw materials such as cotton, coal, sisal, tea,

rubber, gold and diamonds for feeding their emerging industries in Europe. The demand for raw materials in Europe outweighed its supply, hence the need for more areas from which to obtain them. The Europeans also needed markets for their industrial products. Therefore, they had to find external markets. Africa was the continent where they could sell their industrial products such as clothes, ornaments and utensils. The Europeans also needed cheap labourers from Africa for implementing colonial projects and maximising their profit margins.

Apart from these economic factors, there were other non-economic factors which triggered the scramble for and partition of Africa. They were political, sociological and psychological factors. They included the rise of European nationalism and changes in the balance of power following the rise of new states such as Germany and Italy, and the European superiority complex.

### European nationalism and the balance of power

The scramble for and partition of Africa was related to the growth of nationalism in Europe, particularly in Germany and Italy. In the late 1860s and 1871, Italy and Germany were formed after several small states had united. The new nation-states became nationalistic and glorified their cultures. For example, the Germans announced that they had achieved the highest standards of culture in the world. They insisted that it was their duty to civilise the people of Africa whose culture was regarded as inferior. The rise of Germany as a new superpower increased tension in Europe. For example, the Franco-Prussian War of 1870/71 ended with France losing her two provinces, namely Alsace and Lorraine, to Germany. Therefore, France scrambled for colonies to compensate for her lost provinces.

### National prestige

Many European nations sought to secure colonies in Africa to increase their national prestige. For instance, Portugal and Belgium were small nations which were increasingly pressurised by the mighty powers of England and France. In this regard, such nations wanted to get colonies to elevate their national prestige. The powerful nations also wanted to get more colonies in order to maintain their status and prestige.

### The European superiority complex

Since 1859, European ideas regarding other societies and races have largely been negative and racist. Many Europeans considered themselves as the most powerful, superior and developed. Therefore, the partition of Africa was seen as part of a natural duty, that is, the strong had to colonise the weak. Many European companies and religious groups saw the colonial agenda as a civilising mission and a way of demonstrating national and racial superiority.

### The Evangelical factor

Evangelical Christians emphasised the importance of the Bible and the need for believing in Christ. For that matter, they insisted on the colonisation of Africa on evangelical grounds. Various missionary groups came to Africa for this purpose, for example the Benedictine Fathers from Germany, the White Fathers from France and the Church Missionary Society (CMS) from Britain.

The missionary groups were very active in Tanganyika, Kenya and Uganda. Each made strong appeals for their home governments to come and settle in Africa so as to facilitate the spread of Christianity. They also supplied vital information to their European governments regarding the mineral deposits as well as the agricultural and labour potential of specific parts of Africa.

### The sociological factor

Colonisation was also seen as a natural tendency for human beings to dominate other human beings, and not for economic gain. For example, the colonisation of the Sahel Desert in West Africa by the French was partly due to sociological reasons, which included a personal desire to create a French empire that extended beyond the seas and deserts.

Nevertheless, the economic factors played a greater role in the scramble for and ultimately partition of Africa in the last quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The other factors supplemented the economic ones.

#### Exercise 1.1

Relate the scramble for and partition of Africa in the 19<sup>th</sup> century to the industrial revolution, which had occurred in Europe.

## Areas that experienced intensive scramble

The scramble for and partition of Africa did not cover the whole continent. There were certain areas that were highly scrambled for by the capitalist nations due to their wealth potential and strategic importance. Such areas experienced greater competition than others. Examples include the Nile Basin, the Congo Basin and the Niger Basin. Others were East Africa, South Africa as well as the navigable rivers of Limpopo and Zambezi.

### The Nile River Basin

This area attracted great interest from such major European powers as Britain and France. This was due to the fertility of the Nile Valley and the Europeans' desire to control the River Nile from Egypt through Sudan and Ethiopia to Uganda. The conflicts involving the British and French over the control of the Nile Valley reached a climax between 1880 and 1882. Britain was forced to use military campaigns against France in order to colonise Egypt. The main reason behind the British colonisation of Egypt was that Britain wanted to control the Suez Canal, which served as a shortcut to her colonies in Asia and the Far East. The canal made it easy for ships to travel from Europe to Asia and back without passing through Africa. Furthermore, the Nile Valley was economically potential, especially in the production of cotton and barley, which were highly needed in European industries.

After losing the Suez Canal, the French planned to revenge themselves on the British. They came up with a plan to colonise other areas in the Nile Valley such as Ethiopia, Sudan and Uganda in which the River Nile flows. France, which had already colonised Chad, wanted to produce rice in the Chad Basin. Therefore, the French planned to construct a channel to drain water from the River Nile in Sudan and use it to irrigate their rice farms in the Chad Basin. When the plan leaked out, the British became furious as they could not allow the River Nile and its source in Lake Victoria to fall into the hands of the French. As a result, tension arose between France and Britain.

In 1898, Britain and France stationed their troops at Fashoda village in Sudan. However, they did not fight because France withdrew her forces. In the same year, Britain declared Sudan her colony. Uganda became a protectorate of Britain in 1894. Eventually, Britain gained full control over the River Nile Valley from Lake Victoria to Egypt.

## The Congo Basin

The Congo River is largely navigable. The Congo Basin was scrambled for by Portugal, France, Germany, Britain and King Leopold II of Belgium. Each of these capitalist nations wanted to use the river to get into the interior of Africa, because, by that time, there were neither roads nor railways linking the coastal and interior parts of Africa. In that case, the major rivers acted as the gateways to the interior of the African continent. Major rivers were used by the colonial administrators and white settlers to penetrate further inland. The Congo Basin was also economically strategic to the European powers. The river made it easy for the Europeans to send cargoes from Europe to different parts of Central Africa as well as raw materials from the interior to the coast.

Apart from the navigation potential of the basin the European nations also wanted to exploit the natural resources around the basin, including fertile land, ivory, rubber, copper, timber and diamond. Moreover, each European nation wanted to use the mouth of the River Congo to carry out military operations to conquer the interior of Africa. Although Congo was eventually given to King Leopold II of Belgium, the River Congo was declared a free navigable zone for all the European powers.

## The Niger River Basin

This area was mainly scrambled for by British, German and French traders. The British were upset by the French who showed great interest in the Niger Delta. They did not want to see the tactics employed by the French agent known as Pierre Savorgnan de Brazza in the Congo Basin being used in the Niger Basin. The Germans developed interest in the area because Otto von Bismarck, their chancellor, had just realised the importance of having colonies. By 1883, the British had begun to take serious measures against the ambitions of the French. It was Sir George Goldie who succeeded in securing the whole of the River Niger Basin for Britain after forming the Royal Niger Company. He also managed to turn the Gold Coast (Ghana) and Nigeria into British protectorates, while Germany occupied Togo. The French occupied Dahomey (Benin) and Upper Volta (Burkina Faso). Therefore, it is clear that the three powers scrambled for controlling the River Niger Basin for four major reasons. First, they wanted to exploit palm oil, which was highly needed for making oil lubricants for operating



machines. Second, the River Niger was a gateway to Northern Nigeria and other parts of the West African interior. Third, they wanted to use the mouth of the River Niger as their military base, and finally, they wanted to trade with the inland societies of West Africa.

### The Zambezi River Basin

The Zambezi River Basin was scrambled for by the British and the Portuguese. The Portuguese had already established themselves in Angola and Mozambique. When the scramble for Africa started in the 1880s, the Portuguese developed new ambitions of connecting the whole of South-Central Africa, Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) and Nyasaland (Malawi) Angola and Mozambique.

Cecil Rhodes and his companions, Charles Rudd, François Coillard and Robert Moffat, had already signed treaties with some African chiefs in these areas in the name of the British South Africa Company. The interests of the British clashed with those of the Portuguese. The British competed with the Portuguese for control of the River Zambezi Basin for several reasons:

- (a) The British wanted to use the River Zambezi as a gateway to the interior of Southern Africa;
- (b) They also wanted to promote their commercial activities in the area;
- (c) The Zambezi Valley was suitable for cotton production; cotton was badly needed by English textile industries in Lancashire; and
- (d) The British wanted to use the Zambezi Valley as their military base. The scramble for the Zambezi River Basin was resolved through the Anglo-Portuguese Agreement of 1891.

### South Africa

The Dutch and the British were highly interested in the Cape coast of South Africa, which was known as the Cape of Good Hope. The struggle to occupy the Cape was influenced by the Boer trek of the 1830s and 1840s. The Boers had settled at the Cape since 1652. However, between the 1780s and 1840s,

the British began to show a great interest in colonising the Cape because they wanted to make the Cape their military base for defending their interests in India. Moreover, the Cape had a good natural harbour; thus, they wanted to use it as a gateway to the interior of the northern parts of the whole of Southern Africa. The British also wanted to promote trade by sending British cargoes to the interior of the whole region of Southern Africa. From the 1860s onwards, the British wanted to control the diamond and gold mines discovered by the Boers in the Transvaal and Orange Free states. This discovery led to the emergence of two Anglo-Boer wars. The first war took place between 1880 and 1881, and the second did so between 1899 and 1902. The wars between the Boers and the British intensified the scramble for South Africa.

### East Africa

Like other parts of Africa, East Africa was another area that the colonialists competed for because of its plentiful natural resources, commercial activities, and its accessibility to the sea. For example, the British who were controlling Egypt, scrambled for East Africa fearing that, if the Germans occupied Uganda, they would divert the waters of the River Nile, whose source is Lake Victoria and turn Egypt into a desert.

The British also wanted to control the East African trade using Kenya and Zanzibar. At the same time, the Germans also wanted to take more areas in East Africa. Therefore, the German East Africa Company and the Imperial British East Africa Company were already operating along the East African coast and its surroundings. For instance, the German East Africa Company sent Carl Peters to sign treaties with Kabaka Mwanga of Buganda in 1889. This resulted in clashes between the Germans and the British, because the two powers wanted to safeguard their commercial interests through their companies. Furthermore, both the British and the Germans wanted to stop the Belgians from controlling the areas from the East African coast to the Congo Basin from 1878 to 1889. For that reason, the British and Germans quickly rushed to East Africa to protect the areas from falling into the hands of King Leopold II of Belgium. Figure 1.1 shows the areas that experienced intensive scramble.



Figure 1.1: Areas that experienced intensive scramble

### Activity 1.2



1. Identify the main natural resources available in your area.
2. Show how such resources can cause conflicts in the society.
3. Share the findings with your classmates in class.

## The Berlin Conference of 1884-1885

The scramble for Africa led to the Berlin Conference. The conference was an international meeting called to settle the territorial disputes of the European nations. It was held in Berlin, the capital city of Germany, from November 1884 to February 1885. It was called by Otto von Bismarck, the then Chancellor of Germany. The conference was attended by 14 powers, namely Austria-Hungary, Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Norway, Denmark and the United States of America. The USA attended it as an observer.

The treaties signed by African chiefs and the European imperialists before the conference were used as points of reference during and after the Berlin Conference. The conference was called so that Africa could be partitioned peacefully.

### Activity

**1.3**

Conduct a library study on the Berlin Conference and then answer the following questions.

- (a) Why was the Berlin Conference inevitable?
- (b) How did the partition of Africa take place?

## Objectives of the Berlin Conference

The Berlin Conference was aimed at setting the rules and guidelines which were to be followed during the partition of Africa. The rules were intended to prevent wars and misunderstandings among the imperialist powers. The conference was also used to abolish unclear claims over the occupation of world territories by the European powers. The Berlin Conference was intended to identify economically potential areas like the Niger, Nile and Congo River basins for trade and transportation purposes. The basins would be used by all the Europeans.

## Events that led to the Berlin Conference

The Berlin Conference did not happen overnight. It was associated with long-lasting conflicts among the colonial powers. The following were the events which led to the holding of the Berlin Conference:

## French and British conflicts over the occupation of Egypt

Clashes over Egypt created a new era of competition for strategic areas in Africa. The British wanted to control the Suez Canal because they were interested in the route to the Far East. The French, on the other hand, wanted the same so as to establish an East-West empire from Dakar in Senegal to the Red Sea. As a result, the tension between the two European powers had to be resolved at a meeting; otherwise, war would have broken out.

## Conflict over the Congo Basin

This conflict involved Belgium, France, Portugal and Britain. Belgium was the first to operate in Congo. The presence of King Leopold II of Belgium in Congo threatened various colonial powers, which caused an international rivalry. King Leopold II employed Henry Morton Stanley to explore Congo. Likewise, in 1879, France sent the explorer Savorgnan de Brazza, who signed several treaties with African rulers, to the Northern bank of the River Congo. The British and the Portuguese, however, were not happy with the treaties signed by de Brazza. Portugal, on the other hand, declared control over the mouth of the River Congo. This situation angered France and Germany and increased the possibility of the occurrence of war among the European capitalist nations.

## French and British conflict over the Niger Valley

This conflict involved France and Britain over the control of West Africa. In 1879, France began constructing the railway from Dakar to join Senegal and the Niger Valley to widen the market control in West Africa, Sahelian and Savanna regions. France also occupied the Porto-Novo in 1882, something which disturbed Britain's monopoly of the West African coastline (Gold Coast and Nigeria). The conflict over West Africa made Chancellor Bismarck proclaim German control over Togo, Cameroon and South-West Africa. All these rivalries indicated that war might breakout. Therefore, to prevent war from breaking out, Bismarck, the then Chancellor of Germany, called an international conference of all the capitalist powers so as to set the rules which the powers would follow while partitioning Africa.



## Resolutions of the Berlin Conference

During the conference, the imperialist powers agreed on the following resolutions.

### Effective occupation

Any European power claiming ownership over a certain area in Africa had to prove its ability to control the area by establishing colonial administrative systems. Effective occupation also meant having enough military and political power to control the subjects and protect all the Europeans in the area.

### Freedom of navigation

The Congo River Basin and the Niger River Basin became free to all European powers for trade and navigation purposes. However, the administrative power of the Congo River Basin was left to King Leopold II and the River Niger Basin was under Britain.

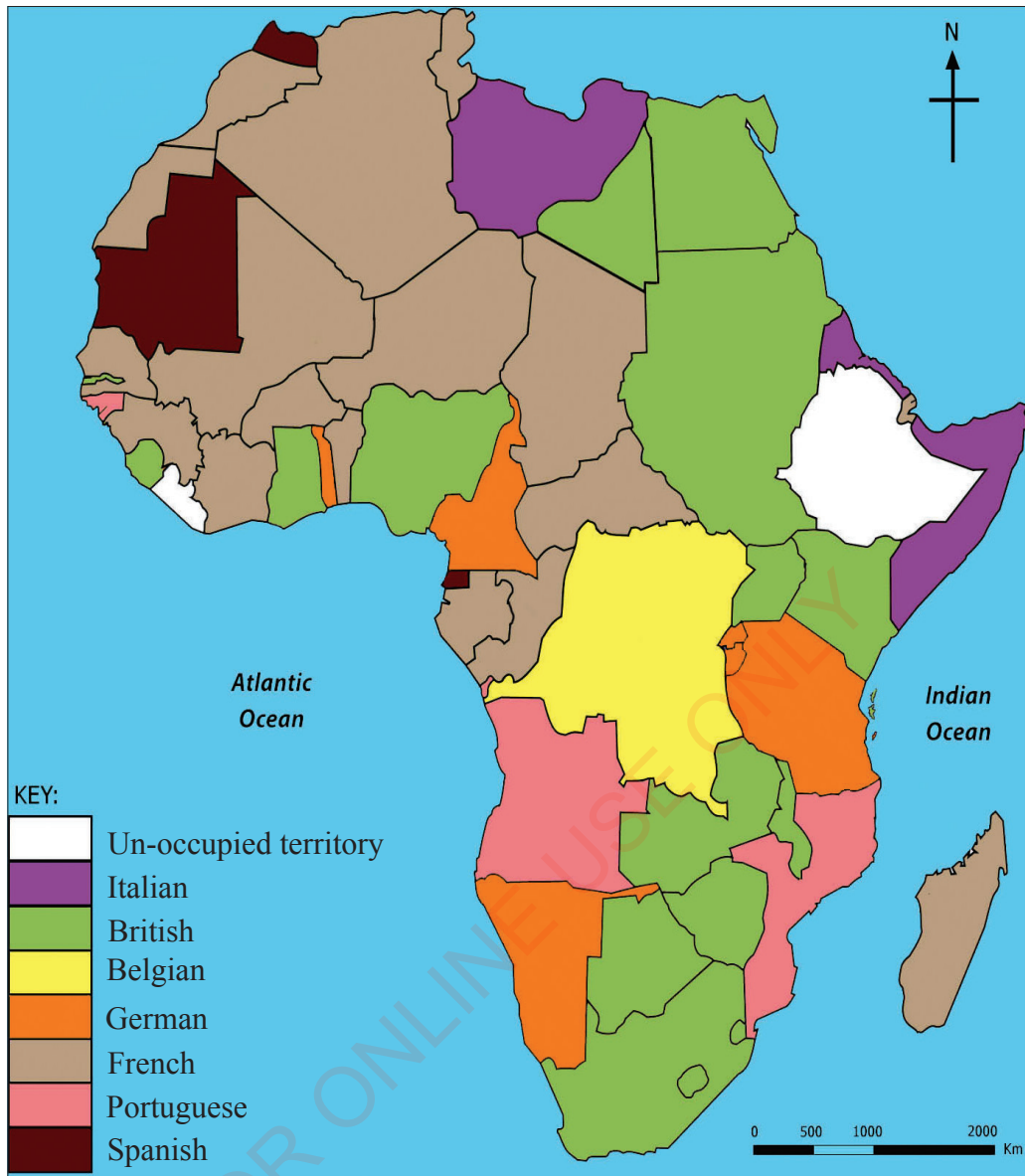
### Commitment to abolish slavery and the slave trade

The conference decided that each European power that attended it had to abolish slavery and the slave trade in her territory. The missionaries, traders and other agents of colonialism were allowed to have free access to the interior of Africa so that they could abolish the slave trade.

### Notification

In the process of occupation, each power that possessed a colony was supposed to notify the other European powers of her possession to avoid conflicts. There was also a clear resolution on respecting the treaties signed. Thus, it was made mandatory for all the European powers to respect the treaties signed by the colonial agents. In case of any misunderstandings relating to territorial occupation, they were to be resolved peacefully.

The Berlin Conference emphasised unity and confidentiality among the European powers in order to isolate Africans. In case of any African resistance, no European power was to side with Africans. Figure 1.2 shows the colonial possessions after the partitioning of the African continent among the European powers.



**Figure 1.2:** European colonial possessions after the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885

### Exercise 1.2

Why did some areas in Africa attract Europeans' attention more than others?

## Evaluation of the resolutions of the Berlin Conference

Most of the resolutions were implemented. To a greater extent, the resolutions helped to resolve conflicts among the European powers. However, some resolutions were not fully implemented, including the abolition of slavery and the slave trade. Contrary to the agreement, the slave trade still continued in some African areas up to the 1920s.

The European powers failed to enforce rules and guidelines which could make each power remain committed to the agreements reached. For example, the River Congo and the River Niger never became free to all European powers. France occupied the northern part of the River Congo and King Leopold II of Belgium occupied the southern part of it and introduced tariffs in the areas. They did not allow free commercial shipping in the areas unless the European powers paid custom duties. Under these circumstances, the Congo River Basin never became a free trade zone. The same was the case for the Niger River Basin when Britain occupied the region. Similarly, the Europeans did not consider the traditional, cultural and linguistic boundaries in partitioning the African continent. Therefore, people belonging to the same socio-cultural groups fell under different European powers. As a result, it was very difficult to administer these areas.

## Consequences of the Berlin Conference for Europeans and Africans

The Berlin Conference had several consequences for both European nations and Africans. The conference facilitated peaceful acquisition of colonies among the colonialists. The imperialist powers secured areas from which they could obtain markets, raw materials, cheap labour, and areas for settlement and investment. Therefore, the conference prevented the eruption of war among the European imperialist powers.

The conference accelerated the influx of many European trading companies into Africa. The companies came to work in the colonies on behalf of their mother countries. Examples of the chartered companies which came to Africa were the Royal Niger Company (RNC) under George Goldie, the Imperial British East Africa Company (IBEACO) under William Mackinnon, the British South Africa Company (BSAC) under Cecil Rhodes and the German East Africa Company (GEACO) under Carl Peters.

Moreover, the Berlin Conference led to the creation of African modern states. Before the Berlin Conference, there were no nation-states like the ones we have in modern Africa. The conference drew boundaries which created new states such as the Gold Coast (Ghana), Nigeria, Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), Northern

Rhodesia (Zambia), Nyasaland (Malawi) and Congo. Most of the nation-states that we have in Africa today originated from the Berlin Conference. The conference increased the speed of abolishing the slave trade on the continent by introducing an article which insisted on the abolition of slavery and the slave trade. However, on passing this resolution, the signatory powers failed to come up with an action plan showing how the goal could be achieved. As a result, both European and Arab merchants continued to transport slaves from the continent secretly.

### Weaknesses of the Berlin Conference

The Berlin Conference had certain weaknesses. The conference did not partition Africa along exact boundary lines. It ended up defining spheres of influence near the coast, while at the same time leaving a huge area in the interior unallocated. The interior areas that were not allocated to any power caused further conflicts over their occupation. As a result, treaties such as the delimitation of (1886) and Heligoland of (1890) were later signed to settle the disputes between the Germans and the British over unoccupied areas.

The Berlin Conference was called in Europe without paying attention to the existing kingdoms and local administration in Africa. As a result, there were intense resistance against the Europeans and many wars of resistance everywhere in Africa during the imposition of colonial rule. The wars included the resistance by King Samori Toure, Chief Mkwawa, King Jaja of Opobo and Chief Lobengula.

### Scramble for and partition of East Africa

The scramble for East Africa was largely influenced by the work of the agents of colonialism. A good example was Carl Peters, the German trader and explorer who signed treaties with some African chiefs. During the scramble, Otto Von Bismarck started to recognise the treaties. However, Britain was not comfortable with Germany's motives. Confrontations began, but were later resolved through two treaties, namely the First Anglo-German Agreement or the Delimitation Treaty of 1886 and the Second Anglo-German Agreement or the Heligoland Treaty of 1890.

#### The First Anglo-German Agreement (Delimitation Treaty) of 1886

This agreement involved Britain, Germany and the Sultan of Zanzibar. The treaty divided East Africa into German and British spheres of influence. The Delimitation Treaty of 1886 was the result of Carl Peters' claim over all the areas which he had visited and over which he had signed treaties with the local chiefs. According to him, such areas belonged to Germany. However, the Germans' recognition of Carl Peter's claims threatened the British and the Sultan of Zanzibar. As a result,

the British and German companies interfered with each other in their spheres of influence in East Africa. To solve these misunderstandings, they signed a peaceful agreement. The following were the terms of the First Anglo-German Agreement of 1886.

The Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba and 10 miles along the East African coastal strip to the hinterland were given to the Sultan of Zanzibar. Similarly, the northern half (present-day Kenya) became a British sphere of influence and the southern half (German East Africa) became a German sphere of influence. Likewise, Germany was given the Witu area in Kenya. Figure 1.3 shows how East Africa was partitioned after the First Anglo-German Agreement of 1886.



**Figure 1.3:** East Africa after the First Anglo-German Agreement of 1886



## The Second Anglo-German Agreement (Heligoland Treaty) of 1890

The Heligoland Treaty was signed by Britain and Germany. The First Anglo-German Agreement did not resolve some of the conflicts, particularly the conflict over the occupation of Uganda. The German East Africa Company began to compete with the Imperial British East Africa Company over Uganda. They competed for Uganda for its fertile land and big population. Uganda was also potential because it is one of the sources of the River Nile. The treaty signed by Carl Peters and Kabaka Mwanga also led to the signing of the Heligoland Treaty. The following were the terms of the Heligoland Treaty of 1890.

- (a) Germany recognised Uganda and Kenya as British spheres of influence;
- (b) Germany recognised Zanzibar and the rest of the Sultan's dominion as a British protectorate;
- (c) Germany lost Witu, which came to be under the British. In compensation for Witu, Germany was given an island in the North Sea (Heligoland) so that it could use it as a military base;
- (d) Germany continued to control German East Africa (Tanganyika and the kingdoms of Urundi and Ruanda) and acquired ten miles of the coastal strip from the Sultan of Zanzibar by buying the area. As compensation, Sultan Ally bin Sultan was given 200,000 German crowns. Germany also controlled the ports of Tanga, Bagamoyo, Dar es Salaam, Kilwa and Mikindani, and other parts of German East Africa; and
- (e) The western boundaries separating German East Africa, Uganda and Kenya were defined. Figure 1.4 shows how East Africa was partitioned after the Second Anglo-German Agreement of 1890.



After the Second Anglo-German Treaty of 1890, boundaries were fixed in south-western Uganda in 1891. Kenya and Uganda were under Britain. Germany controlled Tanganyika, Ruanda and Urundi as a German East African territory. Therefore, the scramble for and partition of Africa led to the establishment of colonies on the continent in the last quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. By 1914, the entire African continent, except for Ethiopia and Liberia, had been clearly partitioned and effectively occupied by the European nations.

**Exercise 1.3**

With examples, give your views on the causes of the current socio-political and economic conflicts in some African countries.

**Effects of the scramble for and partition of Africa**

The scramble for and partition of Africa had certain economic, political and social effects on Africa. The following are some of those effects.

- (a) It led to the influx of capitalist investments in Africa. This happened in the Niger Basin, the Congo Basin and South Africa. The situation was facilitated by the colonial agents who provided information to the Europeans that Africa was a potential continent for making the investments. This resulted in misunderstandings and wars among Africans who became victims of the whole process.
- (b) Africans lost their lives and the continent lost crucial workforce that could be used for social and material production for the benefit of their own societies.
- (c) African societies were colonised by the Western European powers. All the regions that were scrambled for were eventually occupied by various European capitalist nations. African societies lost their political freedom, cultures, dignity and sovereignty.
- (d) In the course of dividing the continent, the Europeans did not consider the social relationships of the people living in certain areas. Many African ethnic groups that used to share common territories were divided and ruled by two or three different colonial masters. Examples of such societies include the Makonde of Tanzania and those of Mozambique, the Maasai of Tanzania and those of Kenya, the Luo of Tanzania and those of Kenya, the Anyi of Ghana and those of Ivory Coast, and the Somali of Ethiopia, Somalia and Kenya. This situation has led to post-colonial border disputes, including those between Kenya and Somalia and Somalia and Ethiopia.
- (e) Africans did not welcome the colonialists with open arms. As a result, wars were witnessed throughout the continent as Africans resisted the colonial invasion, exploitation and oppression. This was because the colonialists' intention was to take over the continent and exploit Africans' wealth. Therefore, the wars of resistance like those of the Hehe of 1891-1896, the

Nandi of 1895-1905, the Majimaji war of 1905-1907 and the Shona-Ndebele war of 1896-1897 were witnessed in Africa.

- (f) The Berlin Conference did not resolve all the conflicts and quarrels among the Europeans. Some of the conflicts continued and some of them were resolved through bilateral diplomatic agreements. A good example was the conflict between Britain and France at Fashoda in 1898.

### Revision exercise 1

1. Explain the causes of the scramble for and partition of Africa.
2. Assess the effects of the scramble for and partition of Africa.
3. Analyse the events that led to the Berlin Conference of 1884 and 1885.
4. With the aid of a sketch map, show the various areas in Africa where the capitalist nations had shown interest before 1884.
5. With examples, show how the European capitalist nations scrambled for Africa.
6. Examine the role of the early European agents of colonialism during the scramble for and partition of Africa.
7. How and why did Egypt and the Nile Valley play a significant role in the partition of Africa.
8. Explain the consequences of the Anglo-German Agreements of 1886 and 1890.
9. With examples, give your views on the legacy of the Berlin Conference in relation to the socio-economic and political set-up of Africa today.

## Chapter Two

# Establishment of the colonial rule in Africa

### Introduction

*After the European nations had partitioned the African continent, they needed to put Africans under their domination so as to rule them. However, Africans did not accept the colonial penetration and therefore, they fought to defend their sovereignty, humanity and dignity. In this chapter, you will learn how the colonialists established themselves in Africa and how Africans reacted to the imposition of colonial rule on them. Similarly, you will learn about the factors that determined the nature of African reaction and reasons for their defeat. The competences developed will enable you to honour our freedom fighters for their contribution to the independence of African countries.*

### The concept of colonialism

Colonialism refers to the domination of a weak nation by a powerful one socially, politically and economically. In Africa, colonialism involved the extension of foreign domination to African countries between the 1800s and 1980s. During this time, the colonialists controlled Africa by establishing European settlements and institutions, which facilitated the exploitation of African resources. Colonialism marked the end of indigenous political freedom as African societies lost their independence, sovereignty and control over their own political, social and economic activities. As noted in Chapter One, most African societies were colonised by the European capitalist nations after the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885, with the exception of Ethiopia and Liberia.

In most parts of Africa, colonial rule started with company administration. Examples of the companies that operated in Africa were the Imperial British East Africa Company (IBEACO), which ruled Kenya and Uganda, and the German East Africa Company (GEACO), which ruled German East Africa, present-day



mainland Tanzania, Burundi and Rwanda. Other companies were the Royal Niger Company, which ruled Nigeria, and the British South Africa Company which ruled Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) and Nyasaland (Malawi).

### **The tactics used to establish colonial rule in Africa**

The establishment of colonial rule in Africa was not an easy process, rather a complex one. The colonialists used different techniques to make Africans accept colonial rule. The following were the main techniques used to establish colonial rule in Africa.

#### **Use of the agents of colonialism**

European colonisation of the African continent was facilitated by the early agents of colonialism, namely missionaries, explorers and traders. Most of these agents were sent by the European capitalist nations to find out more about Africa, what they considered the dark continent. They engaged in various activities, including collecting information about Africans, navigable rivers and potential mineral deposits. The missionaries spread Christianity and European culture. The traders were involved in trade with Africans. Other European missionaries acted as interpreters and advisors for traditional African rulers. For example, Reverend John Moffat of the London Missionary Society (LMS) advised Chief Lobengula to accept the British proposal that led to the colonisation of Matebeleland. They were also involved in the campaigns on the abolition of the slave trade. Dr Livingstone was one of the missionaries who campaigned for the abolition of the slave trade. He travelled to East, Central and Southern Africa in the course of campaigning against this illegitimate trade. His publications and lectures in England made Europeans have more interest in Africa.

#### **Signing of bogus treaties with African chiefs**

This was another technique used. It involved signing fake treaties between the colonial agents and African rulers. The rulers were persuaded by the agents to sign treaties of friendship or protection with the colonialists. Most of these treaties were largely based on deception. Examples include the treaties between Cecil Rhodes and Chief Lobengula of Matebeleland and that of De Brazza and Chief

Makoko of Central Africa. Another treaty was signed by Carl Peters and Chief Mangungu of Msovero (Usagara) in East Africa. In most cases, the signing of treaties was done in areas with passive resistance against colonial conquest and occupation.

### Collaboration or alliances

This technique involved making alliances between the European colonialists and some African rulers. The colonialists decided to collaborate with one African society against another society that was considered rival in order to defeat the latter and in the end colonise both. For example, the British collaborated with the Shona of Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) to defeat the Ndebele. In German East Africa, the Germans collaborated with the Bena and Sangu so as to conquer the Hehe. This method was applied in areas where there was enmity between two or more African ethnic groups. Other examples of African societies which formed alliances with Europeans include the following:

- (a) In Uganda, the British allied with Kabaka Mwanga of Buganda to defeat Mukama Kabarega of Bunyoro;
- (b) In German East Africa, especially in Kilimanjaro Region, Mangi Rindi of Moshi and Mangi Marealle of Marangu allied with the Germans to defeat Mangi Sina of Kibosho and Mangi Meli, respectively;
- (c) The British allied with the Maasai, Somalis, Sudanese and the Baganda to put the Nandi people under British colonial rule. It took the British and their allies more than eleven years to defeat the Nandi;
- (d) The French allied with King Tieba of Sikasso and Chief Ahmadou Sekou of Tukolor to defeat King Samori Toure of the Mandinka;
- (e) In West Africa, the British allied with the Fante people against the Asante Empire; and
- (f) In Central Africa, Chief Lubosi Lewanika of the Lozi Empire allied with the British against Chief Lobengula Khumalo of the Ndebele.

### Use of gunboat diplomacy or intimidation

This tactic involved using military threats and diplomacy. For example, the colonialists exposed military weapons and conducted military exercises or

publicly hanged Africans to death. The intention was to create fear among Africans. The situation threatened the Africans who intended to fight against the intruders. This method was used in areas where Africans showed some elements of resistance to colonial conquest. Examples were intimidation by British agents against King Jaja of Opobo in West Africa and the hanging of Chief Omar Bin Makunganya in German East Africa by the Germans.

### **Military conquest**

The colonialists also established their colonial rule using military conquest. This method was used in societies which showed active resistance and those which refused to form alliances with the colonialists or those which refused to sign bogus treaties. For instance, the Germans used force to make the Hehe accept colonial rule. Likewise, the British used direct attacks on the Asante to make them accept British rule. Examples of African chiefs whose empires were conquered through military conquests include the following:

- (a) Chief Mkwawa of the Hehe was attacked by the German colonialists. Mkwawa and his people fought back courageously from 1891 to 1898. owing to the long-term fight, Mkwawa's forces were finally weakened. So, Chief Mkwawa decided to shoot himself to death, rather than surrendering to the Germans;
- (b) Chief Isike of the Nyamwezi also became a victim of the German military conquests, but when he saw his army was on the verge of defeat, he blew himself and his family with gunpowder on 12<sup>th</sup> January 1893;
- (c) King Mamadou Lamine of the Soninke Empire was removed from power by the French colonialists in 1887 after sustaining a defeat at the battle of Toubakouta in present-day Gambia;
- (d) King Samori Toure of the Mandinka Empire fought a war with the French colonialists in 1891. Using the guerrilla warfare technique, he fought the French for about seven years before he was defeated in 1898. The French captured and sent him into exile in Gabon, where he died in 1900; and
- (e) In Madagascar, the French colonialists removed from power Queen Ranavalona III and her Prime Minister, Rainilaiarivony. The two leaders were sent into exile in Algeria.

**Exercise 2.1**

In a group of four, make a library or online search on the methods used by the capitalist powers today to exploit Tanzania's natural resources.

**African reaction towards the imposition of colonial rule**

The imposition of colonial rule meant that Africans would lose their sovereignty. Africans did not accept colonialism and, therefore, fought against the imposition of colonialism on them. African rulers were determined to preserve their political sovereignty and their economic independence. These societies responded to colonial conquest in various ways such as resistance and collaboration. The responses largely depended on the political, social and economic organisation of a particular society.

**African resistance**

Through resistance against colonial conquest, African societies expressed their dissatisfaction with and disapproval of the European colonial administration. They also wanted to show the European colonialists that they would not accept colonial invasion and that they were not ready to let their social, political and economic structures and systems be destroyed. Consequently, African resistance continued even after the establishment of colonial administration. An example of such resistance was the Majimaji war against the German colonialists after the establishment of colonial rule in German East Africa. It began in 1905 and ended in 1907.

**Reasons for African resistance against the imposition of colonial rule**

Many African societies resisted the imposition of colonial rule on them. Although there were many reasons which made Africans to resist it, early resistance was aimed at defending their political, social and economic interests. The following were reasons for African resistance against imposition of colonial rule on them:

- (a) African societies wanted to defend their political sovereignty and freedom. African rulers took up arms to defend their political power, which was highly threatened. Examples of African societies which strongly resisted the imposition of colonial rule on them were the Hehe under Chief Mkwawa against the Germans and the Mandinka under King Samori Toure against the French;

- (b) Africans wanted to defend their economic interests such as trade and mining. They had for a long time been engaging in trade and commerce. Therefore, they resisted colonial rule because the colonialists interfered with their trade. For example, African societies were practising long distance trade through which they generated much wealth. The European colonialists destroyed the African barter system and introduced the money economy. Similarly, the Trans-Saharan Trade between West African societies and the North African region was destroyed following the establishment of European commercial and colonial interests on the Atlantic coast;
- (c) Likewise, the colonialists interfered with African cultures (norms, values and morals) such as polygamism, African rituals, traditional dances and religions. This was another factor which led to the rise of African resistance against colonial rule. Some Africans were killed, harassed, tortured and harshly treated when they were forced to adopt Western cultures; and
- (d) The nature of some African societies was another reason for the rise of African resistance. Most of the centralised African societies were politically strong and militarily powerful. They were not ready to be dominated by the European colonialists. Chief Machemba of the Yao, for example, disobeyed the German governor, Hermann von Wissmann, because he believed in his political and military powers. Therefore, the most politically centralised African societies fought to regain their political freedom and to demonstrate their military strength to the colonialists.

### Forms of African resistance

African resistance can be classified into two categories, namely primary resistance and secondary resistance. Primary resistance consisted of armed struggle or any other form of reaction against the imposition of colonial rule on Africans. Secondary resistance occurred after the imposition of colonial rule on Africans. The aim of this resistance was to regain the lost independence. In most cases, primary resistance occurred at the time of colonial invasion. It was active and passive resistance.

### Passive resistance

Africans were reluctant to support colonial rule, exploitation and oppression. A good example of passive resistance was staged by the Pogoro people in

Tanganyika who refused to engage in colonial plantation activities such as cotton picking. Other Africans secretly boiled seeds before planting them as a sign of their dissatisfaction with the colonial unjust treatment. Other societies which resisted colonial rule passively included the Maasai and the Haya of Tanganyika, as well as the Giriya of Kenya.

### Active resistance

This form of resistance involved direct military confrontations between the European colonialists and African societies. The confrontations were either on a small-scale or large-scale. Small-scale resistance involved one ethnic group or society and covered a small area. Small-scale resistance was staged by the Hehe against the Germans from 1891 to 1898, Abushiri and Bwana Heri against the Germans from 1888 to 1889, the Yao against the Germans between 1890 and 1899, the Nyamwezi against the Germans between 1891 and 1893, Makunganya's resistance of 1895 and the Mazrui Dynasty resistance against the British in 1895. The Majimaji war of German East Africa, the Chimurenga war of Southern Rhodesia and the Nama and Herero war of South-West Africa exemplify large-scale resistance.

### Factors that determined the adoption of active resistance

There were various factors that made some African societies react actively to the imposition of colonial rule on them. Societies that were strong economically like the Baganda, the Nyamwezi, the Hehe and the Mandinka acquired weapons which enabled them to fight against the colonial intruders. The weapons were mostly acquired through their participation in the long-distance trade.

African societies which had strong political systems like the Ndebele of South West Africa also fought against the colonialists. For example, the political administration hierarchy of the Baganda enabled the king (Kabaka) to get advice from his subordinates more easily. Importantly, centralised societies were well organised militarily; thus, they could not accept colonial domination without fighting.

Moreover, some African societies had strong military systems and technologies. Such societies included the Zulu of South Africa and the Mandinka of West Africa. These societies used direct military confrontations to defeat colonial rule. Good examples are the Zulu warriors, who defeated the British at the battle of



Isandlwana in 1879 and the Hehe, who defeated the Germans at the battle of Lugalo in the southern highlands of German East Africa in 1891.

Likewise, unity gave Africans the courage and confidence to wage direct confrontations against the Europeans. Examples include the unity among the people of southern Tanganyika during the Majimaji war, the unity among the Nama and Herero in South-West Africa as well as the unity between the Shona and the Ndebele in Southern Rhodesia during the Chimurenga war of 1896-1897. Religion was also a unifying factor in some African societies. Africans fought to defend cultural practices, including traditional religions, which were threatened by the introduction of Christianity. A good example was the Mandinka society of West Africa which fought against the French colonialists to defend their Islamic faith.

### Small-scale resistance

#### Coastal African resistance

There was a series of direct military confrontations between the European colonialists and the coastal societies of German East Africa. The first leader to resist colonial domination in this area was Abushiri bin Salim al-Harthi. Abushiri had established himself along the Pangani valley and traded with the people of the interior. When the Germans started to establish themselves along the East African coast, Abushiri felt threatened. In 1888, Abushiri started to resist their expansion along the coast and killed several Germans. Afterwards, the Germans sent Major Hermann von Wissmann, who was assisted by Nubian, Somali and Zulu mercenary soldiers to suppress Abushiri's resistance. The Germans defeated African societies and entered Pangani. After being defeated by the Germans, Abushiri ran to Mpwapa and waged a war from there. During the war, he was betrayed by Jumbe Magaya of Usagara and he was thus captured by the Germans and hanged on 15<sup>th</sup> December 1889.

Bwana Heri bin Juma of the Zigua successfully resisted the German invasion of Saadani in January 1889. The Germans reorganised and launched another attack in June 1889. Bwana Heri suffered a great loss and escaped inland, where he built a series of forts ready to face the Germans, but he was defeated in 1890.

Hassan bin Omary Makunganya attacked the German forts in Kilwa in 1894. However, the Germans reassembled and fought back against Makunganya, who was forced to retreat into Mavuji village in present-day Lindi Region. When he tried to re-organise his people and fight again, Makunganya was captured by the Germans and hanged in 1895 on a mango tree. The tree was named *Mwembe Kunyonga*, since it was used by the Germans to hang the people who disobeyed their rule.

**Activity****2.1**

Conduct a library study about Chief Mkwawa and then write a short essay on the importance of Chief Mkwawa to the history of Tanzania.

**The Hehe resistance of 1891-1898**

This was a direct military confrontation between the Hehe under Mtwā Mkwawa and the Germans in German East Africa. The Hehe had united themselves under Munyigumba. Their unification was influenced by the Ngoni invasion of 1882, when the Hehe defeated the Gwangara Ngoni. After the event, Mkwawa took power and expanded his territory into Ugogo, southern Unyamwezi and Usagara. By the time the Germans arrived, the Hehe had already established themselves as a powerful empire in the region.

Mkwawa did not want to surrender his empire to the Germans. In addition, the Germans did not want to allow Mkwawa to exercise his power within their administrative system. Again, Mkwawa was not ready to lose access to the central route of the East African long-distance trade. The route stretched from Bagamoyo to Tabora and passed through his empire. The German traders were also interested in this trade. When Mkwawa imposed the *hongo* tax (custom duty) on the traders who passed through his empire, the Germans became angry. Likewise, Mkwawa's interference in the trade was another cause of the conflict.

The Germans had the same intention of establishing political control in the same area so that they could profit from the trading activities. Therefore, open confrontations between the Hehe and the Germans were inevitable.

In 1891, Emil Von Zelewisky, the German Commander, and his army marched towards the Hehe Empire ready for a fight. Mkwawa tried to make peace with the Germans, but his envoys were killed. Mkwawa ambushed the Germans on 17<sup>th</sup> August 1891. Ten Germans, including Emil Von Zelewisky, and more than 300 mercenaries were killed. In 1892, Mkwawa overpowered the Germans and took their military base in Kilosa. These events worried the Germans. They prepared more forces for another war. In 1894, the Germans attacked Mkwawa's capital in Kalenga, but Mkwawa escaped and continued to engage in guerrilla warfare until 1898. By July of the same year while hiding, Mkwawa had become exhausted militarily. As noted earlier, when the Germans approached where he was hiding, he shot himself dead because he did not want to be caught alive. Figure 2.1 shows a picture of Chief Mkwavinyika, popularly known as Chief Mkwawa.



**Figure 2.1:** Chief Mkwawa

### Activity 2.2



- (a) In a group, read different historical sources about Chief Mkwawa.
- (b) Prepare a brief biography of Chief Mkwawa.

- (c) Analyse the factors that made Chief Mkwawa fight the German forces for a long time.
- (d) Present your findings before your fellow students in class for discussion.

### The Nandi resistance of 1896-1905

The Nandi were an agricultural society that lived in the fertile land of the Rift Valley in Kenya. The Nandi resistance was a small-scale active resistance organised by the Nandi ethnic group in Kenya to fight against the British from 1896 to 1905. It was mainly caused by the British occupation of Nandiland, which was suitable for crop production and livestock keeping. The war was organised by their leader called Orkoiyot Koitalel arap Samoei.

#### Causes of the Nandi resistance

The Nandi resistance was mainly due to land alienation. The British alienated the people's land for farming and opening European settlements. They invaded and occupied Nandiland by constructing telegraphic lines and railways along the Rift Valley. The Nandi were not happy with the construction of the railway lines or "the iron snake" as they called it. Therefore, they started attacking the British military bases, uprooting and destroying wires as well as attacking British traders.

They also fought to maintain their economic and political status. When the British entered Nandiland, the Nandi had already attained significant economic and political successes. These successes created a sense of superiority, which the Nandi wanted to maintain at any cost. Moreover, the outbreak of rinderpest killed many cows in Nandiland. The Nandi associated the disaster with the presence of the white men in their area. They were determined to resist British penetration, which was seen as a sign of bad luck.

The Nandi fought hard until the British revised their tactics. The British called a meeting to negotiate with the Nandi, but it was a trick because when the Nandi leader Koitalel went to the meeting, they assassinated him. Despite the killing of their leader, the Nandi continued fighting until 1905 when they were finally

defeated. The Nandi were able to fight for about eleven years against the British because of the nature of their environment that favoured them during the battle. The region is mountainous with steep slopes, wooden valleys and caves. Thus, the Nandi adopted the guerrilla war technique to fight and challenge the British forces.

Moreover, the mixed economy they practised reduced the effects of crop burning and confiscation because they could live on their livestock. Nandi farming was mainly for subsistence purposes; therefore, the British expedition could not live off the land. The Nandi also had martial spirit and a disciplined army with considerable experience in warfare against the Maasai and other neighbouring people. The Nandi traditional tactics such as night fighting and ambush gave them the upper hand over the British.

The Nandi resisted but could not reverse the British colonial conquest because they had no unified military command. They fought along their clan lines. Therefore, this method weakened their unity against the British.

### Large-scale resistance

Large-scale resistance covered large areas and, in some cases, involved several ethnic groups. Examples include the Majimaji war in German East Africa, the Chimurenga war in Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), the Nama-Herero resistance in German South West Africa (Namibia) and the Mandinka resistance in West Africa. In most cases, large-scale resistance was caused by land alienation, taxation, forced labour, imposition of a new culture and political interference.

### The Shona-Ndebele (Chimurenga) war of 1896-1897

The Shona-Ndebele resistance, popularly known as the first Chimurenga war, refers to the 1896-1897 Shona and Ndebele resistance against the administration of their territory by the British South Africa Company. *Chimurenga* is a Shona word for a “revolutionary struggle”. In Matebeleland, the war began in March 1896, while in Mashonaland it broke out in June 1896 under the leadership of two powerful leaders called Nehanda Charwe Nyakasikana and Sekuru Kaguvi. Both the Shona and the Ndebele successfully attacked mines, farms and some colonial buildings and infrastructure, but eventually the British suppressed that resistance with their superior weapons.

### Causes of the Shona-Ndebele war

At first, King Lobengula had no intention of fighting against the British. His people were highly affected by smallpox, which made them too weak to fight. The Ndebele warriors had poor weapons, which could not match the superior weapons of the British. Therefore, the King sent his representatives to negotiate with the British, but they were all killed. This was the beginning of the Chimurenga war.

- (a) The Shona-Ndebele war resulted from the British attempt to occupy Matabeleland because of its richness in resources. This was accelerated by the British Southern African Company (BSACO) and some white settlers who confiscated African fertile land and pushed the indigenous people into reserves, where they became labourers in various British economic sectors.
- (b) The Ndebele also fought because some of their cattle had been confiscated by the company and others had been killed by rinderpest. Thus, many Ndebele were impoverished.
- (c) The British wanted to force the Africans, both the Mashona and Ndebele (Matebele), to provide labour on the settler farms and in the mines. All able-bodied men had to work, regardless of their former positions in the society. The Africans who worked in the mines and on the white settlers' farms worked for long hours, but they were poorly paid.
- (d) The war was also caused by the company's method of recruiting labourers. The police were brutal as they used too much force and often mistreated people. For example, cattle and hut taxes were introduced in 1894; cattle, goats and grain were forcefully taken from those who failed to pay taxes. This mistreatment led to the outbreak of the war.
- (e) Moreover, the desire of the company (BSACO) to control trade in Mashonaland created chaos in the area. The company stopped the Shona from trading with the Portuguese and forced them to buy high-priced goods from the company instead. At first, the Shona believed that the Europeans had come for a short period, but when they realised that they had come to stay and rule, they greatly opposed them and fought for their freedom.
- (f) Furthermore, missionary activities interfered with the traditions and customs of the Shona and the Ndebele. European missionaries wanted to spread Christianity, which was against African culture. Therefore, the Shona and Ndebele fought against this interference.



- (g) The outbreak of rinderpest also contributed to the Shona-Ndebele war. The disease killed many cattle of the Shona pastoralists. The Ndebele and Shona associated the disease with the coming of the whites, so they decided to fight against them.

### Reasons for the defeat of the Shona and the Ndebele

Although the Shona and the Ndebele fought one war, they lacked proper coordination and unity. Each ethnic group fought as an independent group. Their religious leaders, Nehanda and Kaguvi, were arrested and executed. This demoralised them, especially the soldiers who eventually stopped fighting. Similarly, the Shona and the Ndebele had poor military techniques and skills. Moreover, the British weapons were superior to those of the Africans. Therefore, the Ndebele and Shona were easily defeated. They finally fell under British colonial rule, which introduced land alienation, forced labour, taxation and cattle confiscation.

#### Exercise 2.2

In your opinion, what are the best ways to defend the socio-economic and political interests of our country from external invasion? Support your arguments with reasons.

### The Mandinka (Samori Toure) resistance of 1882-1885 and 1891-1898

Samori Toure was born in 1830 in Manyambaladugu, a village in the south-east of Kankan in present-day Guinea. Samori Toure was a great warrior; he fought the French colonial intrusion in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. He became a prominent leader, who trained and commanded a well-disciplined army. He built a strong united empire called Mandinka between 1852 and 1882.

The Mandinka, or the Malinke, is a West African ethnic group primarily found in southern Mali, eastern Guinea, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Sierra Leone and northern Ivory Coast. The Mandinka resistance can be traced back to the scramble for and partition of Africa. This was when the French began to enter West Africa

and penetrate Sudan and the border of Samori Toure's Mandinka empire. Samori Toure responded to the French threat by equipping his army with modern British weapons and expanding into present-day Liberia to avoid the French. He successfully unified the Mandinka people and formed a large empire. He used his experience in trade, military skills and diplomacy to organise many ethnic groups into a single large empire. He commanded an army, mostly foot soldiers who were well armed with rifles and muskets. These weapons were obtained by trading with the British, who were in Sierra Leone, and some of them were made and repaired by native Mandinka iron smiths.

The empire was strengthened through Mandinka nationalism, which recalled the glorious years of the ancient Mali Kingdom. Samori Toure used persuasion, wars and threats to expand his empire. In the early 1880s, he extended his empire to as far as Sikasso and Futa Djallon. The French, who had already established themselves in West Africa, saw the growth of Samori Toure and his empire as a threat to their ambitions. In 1882, Samori Toure's army blocked the important trade centre of Kenyeran. The French ordered the army to withdraw from their place, but they refused. The war between Samori and the French broke out in 1882 – 1885. It ended in the treaties of 1886 and 1887. However, the war re-erupted in 1891 and ended in 1898.

In 1891, the French colonialists invaded the Mandinka empire. Samori Toure had no intention of facing the French army in open battle. Instead, he used a "scorched-earth" tactic as he retreated from his capital, Bisandugu. The result was shocking for the empire; crops and villages were totally destroyed. This made the French army face shortages of food and other basic needs. After he realised the threat posed by the French, Samori Toure shifted his entire empire to the regions bordering Ivory Coast and Ghana. In this area, he faced opposition from his subjects and the Asante empire in the east. The empire was cut off from the Sierra Leonean army's suppliers. However, it was famine that led to his defeat in the mountains located in the north of Liberia in 1898. He surrendered to the French colonialists, who exiled him to Gabon. He died in 1900 at the age of 70.

### Reasons for the Mandinka resistance

The French wanted to control the trade (Trans-Saharan Trade) routes that passed

through Samori Toure's empire. The routes were a source of revenue for the Mandinka empire. Likewise, Samori Toure wanted to control the trade that was interfered with by the French activities in West Africa. As a result, a conflict broke out. Similarly, the French wanted to expand into the interior of West Africa. Samori Toure was the only major obstacle to this policy; hence, they decided to fight against him. On the other hand, the Mandinka people under Samori Toure were determined to safeguard their sovereignty and authority. Samori Toure was not ready to lose his independence to the foreigners. In addition, he had a strong army, which made him believe that he could fight against the French. This was because Samori Toure's army had conquered and defeated many African states in West Africa. This gave him much confidence and courage to fight against the French. Finally, Samori wanted to defend the Islamic faith against the French invaders, who were non-Muslims.

### Reasons for the Mandinka's strength

Samori Toure had a strong army called 'SOFA', which was well equipped with European weapons such as rifles and muskets. The Mandinka were also strongly united under Samori Toure. The unity of the empire was brought about by Islam and memories of the great Mali empire. Moreover, the Mandinka used the "scorched-earth" tactic, which made it difficult for the French to obtain basic supplies in the areas they passed through. Furthermore, Samori Toure's empire was strong economically because of his control of the gold and cattle trade. The empire also had a considerable amount of food. In addition, it had efficient trade networks, especially in the supply of firearms from the coast and even from French traders. Similarly, Samori Toure had his own workshop for manufacturing weapons. All these assured him of having enough weapons all the time.

Furthermore, some of Samori Toure's soldiers had great experience in fighting the French colonialists. They were former soldiers of King Ahmadu, who had fought the French between 1889 and 1893. Samori Toure also used the guerrilla war tactic to harass the French troops. The French knew nothing about this tactic.

Importantly, Samori Toure used some of his wealth to reward his soldiers after winning a battle. This motivated the soldiers to fight strongly and for a long time. Figure 2.2 shows a picture of Samori Toure.



**Figure 2.2:** King Samori Touré

### Reasons for the defeat of the Mandinka

Samori Touré faced strong internal opposition from non-Muslim people, whom he forced to convert to Islam. This caused divisions among the Mandinka and weakened Samori Touré's support and unity in the empire. The non-Muslim Mandinka thought that the French could serve them from Samori Touré. Therefore, they collaborated with them against him.

The French had a strong, well trained and disciplined army with superior weapons, while Samori Touré's army was equipped with old-fashioned weapons such as muskets and rifles. Moreover, famine invaded the Mandinka empire and weakened its advancement in fighting. This is because the prolonged wars severely affected economic activities in Mandinkaland. The Mandinka were in a state of warfare for many years; therefore, they could not engage properly in either agricultural or commercial activities. The food reserve in the empire was depleted. Similarly, natural disasters, especially drought, affected food production. Therefore, the people suffered from hunger, which made them unable to fight.

Samori moved his empire to Diabakala, but it was very far from Sierra Leone, which was the main supplier of his weapons. This made him depend on Mandinka-made or repaired weapons. Furthermore, with the prolonged wars, these weapons could not be obtained adequately from within the empire, since the Mandinka artisans could not make them.

Samori Toure did not get assistance from other African rulers. This was because he had caused them much suffering. For example, the Asante people thought Samori Toure was a threat to the existence of their kingdom. Hence, his fellow African rulers isolated him. The loss of the Bure gold mines led to his downfall. He lost the gold trade, which was his main source of revenue. Therefore, he could not pay the soldiers and buy weapons. Consequently, Samori Toure had no garrison, which could be used to command his forces during the war. The situation led to the failure of the Mandinka resistance in West Africa.

### **Impact of the Mandinka resistance**

Many African soldiers were killed by the French forces. Very few Frenchmen died. The heavy and advanced French weapons killed many Africans and wounded others. Finally, Samori Toure was captured and exiled to Gabon and the whole Mandinka empire fell under French control. Such areas as Senegal, Mali, Ivory Coast and Gambia fell under the French colonial domination. The fall of the Mandinka empire signified the end of the last, long and strong resistance against French colonial rule in West Africa. This marked the beginning of the colonisation of Senegal, Mali, Ivory Coast and Gambia. The aggressive French military campaigns against Samori Toure destroyed many Mandinka villages and towns. For example, the new Mandinka capital of Diabakala was completely destroyed as houses and farms were burned by the French. Similarly, the war led to the emergence of famine because many farms were destroyed and people failed to engage in farming activities. Therefore, hunger invaded the empire.

### **The Nama-Herero resistance of 1904-1907**

The Herero were mixed farmers under Chief Samwel Maherero in South West Africa, present-day Namibia. The Nama were pastoralists under Chief Hendrik Witbooi. The two ethnic groups suffered heavy cattle losses in the rinderpest outbreak of 1896-1897. White settlers took advantage of this disaster and seized African grazing land, which was temporarily underused. At the same time, German traders took the few remaining African cattle to stock the newly acquired white

owned farms. The German colonialists also gave loans in the form of food and clothing to the impoverished African pastoralists and demanded cattle in return. Moreover, in the early 1900s, the Germans started to recruit labour from among Herero youth. Herero leaders regarded this as a deliberate attempt to destroy their state.

At the same time, the Nama also rose against the Germans. In 1904, the Herero, under the leadership of Samwel Maherero, started the war against the German colonialists and killed more than a hundred German traders and settlers, and occupied much of their former territory. However, they failed to persuade the Nama to join them. In June 1904, the Germans brought in troops from abroad and circled the Herero in the region of Waterberg. When the Herero broke the Germans' defence force and retreated westwards into the Kalahari Desert, thousands of them died of thirst and starvation. They were too weak to continue fighting; thus, they were defeated in 1905. At the same time, the Nama rose against the German colonialists. They fought a bitter guerrilla war under Hendrik Witbooi and Jacob Morenga. Witbooi died in October 1905 after being attacked by the Germans. His followers kept fighting under Morenga, who was killed in 1907. After 1907, the Nama and the Herero were exhausted as many of their people had lost lives.

### Reasons for the Nama-Herero resistance

The outbreak of the Nama-Herero resistance was the result of many factors. The outbreak of rinderpest, which killed many cattle of the Herero and the Nama, provoked the resistance. The disease impoverished the Nama and the Herero, whose economy depended on cattle keeping. The Africans associated this disaster with the coming of the Europeans.

The impoverishment of Africans caused by the European traders, who provided loans in the form of food and clothes, was another reason for the resistance. The Africans were required to repay the loans in the form of cattle. The traders confiscated cattle once Africans failed to pay back the loans. The Africans had no means of sustaining their livelihoods, and the only viable option to them was to take up arms and fight against the Germans.

Land alienation also caused the Nama-Herero resistance. The German colonialists started to grab the land owned by the Herero and the Nama, and allocate huge pieces of land to white settlers. The people were now forced to work on settlers' farms as labourers. This triggered the war against the German colonialists. Moreover, the 1900 colonial labour recruitment policy contributed to the outbreak of the war. For example, the policy demanded that Herero youth be sent to Johannesburg (British South Africa) to work in the Boers' mines and



on their plantations. This was seen by the Herero as an attempt to weaken and destroy their empire; hence, they started direct military confrontations against the Germans in South West Africa.

Taxation also caused the resistance. Poor Africans were forced to pay taxes. The German colonialists employed cruel measures in collecting taxes. Those who did not pay were tortured, imprisoned and their property was confiscated. Therefore, they decided to fight against the German colonialists.

Moreover, the colonial interference with African traditional political structures caused the war against the Germans. The German colonial officials interfered with the African traditional institutions. African local chiefs had their power reduced. They could not control trade or impose tax on their subjects.

The German colonialists undermined African culture and traditional beliefs. For example, The Nama leader, Witbooi, thought that German missionaries threatened his religious authority and, therefore, he decided to fight to defend their religious beliefs and culture.

The introduction of the colonial labour reserve policy also led to the outbreak of the war. This was because the indigenous people were removed from their productive areas so that settler production could be introduced. For example, in 1903, the colonial administration introduced a policy for creating labour reserves. The policy forced the Nama and the Herero to move to the reserves near the Kalahari Desert. The region was full of tsetse flies and, therefore, the Nama and the Herero resisted the move.

### **Impact of the Nama-Herero resistance**

The resistance had several effects on both the Africans and the German colonialists. Many Nama and Herero people died as a result of brutal military operations of the German colonial officials, thirst as well as hunger that recurred in the Kalahari Desert. Consequently, South West Africa was effectively occupied and dominated by the Germans. Traditional forms of political organisation such as chiefdoms were abolished. They appointed Germans and a few African officials as new administrators in the colony, which was named German South West Africa. The Germans ruled South West Africa successfully because there was no more resistance from the Africans.

Furthermore, colonial economic exploitation was intensified as the Nama and the

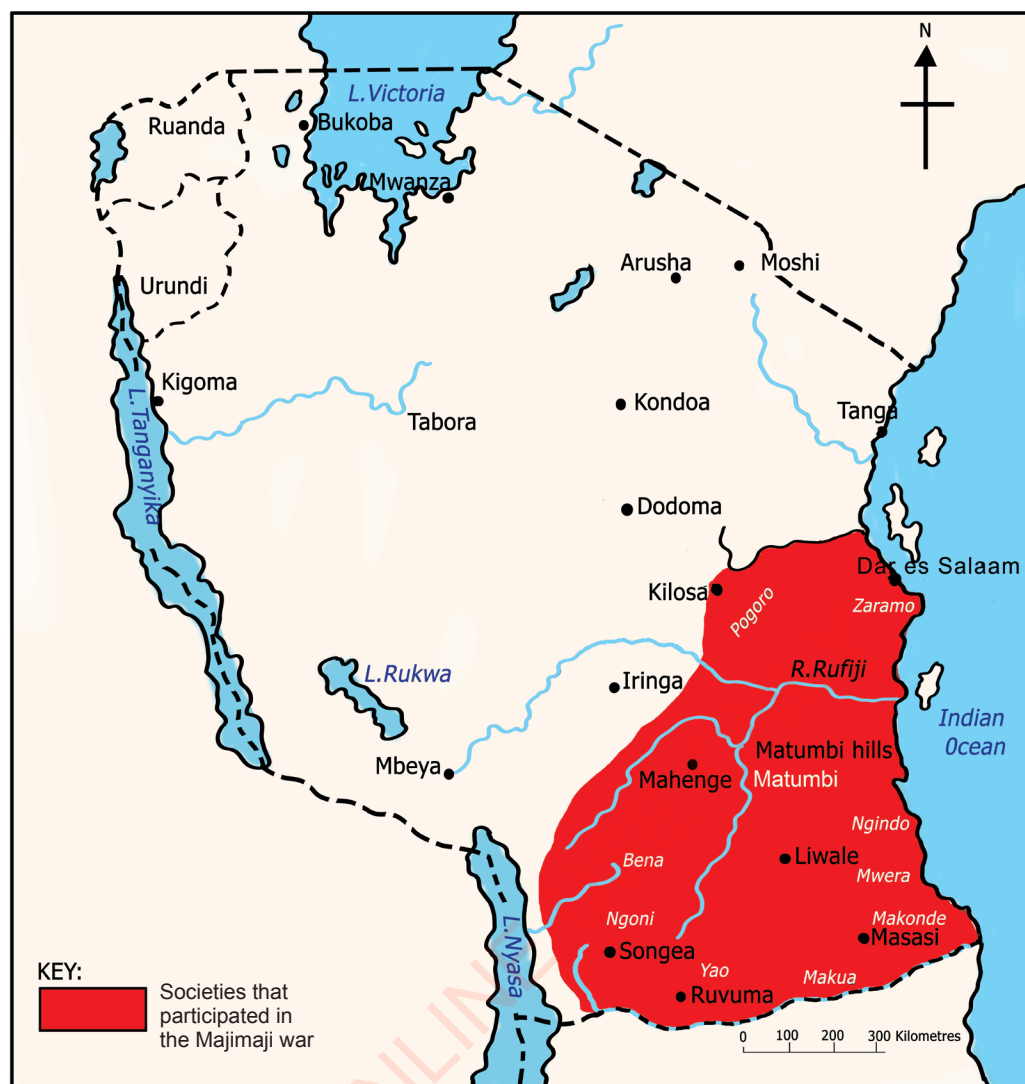
Herero were restricted from owning cattle and land. This made them dependent on the German colonial economic system. They became landless and were forced to move to the Kalahari Desert, where many of them died of hunger and thirst. Likewise, the German colonial government introduced concentration camps, where thousands of women and children were taken. Consequently, most of them died of harsh treatments like forced labour. Finally, the war provided a lesson to the colonialists that indigenous people did not accept colonial domination.

### The Majimaji war of 1905-1907

The Majimaji war was a popular uprising in the southern part of German East Africa from 1905 to 1907. It involved the Germans and the indigenous societies. The war was caused by political and economic grievances of the local people against the German colonialists. It was started by the people of the Matumbi hills in the north-west of Kilwa, then it spread to the Rufiji Valley. It later spread southwards to Songea and Njombe and then to Dar es Salaam and Kilosa in the north. The war later spread to the Kilombero Valley. The Majimaji war was unique in the sense that it involved a great number of different African ethnic groups.

It was a mass uprising involving not only soldiers from traditional armies, but also the whole society, including women and children who supplied food to the soldiers. The Majimaji war was organised by a charismatic and revolutionary leader known as Kinjekitile Ngwale, who mobilised different ethnic groups, namely the Ngindo, the Zaramo, the Mwera, the Matumbi, the Pogoro, the Makonde, the Ngoni, the Makua, the Yao and the Bena, against German colonial exploitation.

Kinjekitile Ngwale organised these ethnic groups using magic water, drawn from the River Rufiji. He mixed it with maize and millet flour. He believed that the water could protect them against the Germans' bullets and enable them to drive out the German colonialists. The term Majimaji war originated from the Kiswahili word *maji*, which means water. Therefore, the magic water encouraged the southern Tanzanian societies to take up weapons and fight against the German colonialists. The water was used as a symbol of unity among the African societies involved in the uprising. They believed in the power of the traditional religion. Figure 2.3 shows some of the African societies that participated in the Majimaji war.



**Figure 2.3:** Some of the African societies that participated in the Majimaji war

### Reasons for the Majimaji war

The Majimaji war was caused by economic, social and political factors. The introduction of cotton plantations in the Rufiji Basin was one of the reasons for the resistance. Africans resisted the German colonial government, which forced them to grow cotton for export. It took a long time to harvest cotton but earned very little. At the same time they neglected food production. Hence, famine became common.

Moreover, the German colonialists introduced a head tax in 1898. All adult Africans were required to pay this tax, which was collected using harsh and brutal methods. For example, those who did not pay it were severely tortured and imprisoned, and their property was confiscated. Men were forced to travel long distances looking for ivory, rubber, honey and wax so that they could sell them and get money for paying tax.

Furthermore, the German colonial administration did not respect African norms and traditions. For example, the German Christian missionaries destroyed the sacred huts of traditional priests because they considered them as symbols of witchcraft. Similarly, the Matumbi and the Ngindo reacted against the sexual harassment and other immoral practices of German agents, especially *Jumbes*, *Liwalis* and *Akidas*, against their wives and daughters. Thus, the Ngindo and the Matumbi waged the war against the Germans.

The German colonialists destroyed African political structures. Traditional chiefs and kings were replaced by Arab and African *Jumbes*, *Liwalis* and *Akidas*. The southern ethnic groups, therefore, wanted to retain their traditional political systems. The *Jumbes* and *Akidas* collected taxes from the indigenous people using excessive force, for example confiscating property. Likewise, the indigenous people were forced to work on the colonial plantations and in other colonial sectors of production for a long time with low payments. The people were also very angry because German traders occupied Africans' position in trade. Land expropriation was another reason for the resistance. The Germans grabbed African land and used it to produce cotton and sisal. All these factors made the indigenous people take up arms to fight against colonial rule.

### Reasons for the Africans' defeat

During the Majimaji uprising, the indigenous people did not have advanced weapons. For instance, they were armed with spears, while the Germans were armed with superior weapons like modern guns. Moreover, the Africans lacked proper organisation. For example, the number of African soldiers kept on decreasing with no replacement, while the German colonialists replaced both the soldiers and the weapons used. Besides, they had clear organisation and commanders.

The German colonialists used brutal tactics, which destroyed villages and burned

farms and food stores. This weakened the Majimaji fighters. The Africans relied on the belief in the magic water, an ideology which became ineffective as many Africans were killed when they tried to storm German posts. Hence, the Africans started questioning the power of the water.

Moreover, the people of southern Tanzania had no experience in fighting against the German colonialists; hence, they underestimated the power of the German army, which was largely made up of mercenaries from Somalia, Nubia and New Guinea. The Africans were also defeated because of disunity. Although the Majimaji war involved about 20 ethnic groups, each ethnic group fought on its own. Therefore, this weakened them.

### Outcomes of the Majimaji war

The Majimaji war had remarkable outcomes, particularly among the people of southern Tanzania and the people all over the country.

- (a) The German colonialists reduced the use of violence in enforcing their authority so that they might not cause another war. For instance, they started to encourage mission school attendance and to make European employees accept some responsibility for the health of their workers. The taxation and forced labour policies were relaxed, schools for Africans were built and chiefs were encouraged to send their children to school. Cash-crop farming was encouraged, Africans were allowed to choose not to work for German settlers and the settlers who mistreated African workers were punished;
- (b) The German colonialists destroyed African farms and homes and, therefore, devastating hunger and famine occurred and affected many people after the war. This was partly because during the war the people could not engage in production activities, including farming. Owing to its devastating impact, the famine was locally known as *Funga Funga*;
- (c) The Majimaji war gave a certain lesson to later nationalists in Tanganyika, that is, the colonialists could be fought through diplomatic means. The sacrifices made by thousands of Africans who died during the Majimaji war were an important inspiration to the later generation of nationalistic leaders, who fought for independence. The mistakes of the early revolutionary leaders and the poor methods used were later corrected to give the people of Tanganyika more effective leadership; and
- (d) The war led to the death of thousands of Africans.

**Exercise 2.3**

What lessons did Tanzanians learn from the Majimaji war?

**Collaborative reaction**

Collaborative reaction occurred where few traditional African rulers welcomed, accepted and assisted Europeans in the process of establishing and strengthening colonial rule. The Europeans befriended the rulers, promising to defend them against their enemies. Some of them also allied with the colonialists to get material possessions and weapons, but at the end they found that they had been deceived and put under the colonialists.

**Reasons for Africans' collaboration with the colonialists**

During the establishment of colonial rule, the colonialists looked for support from some African societies. Weak African societies sided with them with the expectation that they would defeat their old enemies. For example, in East Africa, the Germans sided with Mangi Rindi of Moshi against Mangi Sina of Kibosho. They also allied with Mtwā Merere of Usangu against Mtwā Mkwawa of Uhehe in 1893. Chief Kahigi sided with the Germans against Chief Mukotani of Kyamutwara in 1895. In Central Africa, some missionaries persuaded African chiefs to accept colonialism. For example, the Shona and the Ndebele were colonised when Reverend John Moffat collaborated with their chiefs.

African societies collaborated with the colonialists because some of them were poorly armed. Therefore, they decided to collaborate with them, instead of opposing them. Other societies collaborated with the colonialists because they had weak leaders. Others wanted to get strong military weapons for defending their territories. For example, Nabongo Mumias of Wanga and Kabaka Mutesa collaborated with the British to get arms. Other societies decided to cooperate with the colonialists to avoid warfare.

Some African rulers did not know the intention of the colonialists. The Europeans fooled Africans to sign bogus treaties. For example, Chief Mangungu of Msovero (Kilosa) signed such a treaty with Carl Peters. Through this treaty Msovero came to be under the Germans' control. King Lobengula of Ndebele signed a bogus treaty with John Moffat on behalf of the British South Africa Company. As a result, Matabeleland was taken by the British.



Similarly, natural calamities influenced African societies to collaborate with the Europeans. Some of them had suffered natural calamities such as drought, floods, hunger and diseases. These calamities weakened them economically, politically and militarily. Therefore, they collaborated with the colonialists to get relief. For example, the Maasai had been weakened by drought, smallpox and rinderpest. Most of their cattle were lost during the epidemic. When the German colonialists came, the Maasai could not fight. As such, they collaborated with them to avoid further calamities. The Banyankole had been invaded by jiggers and rinderpest.

The missionary activities in Africa made converts submissive and obedient to the European colonialists. During the imposition of colonial rule, missionaries played a double role. First, they converted Africans to Christianity. Secondly, they persuaded African rulers to collaborate with the colonialists. For example, in Bechuanaland (Botswana), John Mackenzie of the London Missionary Society (LMS) persuaded King Khama to collaborate with Britain. Elsewhere in Africa, in places where missionaries had a strong root like in Ibadan, Congo (Zaire) and Buganda, collaboration between the Europeans and local people was easier and more common.

Internal conflicts within royal families also caused some societies to collaborate with the Europeans. By the time of establishing colonial rule, some African political leaders had already faced political conflicts related to competition for power within ruling families. Such conflicts threatened the position of political leaders. To ensure that their political authority was intact, they chose to collaborate with the Europeans. For example, in 1890, Mbatian, a Laibon of the Purko Maasai of Kenya, died and left two sons, Lenana and Sendeyo. Disputes over succession erupted. Sendeyo was forced to go and settle in present-day northern Tanzania. Lenana remained in the Maasai territory, which stretched from Ngong Hills to Naivasha. He allied with the British, hoping that they would help him get rid of his brother.

Some African chiefs hoped to enjoy free trade, western education, medicine as well as military assistance. For example, the Fante hoped to get all these benefits from the British when they allied with them against the Asante empire.

Political rivalries between two or more neighbouring empires also made people collaborate with the Europeans. The empires whose rulers considered themselves

relatively weak in terms of military power sought alliance with the Europeans to make sure that the neighbouring empire (supposedly the strongest empire) was destroyed and their people put under full colonial control. They thought that, by befriending the European colonialists, they would not be colonised. Examples of the African chiefs who allied with the Europeans against their fellow Africans included the following:

- (a) Kabaka Mwanga of Buganda and Omukama Kasagama of Toro collaborated with the British to remove from power Omukama Kabarega of Bunyoro. Thus, Bunyoro was placed under the control of the British;
- (b) The Bena and the Sangu allied with the Germans to put Mkwawa and his people under full German colonial rule; and
- (c) In northern Tanganyika, especially in Kilimanjaro Region, Mangi Rindi of Moshi allied with the Germans to put Mangi Sina of Kibosho under German colonial rule.

### Exercise 2.4

What is the danger of having puppet leaders in a country like Tanzania?

### Factors that determined the nature of African reaction

The nature of Africans' response to colonial rule depended on the nature of the society and how it was organised. African societies did not respond uniformly or did not use the same tactics to resist colonial rule. The following were the factors that determined the nature of their response:

The level of economic development reached by African societies at the time of colonisation was one of the factors. The African societies which had developed economically obtained weapons and organised a large army. For example, Samori Toure of the Mandinka empire resisted French colonial rule for a long time. He used the wealth obtained from trade to assemble an army of about 30000 men. His soldiers were armed with muskets and rifles. The economically weak societies such as the Pogoro and the Haya opted for passive resistance.

Some African rulers were fooled by the European colonisers. They thought the Europeans would protect them; thus, they decided to collaborate with them. For

example, King Ahmad Seku collaborated with the French, believing that they would recognise him as a leader of the Tukolor empire, but in 1893, the French broke the promise and started a war to occupy the empire. Similarly, missionaries played a great role in softening the hearts of African converts so that they could not react against colonial rule. According to the missionaries, resistance meant “lack of civilisation”. Therefore, Africans were taught to be obedient and loyal to their leaders. For example, they encouraged Semei Kakunguru to collaborate with the British to extend colonial rule into eastern and northern Uganda.

The level of political centralisation also determined the nature of Africans’ reaction. Societies with well-organised political systems actively resisted the colonial intrusion. This was so because they were politically well organised and had powerful chiefs. In contrast, those with less centralised political authority opted to submit themselves to the colonialists.

Similarly, the geographical space in which African societies settled influenced their strategies. For example, the societies that lived near forests chose guerrilla warfare while those who lived in open land and grassland opted to submit themselves to colonialists, since they lived in areas which were not strategically conducive for fighting.

Finally, during the colonial penetration, some societies were greatly affected by the slave trade. Strong people, particularly the youth, were taken as slaves; old people and children remained behind. It was difficult for these people to react against colonial rule militarily. They either collaborated with the colonialists or were passive. Natural calamities such as drought and diseases made some societies unable to resist colonial rule militarily; therefore, they opted to collaborate with the Europeans. For example, although the Banyankole were strong economically, the jigger epidemic forced them to collaborate with the Europeans.

### Exercise 2.5

What lessons can you draw from the African forms of reaction against the imposition of colonial rule on Africans?

### Reasons for their defeat

Although many Africans strongly opposed colonial rule and attempted to drive away the European colonialists, they did not succeed for a number of reasons. Africans were militarily weak compared to the well-trained and equipped colonial armies. They used poor weapons like spears, bows and arrows. In a few cases,

they used old-fashioned guns. For example, Samori Toure obtained European weapons, but they were old fashioned. He was defeated because his army could not survive the advanced French weapons such as maxim guns.

Constant interstate wars among African kingdoms weakened them militarily and economically. For example, in Central and East Africa, most societies were weakened by the prolonged wars caused by the Ngoni. The Ngoni themselves became too weak to initiate any resistance against the colonialists. Likewise, in West Africa, the Jihad movements of the 19<sup>th</sup> century weakened and divided the northern and central states.

The Europeans were assisted by African collaborators. Some African leaders betrayed their fellow Africans by collaborating with the whites. For example, they revealed to the colonialists African defence secrets, and fed and sheltered them. Africans had also experienced many calamities throughout the time of the occupation. The calamities weakened African resistance. For example, in Zimbabwe, the Ndebele faced drought in 1895 and locusts in 1896, and in Sudan the Mahdists experienced drought and poor harvests between 1889 and 1890.

Some of the areas that resisted colonial rule lacked strong political organisation. The societies were divided into various semi-independent groups, each with its own leader. For example, in German East Africa, the Germans defeated the coastal people largely because of their lack of a strong political system. Moreover, the explorers, traders and missionaries played a great role in the colonisation of Africa by collecting valuable information about African societies, including the weak and strong societies. They also studied the geography of African lands, rivers and lakes, the political organisation, weapons and fighting tactics. This information helped the Europeans to have a better understanding of African societies. On the other hand, Africans did not know the Europeans' strengths, weaknesses and military tactics.

Advancement in medical technology, particularly the discovery of quinine, was another reason. At the beginning, some Europeans died of malaria. The discovery of quinine, which was used to treat malaria, reduced the number of deaths caused by malaria. The strong economic base of the Europeans, as a result of the industrial revolution, enabled the Europeans conquer Africans easily. For instance, in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, there was a revolution in firearm-making in Europe. Thus, the Europeans used their superior weapons against the weak traditional weapons used by the Africans. Moreover, the development of transport and

communication technology also enabled the Europeans to conquer Africa. Transport and communication simplified the movement of people and goods, including firearms from one place to another. Finally, disunity and political instability among Africans made colonial penetration possible. Figure 2.4 shows some of the African societies that resisted colonial rule.



**Figure 2.4:** Some of the African societies that actively resisted colonial rule

**Activity 2.3**



In a group, use a time chart to show all the major events mentioned in this chapter.

**Revision exercise 2**

1. What do you understand by the following concepts?
  - (a) Colonialism
  - (b) Collaboration
  - (c) Resistance
2. Why did some Africans collaborate with the Europeans during the establishment of colonial rule?
3. Why did Samori Toure fight against the French invasion?
4. Explain the causes of the Majimaji war in German East Africa.
5. Examine the reasons for Africans' defeat during the Majimaji war.
6. Examine the factors that determined the nature of Africans' reaction to the imposition of colonial rule in Africa.
7. With vivid examples, identify two strategies employed by African societies to fight the European invaders.
8. "Africans' reaction to the imposition of colonial rule was inevitable." Discuss this statement.
9. "Africans' defeat during the imposition of colonial rule was due to their technological backwardness." Discuss.



# Chapter Three

## Establishment of colonial administrative systems

### Introduction

*By 1900, a large portion of the African continent was under European colonial domination. Therefore, the colonialists needed to transform African political structures and organisations to meet their demands. In this chapter, you will learn how colonial administrative systems, namely direct rule, indirect rule, as well as assimilation and association policies were introduced and implemented in Africa. You will also learn about the colonial legal and military institutions and their contribution to the colonisation of Africa. The competencies developed will enable you to fight against any foreign cultural and ideological aspects that despise our African culture. Similarly, the competences will help you to appreciate the administrative systems of African societies.*

### Meaning of colonial administrative system

The term colonial administrative system means the mechanisms adopted by the colonial administrators to maintain and consolidate colonial rule in their colonies. The experience of resistance movements at the beginning of the colonial conquest left a permanent mark in the minds of the colonialists, which showed that Africa needed a strong administrative machinery. Therefore, in order to administer and exploit the colonies effectively, the colonial governments established various colonial administrative systems. The systems were established to supervise and control human resources and production. Under these systems, the colonial officials had both administrative and executive powers over their areas of jurisdiction.

The British, German and French colonialists developed four main systems of colonial administration. These were direct rule, indirect rule, the assimilation policy and the association policy.

### The direct rule system

Direct rule was a colonial administrative system whereby colonies were ruled by European colonial personnel with assistance from local agents drawn from other areas within a given colony. The Germans used direct rule to administer the colonial territories and societies under their control. This system was used in German East Africa (Tanganyika, Urundi and Ruanda), Togo, South West Africa (Namibia) and Cameroon. Another country which used this method was Britain. She used it in her settler colonies of Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), South Africa and Kenya.

The German direct rule system was hierarchical. At the top there was a governor, below whom was an advisory councillor. Below the advisory councillor was a district officer who supervised *Liwalis*, *Akidas* and *Jumbes*. The *Liwalis*, *Akidas* and *Jumbes* were appointed by the Germans. The *Liwalis* supervised *Akidas* and *Jumbes* in collecting taxes, supervising labourers, ensuring peace and security in their areas and reporting any unusual matters related to the day-to-day activities. Figure 3.1 shows the German colonial administration structure. Under the direct rule system, the European colonial administrators took over the entire administration. This system aroused anger and hatred among the indigenous people because it was authoritarian.

### Reasons for adopting the direct rule system

The colonialists used direct rule to have direct control over Africans. They wanted to create a conducive environment for generating wealth. The German colonial administrators did not

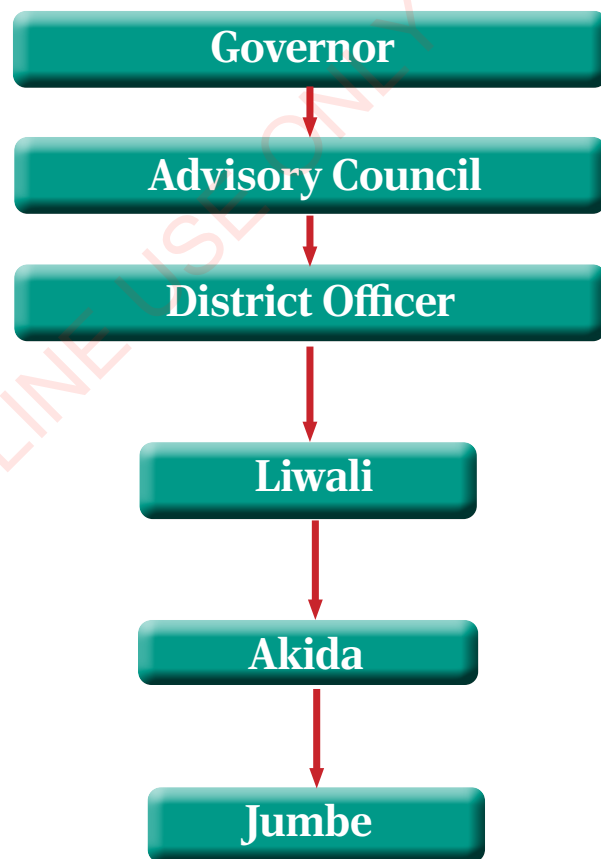


Figure 3.1: German colonial administrative hierarchy

believe that the local people could administer themselves. They feared that they might be betrayed and resisted. Direct rule was used to protect European interests. Although the British used indirect rule in most of their colonies, they used direct rule in Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) to protect the interest of settlers.

The Germans used direct rule in German East Africa to prevent British and Portuguese interference. In South West Africa, the system was used to discourage the Boers of South Africa and the British from expanding into the area. German traders were worried about the British and Boer traders' activities in the region. They could not afford to lose their colonies. Therefore, they pushed their government into using forceful means in South West Africa.

In contrast, the Germans did not trust Africans to administer the colonies. They believed that they were an inferior race. Thus, they regarded the local rulers as incompetent and lazy. In this regard, the Europeans thought that the importation and spread of their civilisation and culture could be done properly by European administrators.

The use of direct rule, therefore, provided an opportunity to spread European civilisation and culture in Africa. Moreover, the system was aimed at maintaining German superiority over African subjects. Since the Germans directly controlled all the activities in the colonies, African rulers lost their positions. The direct rule system was also used with a view to reducing unemployment in Europe. For example, the German colonial government sent its educated youths to different African colonies to work as accountants, civil servants, medical doctors, political officers and military experts.

### Strengths of the direct rule system

Some of the European countries which used this system demanded a large number of workers from their mother countries in an attempt to solve the problem of unemployment in Europe. Although in some areas, Africans were used in significant numbers, they were under close supervision of European officials almost everywhere. On the other hand, the system was very helpful in suppressing African resistance. The introduction of direct rule meant that African resistance could be crushed quickly by the white military officials. The use of direct rule was also a way of maintaining and safeguarding European interests. A good example was the Abushiri resistance of 1888-1889, which was suppressed by the German colonial administration using reinforcement from German askaris

and paid African mercenaries.

Moreover, in the areas where direct rule was used, the construction of infrastructure such as roads, railways, hospitals, tapped water and electricity was rapidly done to ensure smooth exploitation of the colonial subjects. For example, the construction of the central railway line in German East Africa was done by African labourers under the supervision of German engineers and surveyors.

### Weaknesses of the direct rule system

The direct rule system was not an African system of administration. This is because the system used European personnel directly. The Europeans did not promote good relations in their colonies. This was caused by the language problem. Few colonial officials and administrators could speak African languages; therefore, it was very difficult for them to function. Moreover, the system was very expensive as European colonial administrators and officials were to be maintained in terms of salaries, housing and medical facilities.

The direct rule system had elements of dictatorship because there was excessive use of force against Africans. For instance, Africans in Kenya and Southern Rhodesia were forcefully evicted from their fertile land to unfertile land to give way to the settler economy and colonial mining activities. Such evictions provoked widespread resistance and protest movements against the colonisers.

### Effects of the direct rule system

The direct rule system had several effects in the areas it was used. The system increased enmity between the colonial administrators and the indigenous people owing to harsh treatment. In the settler colonies, for example, there were many oppressive and exploitative actions such as taxation and forced labour. Various exploitative and oppressive laws were also introduced against the African subjects. For example, in Kenya, the *Kipande* system was introduced in 1921 to force Africans to work on settler plantations. The system originated from the Native Registration Amendment Ordinance of 1920. The *Kipande* was an identity document showing the name of a person, ethnic group and the days he was supposed to work for Europeans. This system angered Africans and led to massive resistance in Kenya.

Similarly, the use of direct rule intensified African resistance. This was because direct rule was accompanied by harsh treatment of Africans, for example forced labour, taxation and sexual harassment. Africans were against these injustices.

Moreover, African rulers lost their political status because they were no longer allowed to exercise power. They became agents of colonial administration with the colonial officials as the overall masters. The appointed colonial officials had neither social nor political legitimacy in their areas of administration. For example, the German colonial administration in German East Africa replaced African traditional rulers with *Liwalis*, *Akidas* and *Jumbes*.

The direct rule system also facilitated the exploitation of African natural resources and labour. The colonial administrators fully supervised the extraction of African resources, both natural and agricultural. It also facilitated the exploitation of Africans through taxation, land alienation and forced labour. Furthermore, African cultural and economic systems were destroyed. For example, Africans could no longer do their religious, production and trading activities. People were, therefore, forced to adopt Western religion, language and production systems.

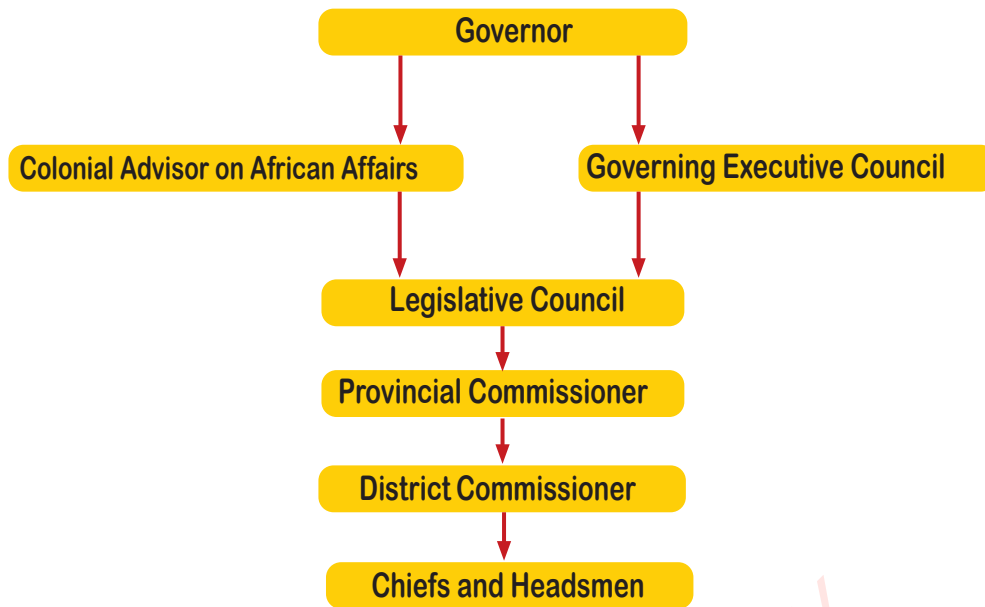
### Exercise 3.1

How direct was direct rule?

### The indirect rule system

Indirect rule was a form of colonial administrative system used by the British; Africans were ruled through their local rulers and indigenous institutions. African chiefs were given clearly defined duties in the colonial administrative structure. However, the status of African chiefs was not equal to that of the colonial officials. They had certain powers to exercise, though they were easily replaced by warrant chiefs, especially when they were suspected of being non-cooperative. These African chiefs were appointed by the colonial government. The British used this system in her African colonies such as Egypt, Uganda, Nigeria and Tanganyika.

Indirect rule was also hierarchical in nature. At the top, there was a governor who was the head of the colonial state in the colony. He was aided by executive and legislative councils. The executive council comprised of European officers only. The legislative council consisted of few Africans, but the power of each council was limited to the colony. Each colony was administered as an autonomous unit and was divided into a number of provinces. Each strategic province had a commissioner known as the provincial commissioner. Below the provincial commissioner, there was a district commissioner, below whom were local chiefs and headsmen. Figure 3.2 shows the hierarchical structure of the British indirect rule system.



**Figure 3.2:** *British colonial administrative hierarchy*

Fredrick Lugard is considered the founder of the indirect rule system in British colonial Africa. The system was first introduced in northern Nigeria, where the Hausa-Fulani people resisted colonial rule in the 1900s. To minimise resistance, Lugard tested this system, which accommodated the local political institutions. The experiment succeeded and thus the system was imported to other colonies.

In Tanganyika, the indirect rule system was introduced by the second British Governor, Donald Cameron, in 1925. It was characterised by the presence of local or native authorities responsible for tasks like administration of local justice through local courts, markets, labour supply and tax collection. African chiefs headed these institutions. These local authorities had a number of duties like paying salaries to African workers, preparing budgets and presenting their financial records for auditing so as to know how much money was needed to finance services like health, education, agriculture, roads and railways.

The local chiefs who were appointed to implement British government policies became part of the British colonial government. The chiefs were favoured and protected, but they were paid low salaries. Their sons and daughters were given privileges such as education in special schools.



## Reasons for adopting the indirect rule system

Indirect rule was introduced to minimise administrative costs. This was because African chiefs and their assistants could be paid lower salaries than European colonial administrators. In addition, African chiefs did not demand services from the colonial government such as accommodation, transport and medical services. Since Britain had many colonies in Africa, the use of local chiefs was inevitable. Language was an obstacle in the running of colonial administrative activities by the Europeans. The indigenous people could not communicate with the Europeans because they did not know European languages. Thus, African chiefs were trained so that they could understand the languages and policies.

The British colonialists used indirect rule to win the hearts and minds of Africans. Since African chiefs were involved in the daily operations of the colonies, any discontents from the subjects were directed to their fellow Africans. Africans thought that they were ruled by their fellow Africans. Therefore, the system helped the colonial administration to run smoothly with minimal resistance from the Africans.

Physical difficulties, including thick forests and the presence of wild animals in the colonies, made it impossible for the colonialists to administer in remote areas. The use of African chiefs protected the British colonisers against tropical diseases such as malaria, yellow fever and small pox. The local rulers also had a great understanding of their environment, as well as people and their culture.

Furthermore, the British introduced indirect rule as a way of dividing Africans. The divide and rule system weakened African unity, since those who were favoured like the local chiefs could not oppose the colonial intruders.

## Strengths of the indirect rule system

The British used indirect rule through traditional political leaders who became more powerful than before. As a result, African chiefs used the same power to oppress and mistreat their fellow Africans. For instance, African chiefs could cane and imprison fellow Africans in the process of recruiting them into forced labour. Furthermore, indirect rule enabled the colonial government to deal with the shortage of white personnel. The few white officials were not enough to administer large and populated colonies like Nigeria and Egypt without the assistance of local chiefs. The system favoured the Europeans because the indigenous rulers were paid low salaries and had a great understanding of their environment, which

made it very easy for them to administer their fellow Africans.

In addition, the system enabled the colonial state to collect tribute and taxes, which generated funds for financing the colonial bureaucracy, including the local chiefs. The system was found to be effective in tax collection as the African chiefs knew the right time and means of collecting tax. They knew the boom period, the market time and how to deal with tax collection difficulties. Therefore, tax collection was efficient without much resistance. Generally, there was very little cost incurred in the general day-to-day operations. Moreover, the British administered their colonies with minimal resistance. This was because the local chiefs performed most of the activities on behalf of the colonial British officials who had no direct contact with Africans.

### **Weaknesses of the indirect rule system**

The system had some weaknesses as far as colonial production was concerned. African chiefs had little knowledge of managing funds; therefore, many of them were either fined or imprisoned. The British officials played a bigger role in administrative activities than expected. The system did not provide employment to the growing size of the African working class, including the urban educated elites. This was because the system depended much on traditional authorities. Indirect rule created a gap between the chiefs and the educated elites, something that prompted urban protest movements. The educated elites felt that they were not part of the political authority. This caused rivalries between the two classes and created the potential for further reaction against colonial rule.

Indirect rule was easily applied in centralised communities such as Hausa-Fulan, Baganda, Gogo and Nyamwezi. However, the system was very difficult to apply in areas which lacked centralised administration. This system created chiefdoms which did not exist. The chiefdoms were created so that they could serve the British interests, but most of them were less efficient. For example, the chiefdoms were established among pastoral societies in Tanganyika.

Indirect rule also caused enmity between African chiefs and their subjects. This was because the local rulers were used to do colonial work like supervising and maintaining colonial orders, collecting tax and forcing people to work. All these did not please the majority of Africans and caused local protests in some parts of British colonial Africa.

**Exercise 3.2**

How has the indirect rule system influenced the administrative system in contemporary Tanzania? Support your answer with evidence.

**Effects of the indirect rule system**

Indirect rule gave some autonomy to African local rulers, but did not bring about much development and strengthen African political systems.

Indirect rule was not an indigenous system of government; therefore, traditional rulers did not have enough freedom to exercise their political and judicial powers. The system did not build a good foundation for future self-government among African societies.

It increased ethnic divisions among Africans. It made each ethnic group develop its own political institutions. Thus, it encouraged ethnicity. This is the case in Nigeria, where ethnic and religious divisions are still a problem.

Moreover, indirect rule facilitated massive exploitation of African resources. Under their traditional chiefs, Africans worked hard, knowing that they were working for their own well-being. Through this system Africans lost their natural and agricultural resources.

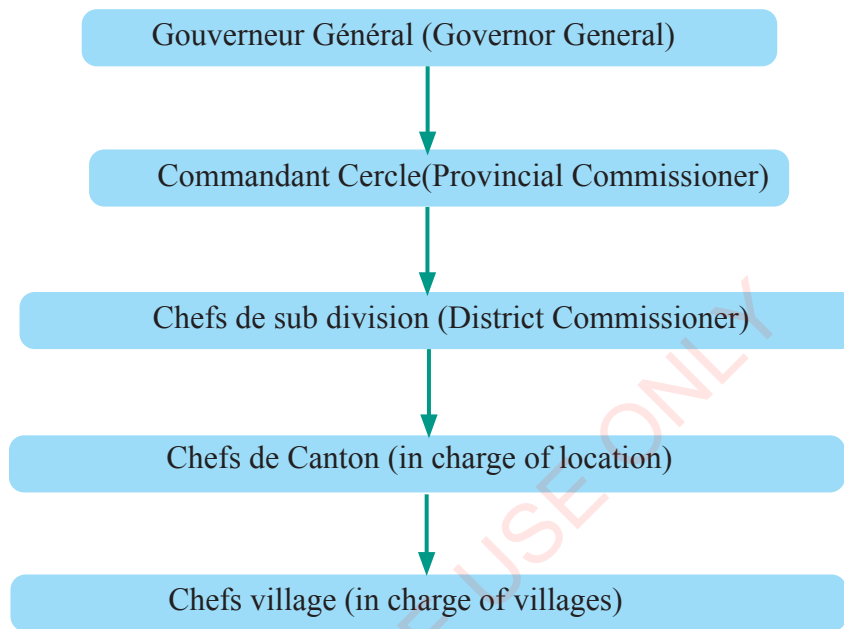
**The difference between direct rule and indirect rule**

The direct and indirect rule systems differed in many ways in terms of organisation structure, motives and practice. Indirect rule was used by the British in many of their colonies, while direct rule was mostly used by the Germans. Besides, indirect rule was not as harsh as direct rule. Under indirect rule, certain elements of African institutions, culture and customs were maintained. Africans were allowed to develop in their own ways. For example, the office of African chiefs was preserved. This was not the case with direct rule; African chiefs were replaced by German-appointed *Liwalis*, *Akidas* and *Jumbes*.

Indirect rule faced minimum resistance from Africans because some elements of African institutions, cultures and customs were left so that they could be used to deal with African grievances. This was different from direct rule, which caused much resistance owing to the nature of its operation. Similarly, indirect rule created puppets among the Africans who cooperated with the British, but the direct rule system did not do so because much of the work was done by German officials.

### The assimilation policy

Assimilation was a colonial administration policy used by the French colonialists to rule Africans. The assimilation policy was aimed at treating Africans as though they were French people. This policy was first used by France in Senegal, particularly in four provinces, namely Dakar, Goëe, Saint Louis and Rufisque. The Portuguese also used this method; they called it Assimilado. Figure 3.3 shows the French system of administration.



**Figure 3.3:** French colonial administrative hierarchy

### Motives behind the introduction of the assimilation policy

The French government introduced the assimilation policy in its colonies to spread French culture in various parts of the world. The application of the assimilation policy went hand in hand with the introduction of the French language, laws, religion, educational institutions and customs. The policy was believed to be a stepping stone to French culture and civilisation. This was because it influenced every aspect of the African way of life by people speaking French, learning French legal systems and practising French culture and beliefs, particularly Christianity.

The assimilation policy was introduced to exploit African societies smoothly by creating false consciousness among those who were assimilated to work for the benefit of the French. By creating a class of African Frenchmen, they were able to

reduce local resistance through the divide and rule policy. In relation to this, it was also believed that assimilated Africans could produce cotton, coffee and palm oil in African colonies for export and consume the manufactured goods imported from France. France regarded her colonies as external provinces. Therefore, she hoped to make Africans behave like French citizens through assimilation. France believed that her culture and civilisation had reached the highest level. She, therefore, set out to impose such standards on African societies. Thus, Africans who qualified to be French were granted French citizenship.

In order to be granted this citizenship, one had to meet the following criteria: to be born in one of the French provinces in West Africa, to be 18 years of age or over, to have a place of residence, to be able to read, to write and speak the French language, to have been honoured for one's exemplary service or loyalty to the colonial government, to be a Christian (Catholic) and to marry one wife.

### Strengths of the assimilation policy

The policy stimulated socio-economic development of the colonies because there was considerable investment in the colonies. The investments were aimed at turning Africans into Frenchmen; therefore, in the areas where assimilated Africans lived such as Dakar the French made considerable efforts to build roads, hospitals and schools.

In some colonies, there were elected councillors who represented Africans in the French National Assembly. For example, in 1914, Blaise Diagne defeated six European candidates and was elected into the French National Assembly in Paris. Therefore, theoretically, Africans participated in making decisions concerning their well-being. The system also offered education to few Africans, who later championed the struggle for independence in the former French colonies. Good examples were Felix Houphouet Boigny of Ivory Coast, Leopold Sedar Senghor of Senegal and Ahmed Sekou Toure of Guinea. Therefore, by the late 1960s, all the provinces had emerged as independent states.

The assimilation policy succeeded in minimising African resistance against the French colonial administration. Many Africans considered themselves Frenchmen/women without realising that they were being colonised. Therefore, there was no much resistance from the indigenous people. Through the divide and rule policy, the French colonial administration was able to minimise resistance within the colonies. Those who were assimilated saw themselves as Frenchmen/women, rather than as Africans.

### Failure of the assimilation policy

The assimilation policy was equivalent to the direct rule system. However, its conditions were too difficult to fulfil. As a result, the policy was not successful because Africans had heterogeneous cultures which were different from French culture. Each African ethnic group had its own customs and traditions. For example, African Muslims rejected French education because they saw it as a tool for spreading Christianity. The French lacked funds for implementing the policy, since the policy was very expensive and much money was needed to turn Africans into Frenchmen by providing them with education and other social services. For example, they had to build infrastructure of the same standard as that of France; at the same time, they relied on revenue from the colonies, which was very minimal.

France also faced resistance from Africans who stood up to preserve and defend their culture. Some scholars, humanitarians and politicians argue that African customs, values and traditions were relevant to Africans and had to be preserved, protected and developed for Africans. In addition, African traditional leaders opposed this policy because they believed that, if Africans were assimilated into French culture, they would never respect their traditions. However, the French missionaries did not succeed convincing the Africans on the value of the policy. The French colonial state hoped that missionary schools would help in assimilating the Africans, but the French missionaries were only interested in converting people to Christianity, and not turning them into Frenchmen/women.

Africa had several ethnic languages unlike the French who used only one language. The language barrier was a reason for the failure of the assimilation policy. Similarly, Africans had several customary laws, which contradicted the French legal system. For example, African customary laws allowed polygamy, while French laws insisted on monogamy.

### Weaknesses of the assimilation policy

The assimilation policy became the source of economic imbalance in African colonies and this caused regional population movements and threatened local security conditions. The areas in which assimilated Africans lived were highly developed as opposed to the areas in which non-assimilated Africans lived. Moreover, there was fear among Frenchmen that assimilated Africans would become serious economic rivals as they would have the same rights as them. The French feared that making Africans equal to Frenchmen would make it difficult



to force Africans work on French farms, in mines and other economic-social sectors like education and health.

The system was very expensive since it focused much on the ambitious programme of turning Africans into Frenchmen. The French people's ambition to treat Africans like French people or black Frenchmen required much capital. Much money was required in the construction of schools, hospitals, roads, railways and houses, and for supplying electricity and tapped water in the colonies. Furthermore, the system was a source of divisions among Africans, between the assimilated Africans and the subjects. It was a discriminatory policy just like other colonial policies because the assimilated people were given various opportunities like citizenship and jobs.

### **Impact of the assimilation policy**

The assimilation policy destroyed African traditional authorities. The French replaced the local rulers with African-appointed colonial officials. The assimilated Africans would now fill most of the positions which were formerly under the traditional authorities. The policy created political and economic dependency on France. To date, France has great political and economic influence in her former colonies of West Africa. France is the major importer of raw materials and the major exporter of industrial goods to her former West African colonies. Likewise, the assimilation policy facilitated the spread of French language in French colonies. In French West Africa, French is the official language. That is why after independence, the French language became the unifying factor for the former French colonies. African countries which still use French as their medium of instruction include Senegal, Ivory Coast, Congo Brazzaville, Mali and Burkina Faso. These countries are known as Francophone.

Some of the assimilated African leaders such as Leopold Sedar Senghor of Senegal and Felix-Houphouet Boigny of Ivory Coast led their fellow Africans during the struggle for independence. The assimilation policy undermined African culture and education systems. The imposition of Christianity and French culture weakened African culture. For example, the French discouraged polygamy, encouraged the building of churches and restricted the use of Christian cardinal laws. This weakened the position and status of traditional priests and fortune tellers in the French West African colonies.

### The association or partnership policy

By the second decade of the twentieth century, many Africans had become French citizens. This meant that they could vote and be voted for in elections and they were under the protection of French laws. This situation threatened colonialism, which was intended to keep Africans at the bottom of the colonial social structure. For this reason, France abandoned the assimilation policy and adopted association. The French now believed that it was only possible to rule Africans by being close to them through the help of African chiefs, instead of making them change their cultural heritage.

From 1914 to 1945, the French were forced to adopt the association policy. Under the association policy, Africans were given the right to elect their representatives in the French government. They were also allowed to have free trade, free press and political parties. A good example of a political party in French colonial Africa was *Ressemblement Democratique Africain* (RDA). The association policy emphasised cooperation between the colonised and the colonisers. Unlike assimilation, it did not mean direct centralised French control. This system was equivalent to indirect rule.

### Reasons for introducing the association policy

The association policy was introduced as a tool with which to reduce the cost of administration. The system was cheap in the sense that it used African chiefs who were paid low salaries compared to French administrators. The administrators would demand things such as good working conditions, better salaries, houses and other necessities. Under the association policy no expenditure was needed to educate Africans as it was the case with the assimilation policy. There was a great cultural difference between the French and the Africans in marriage, religion and others. Therefore, the French government abandoned the assimilation policy and introduced a more realistic policy, that is, the association policy.

France wanted to maintain exploitative relations within her colonies; thus, treating Africans as French people would threaten the objectives of colonialism. Africans had to remain producers of raw materials and labourers. France faced strong resistance from the French tax payers who were required to pay more tax to meet running costs in the French African colonies. Importantly, African chiefs and kings were protecting their culture. Therefore, it became very difficult for the assimilation policy to survive. As a result, the French came up with the association policy, which accommodated African culture.

### Strengths of the association policy

The association policy perpetuated the co-existence of traditional African institutions and the French government system. Therefore, African traditional institutions were respected. The association policy restored African traditional norms and laws. French laws were no longer used in the colonies; for example, Africans were allowed to practise polygamy. This helped to ensure that there was peace between Africans and the French.

The system was also cheap since Africans were left to develop in their own ways. Little was invested by the French colonialists. Similarly, the association policy recognised the position of African rulers in different activities such as in the collection of taxes, recruitment of labourers and maintenance of peace and order. This reduced resistance in the French colonies, since there was little interference with African affairs.

### Weaknesses of the association policy

Although the association policy was seen as an alternative to the assimilation policy, it did not succeed. For example, the appointed chiefs were criticised by their fellow Africans because they were seen as puppets of the French colonialists. The system was harsh, since liberty, fraternity and equality were not practised in administering the colonies. In addition, the policy created social divisions among people; for example, chiefs were more favoured than ordinary Africans. All these disrupted peace and order in the colonies.

### Impact of the association policy

From 1945, the association policy gave Africans the freedom of speech and the freedom to form political parties as well as trade unions. This led to the rise of nationalist movements in West Africa. Through these nationalist movements, Africans mobilised themselves under a political party to demand their independence. The association policy did not encourage the provision of education to Africans. Therefore, the number of African elites decreased because many of them could not afford to pay for their education. Africans were divided into new administrative areas such as provinces, districts, locations and sub-locations. These administrative areas were adopted by many former French colonies. In some areas, the provinces, districts, locations and sub-locations still exist. African chiefs and kings could not enjoy full sovereign rights, since they were still under French control.

**Exercise 3.3**

Examine the effects of abandoning one's own culture and adopting foreign culture.

**The difference between the association and assimilation policies**

Although the association and assimilation policies looked alike in practice, there were a few distinctions between the two. While assimilation involved making considerable efforts to develop social services in African colonies, association was largely used to create colonial government structures for easy exploitation of African resources.

Under the association policy, the position of African chiefs (local rulers) was restored although the chiefs were appointed by the French government. They were given duties of collecting taxes, recruiting labour and suppressing rural resistance. Under the assimilation policy, the duties were performed by the appointed federal officials who had no any traditional affiliation. On the other hand, the association policy was practised at a minimum cost. Moreover, the association policy introduced new military laws that required Africans to serve in the French army for a long period, while under the assimilation policy the military laws required Africans to serve the French army for a very short period of time so that they could become French citizens.

**The difference between indirect rule and the assimilation policy**

The assimilation policy was very expensive. For example, the French colonial government had to build schools, hospitals, railways, roads and churches to turn Africans into Frenchmen and women, since they regarded the colonies as integral parts or provinces of their home country. In contrast, the indirect rule system provided very few social services to facilitate the colonial pursuits. Unlike the French, the British used traditional political systems. Traditional chiefs were allowed to handle lower civil cases.

Indirect rule respected and preserved the position of traditional rulers and institutions. The way the French colonialists used the local traditional rulers undermined their traditional authority. The assimilation policy was aimed at creating French citizens, while indirect rule never gave that privilege to the African colonial subjects. In the French colonies, the assimilated Africans were given full legal and political rights as French citizens. All the French colonies were under one Governor General, who resided in Senegal and who was incharge

of all the French provinces. In contrast, under the British indirect rule system, each colony was under a Governor, who was fully autonomous.

**Activity 3.1**

- (a) With the help of your History teacher, visit a ward or district office and then interview the officers on the administrative history of the district.
- (b) Present your findings in class for discussion.

**Similarities among the colonial administrative systems**

Although the colonial administrative systems had different forms of organisation structures, philosophy and behaviour, they had some similarities in terms of practice, objectives and origins. All the systems were created by the European colonial masters as mechanisms for administering African colonies. Moreover, they were all presided over by the colonial state, which represented the interests of the European capitalist powers. All the systems had a similar objective, that is, to maintain law and order in the colonies so as to make the domination and exploitation of Africans easy. Thus, they were all aimed at making sure that the basic needs of the capitalists were easily met. These included raw materials, markets, areas for investment and cheap labour.

In all the systems, white men were given priorities and favour as members of a superior race compared to Africans. To a large extent, the top positions in the government were kept for the European colonialists, while the members of other races held lower positions.

The colonial administrative systems were a reflection of colonialism. The European colonialists established colonial rule by trying to make it acceptable to Africans who were unwilling to become their subordinates. As a result, each colonial power changed the administrative policy to suit its needs. All the administrative policies were aimed at promoting European culture and undermining African culture.

**Exercise 3.4**

Both assimilation and the association policies were unsuccessful. Use examples to justify this statement.

## Impact of the colonial administrative systems

The colonial administrative systems have affected African societies in many ways. Some of the effects are uneven development in the colonies. Indirect rule caused regional or district imbalances in terms of development in the same colonies. For example, in northern Nigeria, where indirect rule was used, the region was isolated from the rest of Nigeria. This has negatively affected the general development of northern Nigeria.

The colonial administrative policies focused primarily on fulfilling the European industrial demands. Therefore, Africans were subjected to forced labour and their fertile land was occupied by the European colonialists. As a result, a class of land squatters was created in many parts of Africa. These were simply landless people. For example, the Kikuyu in Kenya, the Ndebele in Zimbabwe and the Khoisan in South Africa lost their fertile land to Europeans; they faced poverty and other forms of suffering.

In the process, African culture was attacked and destroyed and African political institutions were undermined. The African traditional system of administration was totally disrupted as African chiefs could no longer exercise their judicial or executive powers; therefore, the traditional administrative skills and techniques needed to unite the state were disturbed. Wars and misunderstandings among Africans occurred in some colonies. For example, the division between Francophone Cameroon and Anglophone Cameroon has led to civil wars and insecurity after independence.

African traditional laws were replaced by unjust colonial laws. Some African countries inherited such laws. Through these administrative systems, the Europeans ruled Africans for several decades. Mistreatment was another effect of the colonial administrative systems. For example, some corrupt chiefs forced people to carry out orders from the colonial masters. They received bribes and kept some wealth for themselves. Heavy and other forms of taxes were also imposed on Africans. Africans were poorer than they had been before the establishment of colonialism.



**Activity 3.2**

With the help of your History teacher, prepare a debate on the positive and negative effects of the assimilation policy used in the West African French colonies. Debate in class or in any neighbouring school.

**Colonial military and legal institutions**

Colonial military and legal institutions refer to the coercive apparatus used in Africa during the colonial era. These institutions were responsible for keeping and maintaining law, order and security in the colonies. The two institutions worked together. The colonial military services consisted of a body of soldiers from Europe and the recruited African soldiers, police and prison wardens, while the legal institution consisted of the code of laws and the courts which worked hand in hand with the colonial military.

The colonialists found it difficult to impose colonial administration on African subjects owing to much African resistance. Therefore, in order to control Africans effectively, the colonialists introduced the colonial military and legal institutions.

**The colonial military**

The colonial military refers to the colonial armed forces. The armed forces included both Europeans and Africans. They comprised the army, police and prisons. Higher positions were occupied by Europeans and lower ones by Africans.

The colonial military system of defence was introduced in Africa to meet colonial needs. The colonial military supported the colonial state and protected both the internal and external imperialist interests. Good examples include the King's African Rifles (KAR) established in Malawi by the British in 1902 and the British Royal West African Frontier Force, which was a multi-battalion field force formed by the British colonial office in 1900 to garrison the West African colonies of Nigeria, Gold Coast (Ghana), Sierra Leone and Gambia. In 1928, it received royal support and became the Royal West African Frontier Force (RWAFF).

The process of recruiting and training colonial soldiers was essentially selective. The regions that posed a big challenge to the colonial interests were neglected.

For example, the people who lived in the economically disadvantaged regions were not included in the colonial military. In relation to training, more emphasis was put on physical training and less on mental training. It was important in preserving the status quo by making African soldiers loyal to the colonial system.

### Functions of the colonial military

- (a) The colonial military was established to defend the colonial administrators in the colonies and to safeguard colonial interests against internal and external pressures. For example, the police force maintained peace and security in the colonies for smooth exploitation of African resources;
- (b) The colonial military was also responsible for suppressing African resistance. The societies that tried to resist colonial law and order were suppressed by the colonial military. The colonial military protected the colonialists from external threats by other European countries. In case of resistance from Africans, the colonial police suppressed the Africans who demonstrated against the colonial government. A good example was the demonstration from cocoa farmers in the Gold Coast in the 1940s; the army and the police were called in to suppress the demonstration; and
- (c) The colonial military was a key factor in defending the interests of the imperialists. During the capitalist crisis, which mostly took place in Europe, Africans were involved in pursuing imperialist interests. For instance, during the First and Second World Wars, some Africans were recruited by force and participated in the two wars as soldiers, porters and cooks. In other cases, extreme force was used by the colonial army to evict natives from their fertile land. They gave the land to European settlers or established projects such as the construction of railways, roads, administration blocks, schools or hospitals on it. Figure 3.4 shows colonial soldiers.



**Figure 3.4:** Colonial soldiers

- (d) The colonial military was a vital instrument in developing the capitalist relations of production by involving Africans in colonial production activities. For example, Africans were integrated into the capitalist production processes through the payment of taxes, the cultivation of cash crops, land alienation and forced labour. The aim was to control and exploit Africans smoothly and maintain the capitalist relations of production in the colonies. The colonial police were charged with the task of maintaining law and order to create a conducive environment for colonial production;
- (e) The colonial military was responsible for collecting information, which strengthened colonial interests, and supervising different activities such as tax collection and the construction of infrastructure like roads, railways, prisons, hospitals, schools and churches. Colonial laws, orders and ordinances were used to force Africans to work and pay taxes; and
- (f) The colonial military penetrated into the interior parts of Africa for the purpose of maintaining order. Therefore, it was given the power to arrest criminals. This facilitated colonial invasion and domination during the early phases of colonial penetration and occupation.

**Activity 3.3**

- (a) With the help of your History teacher, visit nearby police and military stations to find out their functions in the society. Compare and contrast their functions with those of the colonial period. Have you noticed any changes? Explain them.
- (b) Present your findings in class for discussion.

**Colonial legal institutions**

Colonial legal institutions were the coercive state apparatus which dealt with legal matters during the colonial period. They advised the colonial government, received people's claims, provided guidelines and provided legal aid. In the British colonies, the legal institutions consisted of a council of elders, courts and prisons. The legal systems during the colonial era were managed by European judges who sentenced those who went against the oppressive colonial laws.

The legal institutions were established in the interest of the colonialists and were influenced by colonial administration in the colonies and metropolitan states. The council of elders was employed directly by the colonialists.

**Functions of the colonial legal institutions**

Throughout the colonial Africa, the legal institutions had the responsibility for interpreting and enforcing laws as well as receiving and handling people's claims. These laws were designed to ensure that Africans carried out various colonial activities. Since every colony had its own colonial matters, the legal institutions enforced laws or ordinances which forced Africans to undertake various matters and responsibilities. The legal institutions received and handled people's claims through courts and the council of elders. The council of elders dealt with African cases, while the courts handled both African and European claims.

These institutions were also responsible for suggesting amendment of laws, acts and ordinances. The amendments were largely influenced by various social, economic and political changes in the colony. For example, the Kenyan Resident Native Labour Ordinance of 1918, which stipulated that the squatters were supposed to work for 90 days a year on a settler farm, was amended to raise the number of working days to 180 a year.

However, like today's military and legal institutions, the colonial military and legal institutions are inseparable. They depended on each other. For example, the colonial military (prisons, in particular) imprisoned those who violated laws.

### Revision exercise 3

1. What do you understand by the following concepts?
  - (a) Direct rule system
  - (b) Assimilation policy
  - (c) Indirect rule system
  - (d) Colonial legal institutions
  - (e) Colonial military
  - (f) Association policy
2. Compare and contrast the direct rule system and the association policy adopted in Africa.
3. Why did the direct rule system fail in many African colonies?
4. "The colonial administrative systems in Africa were coercive in nature." Discuss this with examples.
5. What is the legacy of the colonial administrative systems in independent African governments?
6. Evaluate the effects of the colonial administrative systems on Africa.
7. Which colonial administrative system was the best of all? Why?
8. Show how coercive the police force was during the colonial era.
9. Assess the role played by the colonial military forces in the colonisation of Africa.
10. Explain the main functions of the colonial legal institutions in Africa.
11. Why did the French colonial government change its administrative policy in Africa after 1945?

# Chapter Four

## The colonial economy

### Introduction

*The establishment of colonialism in Africa in the late 19<sup>th</sup> century was mainly for exploiting Africa's resources. To ensure this, the European colonialists transformed the African economy so that it could respond to the colonial economic demands. The transformation of the African economy was done in many ways, for example, by establishing different sectors of the colonial economy. Africans were labourers in the colonial economic sectors and producers of raw materials to feed European industries. In this chapter, you will learn how the colonial economy was established, its objectives and features. You will also learn about various sectors of the colonial economy and colonial labour. The competences developed will enable you to articulate the ways in which your society can transform its economy from a raw material export-oriented economy to an economy that produces processed products for sustainable development.*

### Meaning of colonial economy

The term colonial economy refers to the system of production, distribution and consumption which was introduced in Africa by the colonialists to meet their economic interests. They needed cheap raw materials, markets, areas for investment, areas for settlement and areas from which to obtain cheap labourers. These necessitated the colonisation of Africa in the last quarter of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. During this period, Africa's self-sufficient economy was completely transformed so that it could fit into the world capitalist system.



## Objectives of the colonial economy

The imperialist countries established the colonial economy in Africa to overcome the problems of monopoly capitalism in Europe. Therefore, the establishment of the colonial economy was aimed at solving the problems associated with the industrial revolution in Europe. The following were the objectives of the colonial economy: It was aimed at ensuring that there was continuous supply of raw materials to European industries. Materials such as cotton, sisal, tobacco, tea, sugarcane, coffee and minerals, particularly diamond, coal, copper and gold, were highly needed in Europe.

The colonial economy was also established to make Africa a market for European industrial goods. Africa was used to solve the crisis of overproduction as a result of limited markets in Europe. African colonies were expected to consume European manufactured goods such as clothes, shoes, alcohol and mirrors. Moreover, the colonial economy was aimed at ensuring that cheap labour was available for colonial projects. The projects included the construction of infrastructure, agricultural plantations, mining and industrial production.

Furthermore, the colonial economy was aimed at raising revenues for sustaining the colonies. Taxes and fines were imposed on Africans. In addition, the colonial economy was aimed at getting areas for settling excess European population. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, European societies faced mass unemployment owing to advancement in industrial technology; where machines replaced human labour. This resulted in a remarkable increase in the number of unemployed people. Therefore, African colonies were expected to absorb the European unemployed population.

## Features of the colonial economy

- (a) The colonial economy was export-import oriented. The colonies specialised in the production and exportation of raw materials for the metropolitan industries and the importation of manufactured goods from Europe. The European economic needs determined what and how much should be produced in the colonies;
- (b) The colonial economy was characterised by the creation of a dependent economy in Africa. During this period, the African economy was made to respond to the world capitalist system. Africans produced what they did not consume and consumed what they did not produce. For example, they produced sisal, coffee, cocoa and cotton; in return, they received manufactured goods

such as shoes, mirrors and utensils. Whatever was produced in Africa in the form of cash crops or minerals was exported to Europe to feed European capitalist industries. Later, it was imported back to Africa as a manufactured good;

- (c) The colonial economy was characterised by the establishment of processing plants and small-scale manufacturing industries. The colonies were producers of the raw materials needed to feed industries in Europe. Import-substitution industries were set up so that they could produce consumer goods such as cigarettes, beverages, butter and soap to cater for the needs of colonial officials, settlers and other commercial and bureaucratic elites. Processing plants were also opened to reduce the bulkiness of raw materials for easy exportation to the metropole. Therefore, Africa remained a significant source of raw materials, markets and areas for investment;
- (d) The colonial economy practised a monocultural system of agricultural production. The colonies specialised in the production of one major crop. For example, Mauritius specialised in the production of sugarcane, the Gold Coast in cocoa and German East Africa in sisal. Zanzibar specialised in the production of cloves and Algeria in vines;
- (e) Colonial production was based on the use of the coercive apparatus. The colonial governments used coercive instruments like the police, courts and prisons to force Africans to produce more for export than for their own consumption. They also forced Africans to work in colonial economic sectors such as infrastructure and agriculture;
- (f) The colonial economy involved the construction of physical infrastructure. For example, roads and railways were built to transport raw materials from the interior to the coast for export and goods from the coast to the interior of Africa. Labourers were also transported to the plantations and mining centres. The same infrastructure was used to transport administrators to the interior and the army to various areas to suppress African resistance;
- (g) The colonial economy was dominated by Europeans. They established their trading companies in the colonies for exploiting African resources. The exploitative relations of production established were regulated and legitimised by the colonial state. The control centres were in the metropole, where these

big international corporations were based. The companies established in the colonies were branches of the imperialist companies. They could open and shut any market, since they monopolised all trading activities. The most notable companies included the Imperial British East Africa Company, German East Africa Company, the British South Africa Company and the International African Association;

- (g) The colonial economy was characterised by land alienation. This kind of alienation was common in plantation and settler dominated economies. Africans were evicted from their fertile land and forced to move to unfertile land. For example, the Kikuyu people in Kenya were evicted from their fertile highlands to unfertile areas; and
- (h) The colonial economy was money-oriented. Money was introduced in the colonies as a medium of exchange. The use of money facilitated the exploitation of African labour as Africans were forced to pay taxes and to buy European industrial goods such as clothes, beads, bicycles and hand hoes using money. Generally, the colonial state destroyed the self-sufficient African economies. Thus, all Africans were eventually forced into a dependent, money-based economy.

### **Tactics used to establish the colonial economy**

Establishment of the colonial economy led to the introduction of a new production system, different from Africans' subsistence economies. There were various methods used to establish the colonial economy in Africa. The major methods were preservation, creation and destruction.

#### **Preservation**

The European colonialists maintained some elements of the pre-colonial economy so that they could support the production of raw materials. The following were the most important aspects which were preserved:

#### **Primitive instruments of production**

Tools such as hand hoes, pangas and axes were preserved. These were the major instruments of production throughout the colonial period. Peasants used these simple traditional tools to produce cash and food crops. They had been using them before the introduction of colonial rule.

### **Family labour**

In the areas where the colonialists introduced a peasant economy such as Uganda, family labour was the basic unit of production throughout the colonial period. This limited division of labour hindered the development of science and technology among Africans.

### **Pre-colonial relations of production**

The colonialists preserved the pre-colonial relations of production. For instance, the Buganda system of land ownership remained under traditional authorities. However, the preserved relations of production now served the needs of the colonialists. Among the feudal societies, African families used their land to produce both food crops for consumption and cash crops for the colonial economy.

### **Destruction methods**

The colonial government destroyed the old systems of production that did not favour the colonial economy. It replaced them with new forms of production that would maximise the exploitation of African people and natural resources. The destruction method was employed as shown below.

### **Destruction of traditional agriculture**

The colonialists destroyed some African farming systems and replaced them with the new systems. Plantation and settler agriculture were part of the new forms of agricultural production. Plantation and settler economies led to intensive land alienation and used cheap labour. Most of the Africans under settler-dominated economies lost their fertile land and, hence, became dependent on the colonial system of production by selling their labour for survival.

### **Destruction of traditional industries**

African local industries were destroyed through the importation of manufactured goods from Europe. For example, the European colonialists destroyed African traditional weaving and iron-smelting industries in Ufipa; they replaced them with processing industries. In some parts of Africa, the destruction of African industries was mainly done by force. For example, in Belgian Congo, the Africans who engaged in iron smelting had their hands cut off. Therefore, traditional industries were largely weakened.

**Destruction of African culture**

The colonialists destroyed African values and belief systems to introduce western values and civilisation. African ways of life were severely influenced by European education, language use, dressing styles, eating manners, dancing styles, religion and political organisation.

**Destruction of African trading systems**

The colonialists destroyed the pre-colonial African barter trade and long-distance trade systems. Barter trade was discouraged through the introduction of money as a medium of exchange. Thus, African traders were denied trading opportunities. For instance, the Germans interfered with trading activities along the coast of German East Africa, while the British did the same in West Africa. Thus, the pre-colonial African trading systems were destroyed and new trading systems were introduced.

**Creation**

The colonialists created new economic structures which did not exist in traditional African economies. The following were the notable aspects of the colonial creation systems.

**Introduction of the money economy**

The money economy was introduced to force Africans to participate in the colonial economy. Almost every service and provision was accessed using cash. For example, buying goods, paying taxes and getting health services were all done using money.

**Introduction of taxation**

Taxes were paid in cash. Africans who failed to pay taxes were imprisoned and subjected to hard labour. Africans were forced either to produce cash crops or sell their labour in the colonial economic sectors in order to get cash for paying taxes. For example, in 1898 the Germans introduced a poll tax in German East Africa. In 1922, the British introduced a Poll Tax Ordinance, which stipulated that taxes could be converted into labour services in essential public works in Tanganyika.

**Land alienation**

In order to ensure that there was smooth undertaking of agricultural and mining activities in the colonies, the colonialists alienated land from Africans. The

colonial state enacted land ordinances which legalised private ownership of land and legitimised the alienation of African land for white settlers. In Tanganyika, for example, the 1923 Land Ordinance put all land under the British crown. Thus, if any piece of land was needed for building public service facilities such as schools, Africans would be evicted from their land. In Southern Rhodesia, the Land Distribution Act of 1923 demarcated separate areas for whites.

### **Construction of physical infrastructure**

The colonialists built infrastructure such as railways, roads, harbours and ports. They also constructed social and administrative infrastructure such as schools, hospitals, bomas, courts and prisons. All these were very important to the promotion and development of the colonial economy.

### **Creation of colonial labour**

Various strategies were employed to ensure a constant supply of cheap labour for colonial production. Some of the strategies included the use of force, communal labour, feudal relations, contract labour and migrant labour. However, migrant labour was preferred because it was cheap and safe.

#### **Exercise 4.1**

With the help of your History teacher, explain the various methods used by the colonialists to make Africans respond to the capitalist system.

### **Sectors of the colonial economy**

The colonial state established various production sectors in Africa. The sectors were established to meet the needs of the capitalist nations. The sectors included agriculture, mining, industry, commerce, finance as well as transport and communication systems.

#### **Agriculture**

There were three types of agricultural systems practised in African colonies, namely peasant, settler and plantation agriculture. Some colonies were predominantly subjected to one of these systems, while others combined two or more of the agricultural systems. Colonial agriculture was mainly based on the production of cash crops for export. The production of food crops was relatively neglected.



## Peasant agriculture

Peasant agriculture was the cheapest system of colonial agricultural production. It involved small-scale production of cash crops for the purpose of earning cash and producing food crops for subsistence. Peasants were allowed to engage in cash crop production around their homesteads. This system was practised in certain parts of Tanganyika such as the West Lake Province, Kilimanjaro and Mbeya. It was also dominant in the Gold Coast, Gambia, Nigeria, Northern Rhodesia, Uganda and Nyasaland.

At first, it was difficult for the colonial government to convince Africans to produce cash crops. Thus, missionaries collaborated with the colonial state in training and encouraging Africans to produce cash crops. At the beginning of the twentieth century, it was Christian converts who grew cash crops. This tactic, however, did not yield the quantities of cash crops needed.

The colonial state used force to break the self-sufficiency of the African economy. African chiefs and headmen were ordered to force Africans to produce cash crops. In return, they were given low wages and their offices were mainly maintained by the peasants who paid taxes and tributes.

## Features of peasant agriculture

Peasant agriculture produced both cash crops for sale and food crops for domestic consumption. Peasant agriculture was characterised by several features. Since the interest of the colonial masters was in producing cash crops, less time was dedicated to food crop production. Production was restricted to areas with dense populations and the supervision of production was under local authorities like chiefs and clan heads. Peasant agriculture was organised on small farms. The unit of production under this system was the family. Peasant agriculture was purposely encouraged to make Africans pay various taxes. Figure 4.1 shows examples of peasant farms in Africa.



**Figure 4.1:** Peasant farms

### Factors that led to the adoption of peasant agriculture

There were several factors which influenced the adoption of peasant production in colonial Africa. High population densities made the alienation of land from the local people rather difficult. Therefore, in areas with high population densities, the colonial state encouraged peasants to grow cash crops. This was the only way to sustain the colonial economy in such areas. In West Africa, for example, peasant cotton production was made compulsory for African farmers in Mali and Niger. In the Gezira plains of Sudan, between the Blue and White Nile, the British colonial government supported a vast irrigation scheme to promote cotton production by Africans.

Peasant agriculture was also successful in areas with strong centralised political systems. The colonialists experienced difficulties in establishing settler and plantation agriculture in areas which had developed centralised political systems; they feared costly resistance from African societies. In these areas, African societies could not guarantee the security and protection of the European colonialists on the plantations and settler farms. Therefore, the colonial state thought that peasant agriculture was the only option. Good examples of these areas were Buganda in East Africa and northern Nigeria in West Africa, where a peasant economy was strongly encouraged.

Moreover, some areas had adverse climate for European settlement. For example, Eastern Belgian Congo (Zaire) had difficult terrains and thick forests, which were hostile to Europeans. Thus, production was left under African peasants.

In areas that Africans had already established cash crop production, the colonial state did not disturb it. In some parts of Uganda, for example, missionaries had already introduced coffee farming. Likewise, in Igboland (southern Nigeria), palm oil production was already in practice. In both cases, the British encouraged the continuation of peasant farming.

The cost of production in peasant agriculture was much lower than settler and plantation agriculture. Peasants produced their own food and cash crops using hand-hoes and family labour. This made the peasant system much cheaper.

In the mandate/trustee territories, the colonial state invested little in plantation or settler agriculture. The colonialists were afraid to invest heavily in such places because the colonies could gain independence before any profit had been made.

## Peasant agriculture in Uganda

The urgent need to make Uganda a cash crop producing area faced two major challenges. These were the centralised political system in Uganda and the high population density. The two challenges influenced the colonial government's decision to adopt peasant agriculture in Uganda because the use of force could not produce conditions for cash crop production. Since there were no obvious mineral resources, agriculture was the best solution. The production of cotton and coffee was profitable and beneficial to both the colonial state and Africans.

Before the introduction of colonial cotton production, there was wild cotton found and used in Uganda. However, from 1903, new cotton seeds were imported into Uganda. The use of these new seeds was aimed at increasing production and maintaining the desired quality of cotton. The colonial state also introduced few ginneries to process raw cotton and constructed roads and railways to facilitate its transportation to the collection centres and onto the coast.

Thus, by 1914 cotton had become a major export in the colony. It was mainly grown in Buganda and Busoga. Apart from cotton coffee, rubber, sugar, groundnuts and simsim were also grown. In order to maintain peasant agriculture in Uganda the colonial government used the following measures:

- (a) It approved seeds for peasants. Rotten seeds were destroyed;
- (b) It set up ginneries in the cotton-producing areas to facilitate cotton processing;
- (c) It built transport networks such as roads and railways; for example, in 1928, a railway was built from Kampala to Jinja to serve the cotton growers of Busoga; and
- (d) It used colonial agricultural experts to provide technical support to peasants; for example, it encouraged peasants to use pesticides and agricultural extension services in their production activities.

## Effects of peasant agriculture

Peasant agriculture had various effects in the areas that practised it. The effects included intensification of colonial exploitation, since the colonialists paid low prices for African products. Famine became frequent in many countries, especially in Uganda and Nigeria. This was due to greater emphasis being placed on cash crop production and less on food crop production.

Peasant agriculture facilitated the development of a monocultural economy.

The colonialists forced peasants to concentrate on the production of one major cash crop. For example, Uganda produced cotton, Ghana cocoa and the Gambia groundnuts. Therefore, the monocultural economy reduced soil fertility and affected food production.

Peasant agriculture also promoted the development of social classes among Africans. The peasants who were progressive sent their children to colonial schools so that they could concentrate on crop production. This system also led to the classification of peasants based on their production capacity. The classification involved progressive farmers who cultivated more than ten acres, the middle-class farmers who cultivated less than ten acres and the poor farmers or peasants who cultivated around one acre to four acres. However, peasant agriculture strengthened local administration, since African chiefs were responsible for supervising colonial production activities.

### Plantation agriculture

Plantation agriculture was a system of production in which large farms on which cash crops were grown were owned and supervised by European companies. The system involved massive land alienation and intensive exploitation of African labour. Production in this form of agriculture was mainly for export. Some of the colonies in which plantation agriculture was dominant are Belgium Congo, Sudan, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Zanzibar, Madagascar, Mauritius and Tanganyika. Principally, Belgium Congo specialised in rubber production, Sudan specialised in cotton, Guinea produced bananas, Ivory Coast and Madagascar specialised in coffee, Zanzibar produced cloves, Mauritius focused on sugarcane production and Tanganyika specialised in sisal production. The aim of this system of agriculture was to produce enough agricultural raw materials to feed industries in Europe. Figure 4.2 shows some of the plantations opened in Africa.



**Figure 4.2:** *Plantations*



## Features of plantation agriculture

Plantation agriculture was characterised by large farms owned by foreigners. Most of the owners stayed in the metropole and employed farm managers to run and manage their businesses in the colonies. Usually, each company specialised in the production of a specific commodity. For example, in Tanganyika, areas like Morogoro, Kilimanjaro, Tanga and Lindi produced sisal. Clove was cultivated in Pemba. The French had large coffee and cocoa plantations in Cameroon and Burkina Faso.

Plantation agriculture was labour intensive. Many labourers were needed to work on the plantations. The labourers were recruited from both within and outside the colonies. These were known as migrant labourers. For example, the sisal plantations of Morogoro and Tanga recruited labourers from Kigoma, Mtwara, Ruvuma and Rukwa. The areas from which the labourers were recruited were known as labour reserves.

In addition, the plantation economy was capital intensive. Owners invested large sums of capital for agricultural mechanisation and infrastructure construction. For example, they bought tractors and fertiliser, built processing industries, paid wages and built workers' camps. There were also health facilities for treating workers so that they could continue producing.

Plantation agriculture facilitated the development of transport networks and communication facilities between plantations, processing industries, labour reserves, residences and associated markets. In most cases, the plantations were connected to railways and roads. In German East Africa, for example, the central railway was built to link the sisal plantations and labour reserves in the central and western provinces.

The plantations had estate managers and employees. The capitalists who owned the plantations appointed plantation managers (estate managers), who were in charge of the day-to-day activities. They had the power to recruit or lay off workers. They were also entrusted to manage the cultivation, harvesting and processing of raw materials. In colonial Africa, some Africans were given the power to supervise their fellow African labourers. For example, in German East Africa, African supervisors, popularly known as nyapara, supervised their fellow Africans who were called manamba (migrant labourers).

Plantation agriculture involved the use of machines such as tractors and caterpillars, as well as the application of fertiliser for high-quality and great quantity crop production.

### **Plantation agriculture in German East Africa**

The establishment of colonial agriculture in Tanganyika took a different route compared to Kenya and Uganda. In Tanganyika, it was not until 1900 when German settlers began to come along with Italians and Greeks. They were attracted mainly to Usambara and Kilimanjaro, although some of them went to the Rufiji Valley. Unlike Kenya, these settlers were unable to turn Tanganyika into a settler colony. Most of them opened their coffee farms in Kilimanjaro and around the Usambara mountains.

The colonial government realised that it could not finance the administration of the colony without making it produce raw materials for export. For that reason, in 1902, a Biological and Agricultural Institute was established in Amani, Tanga, to research on tropical agriculture. In 1905, Africans were taught how to cultivate cotton in Mpanganya in the Rufiji Valley. Coconut plantations were opened on the coast. However, the main emphasis was put on sisal growing.

Sisal was first imported from America in 1892 and soon proved successful in Tanganyika's climate. In the early 1900s, the rise of the price of sisal at world market made the crop very profitable. This forced the colonial government to construct a railway to open up new areas for growing sisal. Therefore, sisal plantations were opened in Morogoro, Lindi and Tanga. These areas were favoured because of various factors such as large land, the tropical climatic condition, the supply of labour from central and western Tanganyika, and the availability of capital from both companies and individual farmers. The Germans' intention was to get raw materials and create markets for German trade and industry, and not to turn Africa into a settler colony. Other types of agriculture were left to flourish alongside the plantation economy. In Usambara and Kilimanjaro, for example, settlers were left to grow coffee and tea, while peasants were allowed to engage in food and cash crop production. Therefore, the colonial economy drained raw materials from all three types of colonial agriculture.

### **Factors that led to the adoption of plantation agriculture**

The establishment of large plantations in such African colonies as Tanganyika and Ghana was influenced by different factors, including the availability of enough migrant labourers who moved from distant areas in the colonies to provide cheap



labour on plantations. Some colonies had appropriate and adequate land, which was sparsely populated. This enabled the colonial government to establish large farms for cash crop production. In addition, plantation agriculture was established in areas with weak centralised political systems. Furthermore, the hot climate characterised by high temperature in some areas like Tanganyika did not favour the settlement of Europeans. These areas were also vulnerable to diseases like malaria. Therefore, the areas were favourable for plantation agriculture, since this system did not need European settlement. Moreover, the areas that were developed in terms of infrastructure favoured plantation agriculture as it eased access and the transportation of products from the plantations to the markets.

### Effects of plantation agriculture

Plantation agriculture had various effects in the areas that practised it. First, most African land was taken by European capitalists. For example, in Tanganyika, the Germans took land for sisal production in Tanga and Morogoro. Secondly, plantation agriculture caused famine and hunger. This was because the recruitment of male labourers made family labour too weak to produce enough for the family. Moreover, plantation agriculture resulted in de-industrialisation. This was because all the raw materials were exported to Europe to feed their home industries, while the African industrial sector remained small and weak. It also led to the establishment of infrastructural facilities like roads and railways. The established infrastructure was necessary for the transportation of raw materials from the production areas to the coast for export. For instance, the railway from Dar es Salaam to Tanga facilitated the transportation of sisal and other crops.

#### Exercise 4.2

With examples, show how colonial plantation agriculture influenced the development of the agricultural system in modern Tanzania.

### Settler agriculture

This was a large-scale agricultural system established by white settler farmers in African colonies. The estates were owned by individuals who settled in the colonies to organise and supervise crop production. Settler agriculture was predominant in Zimbabwe, Kenya, Mozambique and Angola. Settlers had influence on the colonial state. Therefore, any policy made with respect to colonial production had to take into account the interests of the white settlers.

### Features of settler agriculture

The settler economy was large-scale farming; therefore, it was capital intensive. This means that it required much capital and advanced managerial skills. This form of agriculture was owned by European colonialists, who permanently settled in the colonies. It involved exploiting Africans through land alienation, taxation, forced labour and low wages.

Furthermore, it was most common in low temperature areas such as the Kikuyu highlands of Kenya, and Kilimanjaro and Arusha in Tanganyika. Figure 4.3 shows settler agriculture in Africa.



**Figure 4.3:** *Settler plantation (tea estate)*

#### Exercise 4.3

Use appropriate literature to show why the colonial powers did not encourage settler agriculture in West Africa.

## Settler agriculture in Kenya

European settlers appeared in Kenya from the mid-1890s, but it was not until the British policy of deliberate encouragement that they began to arrive in large numbers. They came mainly from Britain and South Africa. Few came from Australia, New Zealand and Canada. They believed that they could turn Kenya into a “white man’s country”. Some brought considerable amount of capital with them, hoping that this capital would be invested in farms for cash crop production.

Among the earliest settlers to arrive in Kenya was Lord Delamere, who quickly acquired land and started to practise large-scale agriculture. He started with wheat and coffee cultivation, as well as animal keeping. Almost all settlers followed the same pattern.

Land and labour were major issues during the establishment of settler agriculture in Kenya. These issues caused frictions between the settlers and Africans, particularly the Kikuyu, who saw much of their land being taken by the growing number of settlers.

The colonial state interfered to ensure that enough land and labour for settler production was available. The colonial government took measures which included passing land ordinances that legalised private ownership of land and legitimised the alienation of African land to white settlers. The colonial state also introduced tax which forced Africans to find additional ways of earning money. For example, a poll tax was introduced to force Kenyans to work on settler farms to get cash for paying tax. The government constructed infrastructures so that settler production could run smoothly in the colony. The Mombasa-Nairobi railway was built from 1892 to 1899. It was extended to Nakuru and Jinja in 1928. The roads were also improved and extended.

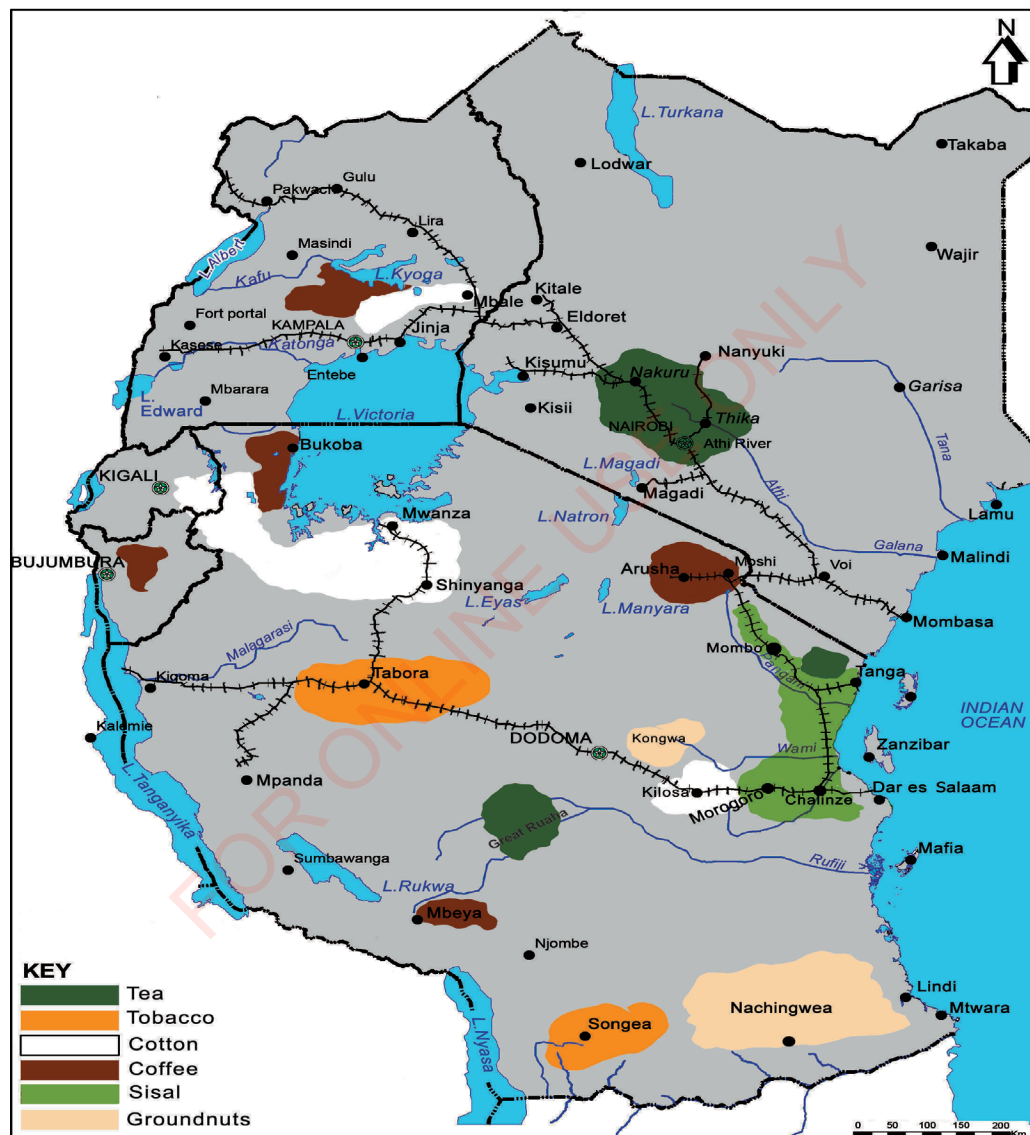
The greater part of this improvement in communication was primarily intended to support the settlers. The government subsidised the settlers with fertilisers, seeds and seedlings. They were also given compensation by the government when they had poor harvests. As a result, settler agriculture flourished in Kenya.

## Effects of settler agriculture

Settler agriculture had various effects in areas where it was practised. It led to severe land alienation within the colonies because Africans were forced out of their fertile land to make room for settler production. It also provoked strong African resistance because of the harsh conditions imposed on Africans like forced labour, taxation and land alienation. Moreover, it encouraged uneven development within the colonies. The areas occupied by settlers were more highly favoured than those which had no settler activities. For example, central



Kenya (Kenyan highlands) was more developed than other parts because of the presence of settlers there. Similarly, settler agriculture resulted in the exploitation of African labour. Africans were required to offer labour power on settler farms for long working hours for low wages. For example, in Kenya, the Master and Native Servants Act of 1906 stipulated that squatters had to work for the settlers for 90 days a year at a minimal wage. Settler agriculture also led to the establishment of various oppressive laws. For example, the Registration Ordinance of 1921 required each African adult to carry a registration card known as a *Kipande*, which showed completion or non-completion of a task. Figure 4.4 shows the areas and cash crops produced during the colonial era in East Africa.



**Figure 4.4:** *Cash crop production areas in colonial East Africa*

**Activity 4.1**

With the help of historical sources, identify one major cash crop in your area and then answer the following questions:

- When was it introduced in colonial Tanzania?
- What is its origin?
- Is it for export or for consumption within the country?
- If it is for export, explain where is it exported?
- Can the same crop be used for industrial development in Tanzania? If yes, explain how?

**The mining sector**

Mining was another important sector of the colonial economy in Africa. The prospect of obtaining minerals was one of the reasons for the colonisation of Africa. The minerals needed included iron, gold, diamonds, copper and tin. The need for potential precious minerals gained great momentum after the discovery of diamond in Kimberley in 1867 and gold in Witwatersrand in 1886. For example, the British colonisation of Southern Rhodesia and Northern Rhodesia was an attempt by Cecil Rhodes' British South Africa Company (BSAC) to find another 'rand' in Central Africa.

One of the immediate effects of the establishment of a mineral-based economy was large-scale land expropriation. In Swaziland, for example, the biggest part of the country was by 1907 owned by mineral companies. When the territory was partitioned, settlers and mineral prospectors got two-thirds of the country.

**Features of the colonial mining sector**

The following were the characteristic features of the mining sector in Africa:

- The sector preferred migrant labourers because the local labourers were not readily available. They could quit after meeting their needs. However, migrant labourers could stay in the mines for a specified period of time;
- Mines were owned by European companies. The companies had the right to remove Africans from their land to extend their mining activities. They exclusively extracted minerals for their own profit. For example, in South

Africa, De Beers Company had complete monopoly of the Kimberley diamond mine. Likewise, in Belgian Congo, the *Union Minière du Haut-Katanga* (UMHK) had exclusive control of copper mining in Katanga;

- (c) The labour camps that accommodated African labourers were poorly equipped with sanitation facilities. In addition, there was a shortage of water. All these caused frequent eruption of diseases in the mines. The most common diseases were skin diseases, water-borne diseases and hearing problems. A good example was in the 1880s when skin and water-borne diseases were common problems in South Africa, particularly in the Kimberley mines; and
- (d) Mines were also characterised by poor working conditions. African miners worked under very poor conditions. There were frequent accidents that injured African workers and killed others in the mines. In some cases, these conditions led to the emergence of strikes and boycotts; for example, in the copper belt in Northern Rhodesia, miners resisted harsh working conditions.

### Trade

Trade was mostly dominated by European capital, which facilitated trade and commerce in the colonies. The capital injected in the commercial sector came from the metropole. It was poured into the colonies to facilitate the circulation of industrial imports as well as the collection and marketing of raw materials.

Finance capital facilitated large trading and commercial companies, which had exclusive monopoly of the import-export trade between the colonies and the metropole. Examples of these large trading companies were the United African Company (U.A.C.) and the African and Eastern Trading Corporation (A.E.T.C.), which operated in British West Africa. In French West Africa, there was *Société Commerciale de l'Afrique Occidentale* (S.C.I.O.). In East Africa, there was the Smith-Mackenzie and Company Ltd.

Within the colonies, there were various middlemen or traders who played a vital role in the distribution of imported industrial goods from Europe. They also collected and marketed the raw materials produced by peasants. In most cases, Asians served as middlemen. In West Africa, for example, the middlemen were Lebanese and Syrians, while in East Africa Arabs and Indians served as middlemen. These owned shops in urban centres and widely travelled and marketed goods and raw materials in the colonies. There were also a few Africans who participated in the trade as traders. This is because there were certain restrictions prohibiting them so that they could



mainly serve as producers of raw materials. Both the large European trading companies and middlemen traders secured large credit and financial support from the banks and various financial institutions established in the colonies. These large banks and financial institutions were branches of capitalist banks in the metropole.

### Features of colonial trade

Colonial trade was based on exporting raw materials and importing consumable goods such as sugar, cooking oil, maize flour, kerosene and soap. These were basic goods which were needed for domestic use.

The trade was monopolised by European companies. Examples of the companies were *Société Commerciale de l'Afrique du Nord* (SCAN) from France and the British-controlled United Africa Company (UAC), which operated in West Africa. In East Africa, there were the Smith Mackenzie and Dalgety British companies. Asians served as middlemen and controlled retail businesses in towns. They owned shops and took over almost all buying and selling activities in the rural areas. Trading activities were concentrated in towns. This was because the money economy consolidated itself in towns compared to the villages. The trade done in the villages flourished at the time of harvesting crops as villagers could sell their crops and buy some manufactured goods. Europeans' trading activities were mostly conducted in towns, where European and African petty bourgeoisie lived. The pattern of colonial trade dictated that Africans produce raw materials and Europeans produce manufactured goods to be consumed in the colonies. This pattern favoured the European trading companies, which made huge profits by exploiting African peasants and workers.

### Industry

The industrial sector was the smallest of all the production sectors of the colonial economy. The few industries set up were mainly concerned with secondary processing and were import-substitution industries such as food canning and bottling industries. The industrial sector was dominated by processing industries, which facilitated the export of raw materials by reducing their bulkiness to keep the cargo charges low. This was because colonialism mainly aimed to produce raw materials for metropolitan industries. Thus, spinning mills and cotton ginneries were set up in colonies such as Sudan, Nigeria and Mozambique. Tobacco curing factories were established in Nyasaland and copper refineries were established in

## Northern Rhodesia and Belgium Congo.

The import-substitution industries were not intended to produce goods for the mass markets in the colonies. They were intended to meet the consumption needs of the colonial ruling class, settlers and, to a small extent, the emerging African petty bourgeoisie. This is why in the settler colonies import-substitution industries were more developed than in the non-settler colonies. The colonial state made sure that the industries so established did not disturb the production of raw materials for export.

### Features of the colonial industrial sector

Most of the colonial industries processed raw materials and were built near or in production areas such as plantations and mines. They were mainly built to reduce the bulkiness of raw materials for easy transportation. The goods produced in industries were basic consumer goods such as soap, butter and cigarettes. These goods were produced by import-substitution industries to cater for the needs of the European colonial administrators, settlers and few Africans.

The industrial sector was the smallest of all the sectors of the colonial economy. This is because the European colonialists wanted to retain Africans as producers of raw materials and consumers of European manufactured goods. In some areas, Africans were prohibited to engage in local industrial production; thus, they remained consumers of the goods supplied to the colonies. The colonial governments ensured that there were no or very few manufacturing industries in the colonies. Moreover, the industries were unevenly distributed.

#### Exercise 4.4

Relate the development of the colonial industrial sector with the present industrial sector in Tanzania.

### Colonial financial institutions

The colonial financial institutions were another sector of the colonial economy that provided bank and insurance services. The services were very important in sustaining the import-export economy in the colonies. Banks offered loans to European companies and businessmen. This meant that investments in the colonies largely depended on the banks.

In the early years of colonial rule, the banks which operated in Africa were very small and independent. However, from the late 19<sup>th</sup> century onwards, big banks from Europe entered colonial Africa. In 1924, for example, the *Banque Commerciale de L'Africa* was opened in the French colonies. It was later combined with the French bank *Credit Lyonnais*. At the same time, the British Bank of British West Africa, financed by the Lloyd Bank of London, operated in West Africa.

In the East African colonies, Standard Bank was introduced in Kenya in 1895. Likewise, in German East Africa, the Germans established German East Africa Bank in 1905. When the British took over the German territory they established East Africa Currency Board (EACB) in 1919. The board introduced the pound/shilling system of exchange. As a result, there was an increase in monetisation in the colony. Generally, nine foreign banks existed in East Africa after the First World War, the two big banks being Standard Bank and Barclays Bank. These banks accumulated huge profits by draining African wealth. As the banks worked to benefit European investors, common African peasants hardly secured any loans from them.

### Features of the colonial financial institutions

Most of the financial institutions in the African colonies were branches of metropolitan companies. For example, Standard Bank, which operated in East Africa, was a branch of Standard Bank based in Britain. Similarly, the *Banque Commerciale de L'Africa* was a branch of the French bank *Credit Lyonnais*. In this way, the financial institutions in the colonies were foreign dominated. The investments in various sectors of the economy such as agriculture, industry, trade and mines largely depended on the loans provided by the banks. However, the financial institutions discriminated against Africans. For instance, African peasants and workers in the colonies did not enjoy the provision of loans and other financial services. Such services were given to European settler companies and traders.

The financial institutions were few in number, but large in their scope of operation. They controlled every economic activity in the colonies. In addition, the price of peasant crops and the wages of labourers were determined by them.

### Transport and communication

Transport and communication systems were established to ensure smooth

exploitation of the colonies. While some Africans were turned into commodity producers or labourers on plantations and settler farms, other Africans were employed in the construction of railways, roads and harbours.

### Activity 4.2



- (a) In a group, conduct a library study to find out the conditions of the transport and communication networks during the colonial era.
- (b) Compare such conditions with the present situation.
- (c) What changes have you noticed?
- (d) Present your findings in class for discussion.

### Functions of the colonial transport and communication networks

Roads and railways were used to carry raw materials from the production areas to the nearest ports for export to the capitalist countries. They were also used to transport labourers from the labour reserves to the colonial production centres. Migrant labourers helped to ensure constant supply of labour in the colonial economy. Similarly, the transport and communication networks were used to transport administrators and military personnel. The colonial administrators and military personnel were very useful for administering the colonies and suppressing resistance or boycotts.

The railways and roads were used to transport and supply European manufactured goods from the coast to different parts in the colonies. In that case, the middlemen were able to penetrate into the interior of the colonies to access markets for the imported goods.

The communication networks such as telegraphs and telephone lines simplified communication between the colonial state and the metropole. They were also used to administratively coordinate various colonial activities.

### Patterns of the colonial transport and communication networks

The patterns of colonial transport and communication networks reflected their functions in the colonies. Most transport and communication networks were

established around the commercial towns, production areas, white settlements, ports, military camps and administrative areas. Areas with less production or labour reserves were ignored. Generally, railway lines and roads were constructed to serve commodity-producing areas and, thus, they ran perpendicular to the coast.

There were a number of railway lines in East Africa. The Germans built the Tanga railway line in 1893 and reached Mombasa in 1905. It was extended to Moshi in 1912. They also constructed the central railway line from Dar es Salaam to Morogoro from 1905 to 1907. The line reached Tabora in 1912 and Kigoma in 1914. It was extended by the British after the First World War from Tabora to Mwanza in 1928. The British constructed the Kenya-Uganda railway. It started in Mombasa in 1896 and reached Nairobi in 1899. By 1928, the railway had been extended to Jinja and Kampala by Indians.

The roads and railways were primarily intended to transport raw materials from the interior to the coast for export. They also facilitated the importation and distribution of industrial goods from Europe in the colonies. The railway network in Central and Southern Africa provide an excellent example of the major characteristic of the colonial transport system. The copper mines in Northern Rhodesia were linked by railway to Beira on the Indian Ocean coast and to Benguela on the Atlantic Coast. Southern Rhodesia was served by railway lines linking its production centres with the ports of Beira in Mozambique as well as Cape Town and Durban in South Africa.

In West Africa, railway lines also served the raw material producing areas in the interior. In Nigeria, for instance, the railway line from Lagos was intended to reach Cairo in the north for transporting the cotton produced in the northern parts of the country. Similarly, the railway lines from Accra to Kumasi in Ghana were intended to serve the cocoa-producing area. Roads were constructed as feeders to the railway lines. This was the case in East Africa, where the Germans built the central railways in German East Africa to link the sisal plantation areas with the ports and labour reserves. In Kenya and Uganda, the British built the Mombasa -Nairobi-Kampala railway to link the Kenyan and Ugandan coffee and tea plantations to the port of Mombasa.

Besides the railways, roads, harbours and telecommunication lines played an important role in the colonial economy. They provided communication links between the colonies and the metropole. Figure 4.5 shows the patterns of railways and ports in East Africa during the colonial era.



**Figure 4.5:** Patterns of railways and harbours during the colonial era in East Africa



## Impact of the colonial economy in Africa

- (a) The establishment of various sectors of the colonial economy in Africa was the beginning of the integration of the African economy into the capitalist system. African colonies were made to produce raw materials used by European industries in the metropole. The cash crops produced in Africa such as sisal, cotton, coffee, rubber and cocoa were all consumed in Europe. Africans depended on European manufactured goods. In that way, the African economy became an integral part of the European capitalist economy. It is still the case in most African countries as they continue to produce raw materials for the industries of developed countries. Likewise, most of the products consumed by Africans are imported from developed nations such as the United States of America (USA), Britain, China and Japan;
- (b) The African self-sufficient economy was destroyed. This resulted in the creation of a dependent economy. The colonial state established this economy in order to make Africans produce what they did not consume and consume what they did not produce;
- (c) The establishment of various sectors of the colonial economy in Africa created regional development imbalances. Areas with colonial economic interests were highly developed, while those with fewer capitalist interests were ignored. For example, the southern part of Tanganyika and the northern part of Kenya had little to offer to the colonial economy. Consequently, these regions were ignored by the colonial state. Transport and communication networks and social services such as education, health, tap water and electricity were very limited in such places. That situation continued for some decades after independence;
- (d) Different colonial social services were introduced in Africa. Roads, railways, ports, telegraphic lines, schools and hospitals were all built to help with colonial production. They were built around missionary centres, in areas with a white population and in centres of colonial production. In South Africa, for example, the Cape Town railway was constructed to link the white settlements and the administrative area of Cape Town and gold mines in Witwatersrand and Kimberly to the labour reserves in Mozambique;

After independence, the Tanzanian government made a commendable effort to ensure that there is equal distribution of social services and a regional economic balance. One of the measures taken was the elimination of all elements of segregation in the provision of social services. This can be seen in both rural and urban areas, where roads, railways, hospitals, health centres and schools are built. Likewise, industrial development and other economic projects are promoted in the whole country; and

- (e) Many Africans migrated to urban areas and production centres. These areas had modern sanitation, electricity, pipe-borne water, roads, medical services and schools compared to rural areas. The migration of people from different parts to the production areas led to the integration of Africans from different ethnic backgrounds. This later formed a foundation of African unity against colonial rule.

### Colonial labour

Colonial labour refers to the manpower recruited and acquired for the colonial projects. Labour was needed for constructing infrastructure such as roads, railways, government offices as well as prisons, and for facilitating production on plantations and in industries and mines.

### Types of colonial labour

The colonialists used different types of colonial labour in various sectors of the colonial economy. The following were the types of colonial labour in Africa:

- (a) Forced labour, which appeared in two forms.
  - (i) *Direct forced labour*: Under this system, Africans were forced to provide labour as domestic workers in the houses of colonial masters, on agricultural plantations and in the construction of roads and railways. The colonial administrators forced Africans to provide labour without paying them.
  - (ii) *Indirect forced labour*: The colonial state ordered Africans to pay taxes. Therefore, Africans had to work in various sectors to obtain money for paying taxes. Anyone who failed to pay tax was punished, including being imprisoned. For example, in British East Africa, the Nyamwezi and Sukuma of Tabora, Shinyanga and Mwanza worked on coconut and clove plantations in Zanzibar to earn money for paying tax.

- (b) *Contract labour*: Under this system, African workers were required by law to provide labour to their employers for a specified period of time by signing a contract. Unless the contract was renewed, the labourers were sent back to their homes. Therefore, the colonial administration established agencies for recruiting labour. For example, the Sisal Labour Bureau (SILABU) was established in 1944 so that it could recruit the workers who worked on sisal farms for a specific period in Tanganyika.
- (c) *Permanent wage labour*: Under this kind of labour, the employer told labourers to work in the colonial projects. They were paid wages either weekly or monthly.
- (d) *Migrant labour*: was another type of colonial labour used by the colonialists. It was common in the mines, settlers' estates and plantation economies. To make sure that there was constant supply of labour, the colonial government created labour reserves, which were far from the coastal areas. Examples include Iringa, Njombe, Kigoma, Mtwara and Lindi. The labourers from these reserves worked on sisal plantations in Tanga and Morogoro. The colonialists preferred migrant labour because of its advantages. The following were the reasons for the colonialists' preference for migrant labour:
- (i) Migrant labour was very cheap to maintain. Labourers were paid low wages. This was done to make them work for a long period of time. Similarly, migrant labour was a source of colonial revenue because taxes were easily collected from labourers;
  - (ii) It was a source of market for European finished goods. The colonialists brought finished goods like iron sheets, wines, sugar, shoes and clothes, which were normally brought at the end of the month;
  - (iii) Migrant labourers were easy to control. In the camps, labourers were lodged along their ethnic groups. Each group was under the supervision of an ethnic leader. Labourers shifted from one camp to another. In this way, class consciousness among migrant labourers was very minimal; and
  - (iv) Migrant labour ensured constant supply of labour. Since labourers were kept in camps, far away from their families and relatives, they had no direct family commitment and much of their time was devoted to colonial production activities. In Tanganyika, such camps were established in Tanga, Kilosa, Iringa and Songea.

### The challenges of using migrant labour

Although migrant labour produced super profits, it had certain problems. The employer was not guaranteed of an immediate replacement after a labourer had returned home; this affected production activities. The migrant labourers were unskilled. Therefore, they could not work in sectors such as mining, transport and industry. This was because, by the time the labourers started to gain skills and experience, they were shifted to other places. To solve this problem, labourers were encouraged to come with their families to create permanent labour force. In the Katanga mine, for example, when a labourer wanted to marry, he would be given his money in advance to pay the bride price.

#### Activity 4.3



In a group, visit a Village Executive Officer (VEO) or a local government officer to find out the different mechanisms used by the Tanzanian government to encourage its citizens to participate in economic activities.

### Tactics used to create colonial labour

The colonial government used various tactics to create colonial labour and ensure constant supply of labour. The following were the tactics used to create colonial labour:

#### Transformation of slave labour into wage labour

This involved recruiting slave labourers in two main ways. The first was by hiring slaves from their slave masters so that they could work in the colonial projects. The second involved buying slaves.

#### Introduction of forced labour

Another method used by the colonial state to obtain labour was the use of force. Initially, the colonialists coercively recruited Africans around the settler farms and plantations. The colonial government also introduced labour ordinances and policies which forced Africans to work in the colonial development projects.

#### Importation of foreign labourers

From the 1890s, the German colonialists in German East Africa imported Chinese, Indonesian and Javanese labourers from Asia. They believed that Asian

labourers were energetic and hardworking. However, this form of labour was later abandoned owing to high costs and resistance against the German oppressive labour conditions.

### **Introduction of migrant labourers**

This involved recruiting African labourers from distant areas within or outside the colonies. In Tanganyika, for example, labourers were recruited from Kigoma, Ruvuma, Tabora and Shinyanga. They worked on sisal and tea plantations in Tanga, Morogoro and Kilimanjaro.

### **Importation of European manufactured goods**

The need for cash for buying manufactured goods made Africans provide labour in the colonial production centres. For example, in Tanganyika, people from such labour reserves as Dodoma, Kigoma and Tabora were forced to move to Tanga and Morogoro to earn cash on sisal plantations. Africans had to work to get money for buying imported manufactured goods such as clothes, bicycles and foodstuffs.

### **Payment of low wages**

In order to solve labour shortages in Africa, the colonial state paid workers low wages. This method ensured constant supply of labour in the plantation and mining areas. The low wages given to the labourers could not sustain their daily needs; therefore, they were obliged to sell labour continuously.

### **Introduction of the money economy**

Monetisation of the colonial economy forced Africans to offer labour in the colonial economic sectors in order to get cash. Money was used as a medium of exchange. For example, in order to obtain money for buying manufactured goods and meeting social obligations such as paying the bride price, people had to sell labour power in various sectors.

### **Establishment of labour agencies**

The colonial state initiated various labour agencies to ensure constant supply of labour. For example, the Sisal Labour Bureau (SILABU) was formed by British employers in 1944 as an effective labourers' recruitment agency. The labourers worked on sisal plantations. In Tanganyika, SILABU satisfied the need for labour for ten years, from 1944. It recruited the Makonde and the Yao for the Tanga

sisal plantations. Others came from Kigoma and Rukwa for the sisal plantations in Morogoro. Another agency of the same nature was the Witwatersrand Native Labour Association (W.N.L.A.) in South Africa.

### **Introduction of tax in cash**

The colonial government introduced tax in the form of cash. Therefore, Africans had to work in the colonial economic sectors to earn money for paying tax. The head/poll tax paid to the colonial government is a good example.

### **Land and cattle expropriation**

This was done in areas with large farms and plantations and in areas rich in minerals. Therefore, the people whose land and cattle were taken had to seek employment in the colonial economic sectors for their survival.

### **Impact of colonial labour on African societies**

African labourers were paid low wages to ensure constant supply of labour to colonial investments. This intensified the exploitation of African labour. The system of migrant labour also disturbed the traditional rural social life. Many families were separated from their members through migrant labour. Different households experienced shortages of manpower, which could have been engaged in production. Strong men worked in the colonial production sectors, leaving children and women who could not produce enough in the families. As a result, families suffered a shortage of food and other basic needs. Moreover, migrant labour caused in the spread of diseases, especially tuberculosis and Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs).

To a great extent, colonial labour increased the production of raw materials to sustain the metropolitan government. The constant supply of labour power in cash-crop production helped to ensure maximum production for export. Colonial labour also created a market for manufactured goods like sugar, salt and food. It facilitated the spread of Western culture and attitudes. Migrant labour spread Western culture in the form of language and dressing style to rural areas.

In some areas, extremely low wages and poor working conditions forced Africans to resist wage labour. African labourers began to react to colonial exploitation through the formation of labour unions to increase their collective bargaining power with the colonial government. Colonial labour was structured along racial lines. The colonialists kept African workers unskilled and uneducated to prevent the emergence of working-class consciousness.



## Revision exercise 4

1. Briefly explain the following concepts:
  - (a) Settler agriculture
  - (b) Forced labour
  - (c) Colonial trade
  - (d) Peasant agriculture
  - (e) Plantation agriculture
2. Discuss the main strategies used by the colonial state to establish and consolidate settler agriculture in Kenya.
3. Explain the significance of agriculture in the colonial economy.
4. Describe the main features of the colonial economy in Africa.
5. Discuss the main methods used to establish the colonial economy in East Africa.
6. Examine the patterns and functions of the colonial transport and communication networks.
7. Describe the types of colonial labour and their impact on the newly independent African countries.
8. Analyse the tactics used to ensure a constant supply of labour to the colonial economic activities.
9. Assess the effects of colonial labour in African societies.
10. Why did the colonialists prefer migrant labour to other forms of labour?
11. Discuss the mechanisms the colonialists used to destroy indigenous economies of East African societies.

# Chapter Five

## Colonial social services

### Introduction

*After establishing the colonial economy, the colonialists provided different social services to facilitate exploitation of the colonies. The social services provided were water, health and education, as well as transport and communication. The services were for the colonial officials and were provided in the areas where production activities took place. In this chapter, you will learn about the concept of colonial social services, their objectives, features, weaknesses as well as their impact on African societies. The competences developed will enable you to appreciate the efforts made by Tanzanians in different phases of leadership to provide social services. They will also help you to suggest possible ways of improving the provision of social services in modern African societies.*

### Meaning of colonial social services

Colonial social services refer to all the services provided by the colonial government and its agencies during the colonial era. They include education, health, water supply and housing. In the colonies, these services were mainly provided by the colonial state and missionaries, especially in the areas that produced raw materials. The colonial state provided the services to maintain the colonial economy.

### Colonial education

Colonial education refers to the process through which Africans were introduced to new experiences, knowledge, skills and values that were considered necessary for facilitating colonial objectives. It replaced the traditional education system, which existed before colonialism. Schools were owned by the colonial government and missionaries. Mission schools such as Tanga School (Tanga), Peramiho

(Ruvuma), Tosamaganga (Iringa), Mahenge (Morogoro), Ndala (Tabora), Rutabo and Katoke (Kagera), Kilema (Kilimanjaro) and St. Andrew at Kiungani (Zanzibar) were opened in several areas in Tanganyika. There were two types of government schools, namely native schools and central government schools. The native schools were built in rural areas and intended to teach literacy and numeracy to few African children. They also provided vocational skills such as carpentry and masonry. The central government schools were established in urban areas. Few schools admitted European children, some admitted Indian children and very few admitted African children.

### Activity 5.1

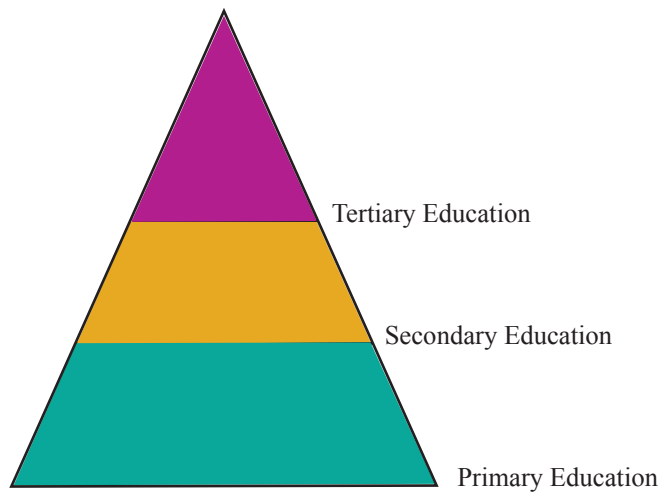


- (a) In groups, conduct a mini-research to find out ways to improve the provision of quality education in Tanzania.
- (b) Present your findings in class for discussion.

### Content and structure of colonial education

Colonial education was categorised into three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary levels, including teacher education. At the primary level, there were government and missionary primary schools. Basically, the curriculum comprised literacy, numeracy, hygiene and citizenship subjects. The education provided was aimed at preparing children to be cash-crop producers. In Tanganyika, lower primary education ranged from Standard One to Standard Four, and upper primary education from Standard Five to Standard Eight.

At the secondary level, education was given to only few children who could offer services in the colonial government and industries as workers, clerks and messengers at low wages. Examples of such schools were Tanga School and Tabora School during German colonial rule. In the technical and teacher education, they used ethnic community languages and Swahili as media of instruction. English was used at the upper levels that trained teachers and clerks. In East Africa, for example, Makerere Technical College was built in 1921 to offer training in the field of medicine, agriculture, carpentry and teaching. Figure 5.1 shows a pyramidal structure of colonial education.



**Figure 5.1:** *Pyramidal structure of colonial education*

### Objectives of providing colonial education

Colonial education was aimed at promoting the colonial economy by providing Africans with knowledge of raw material production and by training lower-level workers like clerks and office attendants. Africans were expected to be loyal to their colonial masters. These were trained to work in the colonial government departments, settlers' centres and mission centres. Besides, such education was aimed at training sons of chiefs, sultans and rich land owners in order to produce loyal local leaders who could serve the colonial state. Moreover, it was intended to instil in the minds of Africans the European mindset and cultural values such as language, obedience and submissiveness towards the colonial administration.

Generally, colonial education was aimed at achieving the capitalist economic objectives. However, the objectives could not be achieved because missionary education focused on literacy, while the colonial government was interested in the preparation of few Africans who could help it run the colonial economy. Furthermore, it was aimed at promoting the divide and rule policy among Africans so as to rule them easily. This situation was clear during the struggle for independence when the elite did not join political parties for fear of losing their jobs.

#### Exercise 5.1

Explain the main goal of colonial education and its impact in modern African societies.

## Features of colonial education

Colonial education had features that differentiated it from other types of education. Some of the features are:

- (a) Colonial education was pyramidal in shape because the number of African pupils who accessed education decreased as the levels increased. This was different from the European and Asian pupils;
- (b) Colonial education was segregative in nature. Three different types of schools were opened in the colonies. There were special schools for European children. The schools offered quality education. The Asians (Indians and Arabs) had their own school systems which were developed primarily using financial support from the Asian communities themselves. Finally, there were schools for African children. The education offered to African children was of low quality. It was intended to produce a lower-level civil servants such as warrant chiefs, tax collectors, ward attendants (dressers) in hospitals, watchmen, messengers and soldiers;
- (c) The content of education varied from one type of school to another (Europeans, Asians and Africans). European schools emphasised literacy and general knowledge and used European languages as media of instruction. For example, during the German colonial period European children were taught in the German language, but after 1918 the British used English as a medium of instruction. The curriculum of African schools centred on vocational education and the use of native languages as medium of instruction in bush schools. Kiswahili was used in most of the central government schools. Africans received this kind of education as a way of preparing them to become producers of raw materials and servants in the colonial government;
- (d) Colonial education was gender biased. It provided education mainly to boys. Moreover, sons of chiefs were educated so that they would be influence rulers in the interest the colonialists. It was until much later that girls' education began to expand;
- (e) Colonial education was also regionally based. Many schools were built in cash-crop producing regions like Kilimanjaro, Tanga, Kagera and Mbeya. Few schools were built in the regions set aside as labour reserves such as Mtwara, Lindi, Rukwa and Kigoma. Areas which were unproductive were neglected;

- (f) Colonial education was based on religion. The provision of education was dominated by Christian missionaries. In some cases, Muslims opposed colonial education because they feared that their children would be converted to Christianity. That was the case for the mission schools built in places like Dar es Salaam, Bagamoyo, Kisarawe, Tanga and Zanzibar;
- (g) Colonial education was more theoretical than practical. It emphasised reading books and ignored the practical aspects of education. This was because the major purpose of colonial education was not to liberate Africans, but to prepare few people who could help them to administer colonial activities;
- (h) Colonial education was irrelevant to the African environment. Learners were taught the European syllabus. African students learnt European history and geography, knowledge that was not useful in their daily lives in the African context; and
- (i) Colonial education emphasised discipline and obedience to the colonial authority. The aim was to make sure that the education offered helped to exploit the colonies; hence, corporal punishment was relatively common in all schools. Students were forced to learn and obey government laws by heart.

### Weaknesses of colonial education

Colonial education had many weaknesses. First, the provision of education was based on race, religion and gender. The few Africans who received education were mostly sons of chiefs and catechists. However, the kind of education provided to African children was of low quality compared to the education offered to European children. Secondly, colonial education was introduced in production areas only, a situation which created regional imbalances. Thirdly, colonial education was examination-based. This was done to reduce the number of students who qualified for higher levels. Many Africans were denied further education because the examination system screened them. Finally, this kind of education was bookish. It largely emphasised theoretical aspects and neglected practical aspects of education.

### Impact of colonial education

The few educated Africans who received colonial education lost their cultures and beliefs. This happened because education was used by the colonialists to despise African culture as barbaric, violent and weak. Many people adopted European cultural values, including dressing styles, dancing styles, languages, religion and eating manners.



Colonial education led to social stratification among Africans. The few Africans who received colonial education felt superior and those who did not receive it were regarded as uncivilised and inferior. Similarly, colonial education encouraged ethnicity and regionalism. For example, the schools which were built in production areas made these regions more developed than those which had no such schools.

Colonial education created a social gap between educated and non-educated Africans in securing employment opportunities. Non-educated Africans could not secure jobs in various colonial departments. The few Africans who got an education were given lower-level jobs such as being warrant chiefs, tax collectors, ward attendants in hospitals, watchmen, messengers and soldiers.

Colonial education was used to justify racism. Africans were forced to learn European languages such as English, French and Portuguese because the Europeans considered themselves superior. In South Africa, for example, during the apartheid regime, the effects of colonial education were even worse. Schools were classified along racial lines for Whites, Africans, Coloureds and Asians. African schools were more disadvantaged than others. The funding provided by the government for African schools was extremely low. Most African children who went to school did not complete their studies. Hence, they were not competent compared to white and Asian children. Agricultural education was emphasised to equip them with basic skills for raising agricultural production in their areas.

Colonial education produced African elites who championed the struggle for independence in the colonies. Although these African leaders were employees of the colonial state, they contributed to the nationalist struggles that eventually led to the independence of their countries. Such African leaders were Kwame Nkrumah (Ghana), Julius Nyerere (Tanganyika), Jomo Kenyatta (Kenya) and Milton Obote (Uganda).

The provision of colonial education led to regional imbalances. For example, such production areas as Kilimanjaro, Kagera, Mbeya and Morogoro were more favoured than others. However, in post-colonial Tanzania, the government has been making efforts to ensure that there is equal provision of education to all Tanzanians. More schools are built in every region and district. For example,

from 2006 onwards, a secondary school has been built in every ward. In 2016, the provision of education was declared free to all Tanzanian children from pre-primary school to secondary school in an effort to educate all Tanzanian citizens.

### Exercise 5.2

Explain how colonial education has negatively influenced the provision of education in Africa in general and in modern Tanzania in particular.

### Colonial health services

Colonial health services involved providing health-related services to both the white population and the colonial subjects. It was characterised by the construction of colonial government and mission medical hospitals, clinics and dispensaries in the colonies, particularly in key stations like the armed forces, production areas and urban centres. Examples of the diseases which were treated were malaria, intestinal diseases such as hookworms and askaris, and sexually transmitted diseases such as gonorrhoea and syphilis. Other diseases were meningitis, tuberculosis (TB), typhoid, smallpox, sleeping sickness and cholera.

In German East Africa, early medical centres were built by the German colonialists in Bagamoyo, Iringa, Kilwa and Morogoro. Health services were offered by the missionaries to the colonial officials who were affected by tropical diseases such as malaria and the soldiers wounded during the war between Mkwawa and the Germans of 1891-1898 and the Majimaji war of 1905-1907. Few hospitals and dispensaries were also built in urban areas, plantation centres and areas which had settler farms such as Tanga, Kilimanjaro, Arusha and Kagera.

### Objectives of providing colonial health services

The major objective of colonial health services was to support both colonial government and missionary work. Specifically, the services were for treating colonial troops wounded during the wars. They were also aimed at treating African peasants, labourers and colonial government employees to maintain labour power. Moreover, the services were aimed at influencing African ways of life, particularly those pertaining to health. A good example was the replacement of African traditional medicines with European ones, whereas African traditional healers (doctors) were viewed as witchdoctors whose beliefs were contrary to Christian beliefs.

The colonial health services were also intended to create employment opportunities for Europeans who saw Africa as the place where they could advance their professional careers in medicine. These colonialists worked as doctors and researchers on African traditional herbs to discover more medicine. For example, Robert Koch, a German medical expert, conducted research in German East Africa and his findings led to the discovery of medicines for different bacterial diseases.

### Features of the colonial health services

During British colonial rule, hospitals concentrated in areas with labour force. These included urban centres, big settler farms, company plantations and areas in which peasants grew cash crops in considerable amounts. Generally, health services were aimed at maintaining colonial labourers or peasants and keeping them fit for production. The same could be said about the health services offered along the major routes of migrant labourers. They ensured that labourers reached their destinations in good health condition. This minimised the possibility of sick labourers carrying infections to the areas they were sent to work.

The colonial health services were racially biased. For instance, in colonial Tanganyika, Europeans were treated at Ocean Road Hospital, while Asians were treated at Sewa Haji Hospital (Muhimbili). The Africans who worked in the administrative, commercial, military or police spheres were treated at Mnazi Mmoja Medical Centre. Asian and African hospitals were poorly equipped.

The colonial medical services were unevenly distributed. More hospitals, clinics, and dispensaries were concentrated in urban areas. Medical services were also offered to plantation, railway and harbour workers. Hence, thousands of pregnant women, breast feeding mothers and children under 5 years of age died of malaria, malnutrition and other diseases.

Similarly, there was inequality in the structure of the colonial health services. European doctors were well paid, while African employees were poorly paid. Moreover, the colonial authorities offered two forms of medical services. These were curative services and preventive services. Curative services were given greater priority than preventive services. The colonial health services were also based on religion. For instance, most of the health services were available where Christian missionaries had settled like Kagondo in Bukoba, and Bugando and Sumbe in Mwanza.

### Impact of the colonial health services

African traditional healers and medicine-men were disliked and undermined. Their services and profession collapsed following the introduction of the colonial medical services. The colonial rulers enacted anti-witchcraft laws to isolate and undermine traditional doctors. As a result, African herbs were largely replaced by Western medicines.

The colonial administration hardly trained Africans to address the shortage of doctors and nurses in the hospitals. Most of the medical personnel were British, French, Portuguese and Belgian, while Africans served as dressers, hospital sweepers and the like. As a result, when many African countries gained independence in the early 1960s, the shortage of medical staff was a common problem which faced the new governments. In addition, in the post-independence period, the new African governments spent large sums of money promoting maternal health to reduce infant and maternal mortality.

The colonial health services helped to boost colonial production, since they maintained labourers' health. The intention was not to improve Africans' health, but to keep them healthy so that they could work in the interest of the colonialists.

The provision of colonial health services created an inferiority complex among Africans. It made them believe that European medical practices were more advanced and superior than theirs. This undermined African traditional beliefs.

#### Activity 5.2



1. In a group, (with the help of your teacher), identify a nearby health centre or hospital. Visit it and collect information on the history of the facility and how it provides health services to people.
2. Prepare an interview guide for collecting information about the current situation in the provision of health services at the health centre or hospital you have chosen.
3. Note the main findings.
4. Use the findings to relate the provision of health services during the colonial era and at present.

5. Present the findings in class for discussion.
6. What should be done to improve the situation?

### Water and housing services

The nature of the housing and water services provided during the colonial era was largely determined by political, administrative and economic functions. In the early years of colonial rule, housing and water services were not offered to African and Asian employees. It was only after 1945 that the colonial state spent more money providing housing and water services to employees.

The early housing and water services were offered to Africans on plantation and settler farms. For example, the Amboni Sisal Plantation in Tanga had its own schools, mosques, churches, hospitals and welfare centres. Apart from the sisal cutters, the colonial authorities also employed few Africans as clerks, drivers, school teachers, storekeepers and messengers. The most considered individuals under colonial service were the headmen, supervisors and factory workers. Since they were supposed to be at work all the time, their houses were built in the camps near their working stations. Moreover, the colonialists dug wells from which the workers fetched water.

### Objectives of providing water and housing services

The colonial water and housing services were aimed at facilitating the economic interests of the European colonialists based on exploitation of Africans, encouraging European settlements in the colonies to supervise production, obtaining and maintaining labour force for the colonial economy, which went hand in hand with the reduction of the time used to fetch water, minimising African resistance, especially workers' movements, promoting the utilisation of resources and improving hygiene and sanitation for both the European colonialists and African employees.

### Distribution of water and housing services

The provision of water and housing services had some basic pattern. The basic distribution pattern considered the administrative areas, especially those in the urban centres where colonial officials like governors and soldiers lived. The services were provided mostly in urban commercial centres like Dar es Salaam,

Nairobi, Kampala, Kigali and Zanzibar. These areas were well-developed with good and adequate administrative centres, houses, sanitation facilities, pipe-borne water and private wells.

In the production areas, particularly the rural areas with plantations, mining centres, and factories, water and housing services were provided to facilitate production, for example on the coffee plantations in Kilimanjaro and sisal plantations in Tanga and Morogoro. Areas with factories like sisal decorticators in Tanga and cotton ginneries in Shinyanga were also considered.

Two separate systems of water and housing services co-existed in almost all African colonies. These systems were based on race. The colonial authorities discriminated against people in the provision of such services. For example, in Tanganyika, all the areas occupied by the European communities had adequate housing, water and sanitation facilities. The colonial government built sewers in the European residential areas in Dar es Salaam, but did not build them in the African areas, particularly in Manzese, Chang'ombe and Ukonga. Africans used pit latrines which were breeding places for flies and mosquitoes. This situation caused diseases. Pipe-borne water and private wells were also found in the European areas. In the African quarters, there were few wells. Hence, adequate supply of water was mainly enjoyed by the European colonialists.

The houses built for the Africans, whether for plantation workers or railway and harbour workers, did not meet hygiene standards. Their rooms were very small with poor ventilation. The African employees who lived in congested areas suffered from malaria and tuberculosis (TB). In the sisal estates and mining areas the situation of African workers was even worse.

Generally, water and housing services were offered on a racial basis. Most of these services were introduced in urban centres. That is why to date, most independent African governments are struggling to ensure that the rural people also have access to adequate water and housing facilities.

Although labourers played a significant role in the production activities, they were given small overcrowded houses with poor ventilation. In addition, their residences had very few public water wells. In contrast, the missionary areas were provided with adequate water and housing services because they supported colonial rule by encouraging Africans to produce cash crops.



**Exercise 5.3**

Show how the pattern of social service provision in the colonial period differs from the current provision of social services in Tanzania.

**Impact of providing water and housing services**

During the colonial period, the provision of water and housing services was aimed at facilitating colonial production and the exploitation of African societies. The colonial state established uneven distribution of water and housing services between the urban and rural areas. Besides, Africans lived in the unplanned and unhygienic parts of urban centres, while the European colonialists occupied the planned and hygienic areas. In Tanganyika, these areas were popularly known as *Uzunguni* for the European colonialists, *Uhindini* for Indians and *Uswahilini* for Africans. Africans also suffered from a number of diseases, including tuberculosis, which were caused by overcrowding. They also suffered from diseases such as malaria, typhoid and diarrhoea which were caused by poor hygiene. The provision of water and housing services facilitated the exploitation of African natural resources. Although the Europeans used water from African rivers and lakes, they denied Africans pure and clean water.

**Activity 5.3**

With the help of your teacher, visit a ward office and do the following:

1. Prepare questions for collecting information about the provision of clean and safe water in a ward of your choice.
2. Interview the Ward Executive Officer (WEO) and identify what hinders the provision of clean and safe water in your area.
3. Note down the main findings.
4. From these findings, relate the provision of water services during the colonial era and at present
5. Suggest possible measures to improve the provision of clean and safe water in the ward.
6. Share the findings and solutions in class.

### Revision exercise 5

1. Explain the positive and negative effects of colonial education on African societies.
2. Analyse the main features of colonial education in Tanzania.
3. Describe the “distribution pattern” of water and housing services during the colonial period in Africa.
4. Assess the effects of the provision of water and housing services on African societies.
5. Why did the colonialists build schools in the cash-crop growing regions?
6. Why were water and housing services provided in colonial Africa?
7. What are your views on the efforts made by the Tanzanian government to improve the provision of social services to citizens?
8. Compare and contrast the provision of water and housing services in Tanzania during and after the colonial period.
9. Explain the positive and negative effects of colonial health services in Tanzania.
10. Examine the main efforts made by the Tanzanian government to provide education for industrial development purposes.
11. Discuss the legacy of colonial education in Tanzania.

## Glossary

Agent	a person who acts on behalf of another person or group
Alliance	a union or association formed for mutual benefit, especially between countries or organisations
Assimilation	the process of taking in, understanding and using new ideas to become an accepted part of a country or a group of people
Barbaric	primitive, very cruel and violent
Battle	a fight among opposing, organised armed forces
Boers	a white South African whose family is related to the Dutch people who settled in South Africa in 1650s
Bourgeoisie	people who own the major means of production and exploit the working class
Calamities	terrible and unexpected event (s) that cause a lot of damage or suffering
Capitalist	someone who owns and control the major means of production
Circumcision	the removal of foreskin from males' private parts
Civilisation	a stage in human social and cultural development that is considered most advanced
Collaboration	the act of working together with other people or organisations for mutual benefit
Conference	a formal meeting of people with shared interests to create or achieve something
Confiscation	the official taking or seizing of someone's property usually as a punishment
Confrontation	a fight, battle or a hostile argumentative situation between opposing parties
Conquest	subjugation and control of a place and people by military forces
Convert	the act of changing one's religious orientation

Culture	the social behaviour and customs of a group of people
Elite	a group of people with a lot of power and influence because of wealth, knowledge or special skills
Empire	a group of sovereign states made up of several territories and people subject to a single ruling authority
Ethics	moral principles that govern a person's behaviour or conduct
Ethnic group	relating or connected to a particular racial or cultural group of people
Era	a period of time in history that is known for a particular event
Governor	the person in charge of a country that is under the political control of another country
Heterogeneous	a group consisting of many different types of things or people
Humanitarian	having concern for or helping to improve the welfare and happiness of other people
Indigenous	occurring locally in a particular place
Inferior	feeling less important and lower than the other in rank, status or ability
Influx	an inflow or arrival of a large number of things or people
Intrusion	an illegal act of entering, seizing or taking possession of another's property
Invasion	the process of a country's army attacking another by force in order to take control of it
Investment	an asset or item committed with the aim of generating income
Mandatory	it is the requirement of law; thus, must be done
Marine	relating to water or sea
Massacre	the act of killing a large number of people at the same time in a violence

<b>Mercenaries</b>	professional soldiers hired to fight for any foreign country or group
<b>Missionary</b>	someone who has been sent to a foreign country to teach people about Christianity and persuade them to become Christians
<b>Nationalism</b>	a sense of national consciousness or being devoted to your country
<b>Navigation</b>	the process of travelling by boat or ship from place to place
<b>Notification</b>	the act of telling someone about something verbally or in writing. It can be a notice, request or warning
<b>Outbreak</b>	sudden occurrence of something like war or disease
<b>Overseas</b>	relating to a foreign country, especially one across the sea
<b>Outweigh</b>	to be more important or significant than the other
<b>Partition</b>	division into or distribution in portions or shares
<b>Peasant</b>	a person of low social status who works on land as a small-holder farmer
<b>Polygamy</b>	a practice or custom of having more than one wife or husband at the same time
<b>Principles</b>	accepted rules of action or conduct
<b>Rebellion</b>	an act of armed resistance to an already established government or leader
<b>Resistance</b>	the refusal to comply with something
<b>Rinderpest</b>	an acute infectious animal disease, especially cattle, caused by morbillivirus
<b>Scramble</b>	a struggle to get something of value
<b>Settler</b>	a person who has migrated to an area and established a permanent residence often to colonise an area for economic undertakings
<b>Slavery</b>	a system whereby a human being is owned by another

<b>Sphere of influence</b>	an area subjected to domination by a powerful nation
<b>Tertiary education</b>	any education provided beyond secondary level, including technical, teacher education or university
<b>Territory</b>	a land that is not fully admitted to the full rights of a state owned or controlled by a particular country's ruler or military force
<b>Treaty</b>	a formal written agreement between two or more parts or countries

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