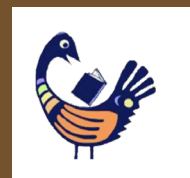




**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
HISTORY TEACHERS
ASSOCIATION OF GHANA**



HISTORY

for Senior High Schools

Year 3



• Halidu Bari Sule • Nanter Micah Nindola
• Agyapong Akwasi



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION HISTORY TEACHERS ASSOCIATION OF GHANA



HISTORY for Senior High Schools

YEAR 3

Halidu Bari Sule
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Ghana Education
Service (GES)





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FOREWORD

Ghana's new Senior High School Curriculum aims to ensure that all learners achieve their potential by equipping them with 21st Century skills, knowledge, character qualities and shared Ghanaian values. This will prepare learners to live a responsible adult life, progress to further studies and enter the world of work. This is the first time that Ghana has developed a Senior High School Curriculum which focuses on national values, attempting to educate a generation of Ghanaian youth who are proud of our country and can contribute effectively to its development.

The Ministry of Education is proud to have overseen the production of these Learner Materials which can be used in class and for self-study and revision. These materials have been developed through a partnership between the Ghana Education Service, teacher unions (Ghana National Association of Teachers- GNAT, National Association of Graduate Teacher -NAGRAT and the Coalition of Concerned Teachers- CCT) and National Subject Associations. These materials are informative and of high quality because they have been written by teachers for teachers with the expert backing of each subject association.

I believe that, if used appropriately, these materials will go a long way to transforming our Senior High Schools and developing Ghana so that we become a proud, prosperous and values-driven nation where our people are our greatest national asset.

Haruna Iddrisu MP

Minister for Education

SECTION

1

INTERPRETING AND RECONSTRUCTING THE PAST



SOURCES AND METHODS OF RECONSTRUCTING HISTORY

INTRODUCTION

In this section, we will learn how historians interpret sources and reconstruct narratives about the past. We will also examine various historical sources related to key events in Ghana's history. We will learn to identify claims made in these sources and evaluate the evidence provided to support them.

A major focus will be on dealing with contradictory evidence. Here, we will explore debatable historical narratives such as the Akan migration, Ghana's independence struggle, and the adoption of the name Ghana.

We will also explore different methods for reconstructing African history. We will assess the strengths and limitations of various approaches.

This section builds on previous knowledge of primary and secondary sources from Year 2. It extends our skills to more complex analysis and interpretation. These skills are valuable beyond the history classroom. They help us evaluate information critically in all areas of life.

Keep in mind that we learned the following areas in Year 2, which are very relevant in understanding this section.

KEY IDEAS

- **Contextualisation of Historical Sources** refers to viewing historical sources based on the circumstances of the past and not on current circumstances.
- **Corroboration of Historical Sources** is comparing multiple sources of history to find a point of agreement or disagreement.
- **Historical Methods** are the means used by historians to gather data to write history.
- **Historical Source** is where we obtain information to write the history of an event, figure or community.
- ***“Read like a Historian”*** means to critically analyse historical sources, not just by memorising information but by questioning the reliability and accuracy of the source.

CONTEXTUALISATION AND CORROBORATION OF HISTORICAL SOURCES

In Year 2, we learned the different types of historical sources that historians use to reconstruct the past. Let us briefly review these concepts before advancing to more complex historical skills. We learned that historians use both primary and secondary sources to write history. Primary sources are original materials created during the time period being studied, while secondary sources are interpretations or analyses created after the events which are based on primary sources. Some examples of sources we identified were diaries and journals, original letters and documents, photographs, artefacts, biographies, documentaries, historical analyses and many others. This pre-knowledge from Year 2 is to help in our understanding of how these sources are contextualised and corroborated in historical writing.

Contextualisation in history is the attempt to situate historical events, figures or text within their specific social, cultural, political and economic contexts to arrive at a more accurate understanding of the past. In simple terms, contextualisation in history is interpreting historical events from the angle of the past circumstances not the present happenings. For instance, when looking at the Trans-Atlantic slave trade in Ghana today, one will not get a better understanding as to why human beings sold and bought others unless s/he considers the circumstances that prevailed at the time of the slave trade. Now, put yourselves in the position of Ghanaians during the Trans-Atlantic Slave trade and think of why they sold some people into slavery? What do they get from selling people into slavery? Why were people buying human beings? A good reflection on the above questions will put you in the position of the past for a better understanding of what happened.

Corroboration of historical sources, on the other hand, is comparing multiple sources of history to find a point of agreement or disagreement. This is often done to establish the reliability and accuracy of historical information. When examining major historical events in Ghana's history, such as migration accounts, the independence struggle, or the adoption of the name Ghana, historians must identify and assess a range of sources to develop a good understanding for an objective conclusion.

In corroboration of historical sources, historians look out for the claims made by the various sources. A claim is a statement that presents a view on historical events,

which are supported by different types of evidence. After identifying the claims in the various sources, historians examine whether the claims agree or disagree.

Case Study: Contested Historical Narratives in Ghanaian History - The Migration of the Akan

Different sources provide varying accounts of Akan origins and migration patterns. Let us examine the migration accounts of the Akan as an example of contested historical narratives.

Now, let us examine the sources in *Table 1.1* below.

Table 1.1: Sources on the origin and migration of the Akan

Source A

The victory of Abu Bakr and his Almoravid forces in 1076 AD in Western Sudan was a high watermark in West African history. It resulted in the southward march of several tribes, including the Akan group—the Ashantis, Fantis, Akims, Akwapims, Akwamus, and Gyamans to present-day Ghana.

J.C. de Graft Johnson, (n.d.) African Glory: The Story of the Vanquished Negro

Source B

It is generally agreed that their ancestors first lived in the open country of modern north-western Ghana and north-eastern Ivory Coast, which is the basin of the Black Volta. They migrated from the basin of the black Volta or the Chad-Benue region to the basins of the Pra and Offin rivers. The branch that lived in the forest region and settled in the confluence of the Pra and Offin developed into the Akan of today, where Akan institutions and culture –the Twi language, the Akan forty-day calendar and the matrilineal and patrilineal clans developed.

Boahen A.A. (1966), 'The Origins of the Akan' Ghana notes and Queries No 9.

Source C

The Akan people, according to the traditions of the major clans which constitute the various states in the Gold Coast, came originally from the region between Djenne and Timbuktu...the matrilineal line is further proof of this contention-that the ancestors of present Akan aristocracy were Saharan Libyan Berbers....

Meyerowitz, E. (1952). Akan Tradition of Origins, London, Faber & Faber Ltd

Source D

The Adanse and the Bono of Techiman claim that they did not migrate from anywhere. The Bono of Tekyiman asserts that they evolved from the Amuowi hole, which is revealed during their annual Apo festival. The Bono of Hani Nsorko claim that their ancestors also came from a sacred hole called Bonkese. The Bono of Wenchi asserts that they emerged from a hole at Bonoso.

Fynn, J. K., Addo-Fening, R., & Anquandah, J. (1991). History for senior secondary schools. Ministry of Education, Accra, Evans Brothers Ltd, London.

We will now identify the claims and evidence in the sources presented in **Table 1.1** above by summarising them in **Table 1.2** below.

Table 1.2: Analysis of Sources

SOURCE	MAIN CLAIM	EVIDENCE
SOURCE A <i>J.C de Graft Johnson, "African Glory: The Story of the Vanquished Negro"</i>	The Akan migrated southward from the western Sudan as a result of the Almoravid conquest in 1076 AD	The Almoravid conquest in 1076 AD in the source matches the time the Akan arrived in Ghana.
SOURCE B <i>Boahen A. A. (1966), 'The Origins of the Akan', Ghana Notes and Queries No. 9</i>	The Akan originated from the Black Volta basin in north-western Ghana and north-eastern Ivory Coast.	The development of both matrilineal and patrilineal clans.

SOURCE	MAIN CLAIM	EVIDENCE
SOURCE C <i>Meyerowitz, E. (1952). Akan Tradition of Origins, London, Faber and Faber Ltd</i>	The Akan originated from the region between Djenné and Timbuktu in Mali.	The Akan matrilineal system of inheritance.
SOURCE D Fynn, J. K, Addo-Fening, R., Anquandah, J. (1991). History for senior secondary. Ministry of Education.	Some Akan groups (the Adanse and Bono) have indigenous origins and did not migrate from elsewhere.	Amuowi hole and the sacred hole are revealed during the annual Apo festival of the Bono.

Using the “Read Like a Historian Chart” to Analyse Sources

The “Read Like a Historian Chart” is a tool used for analysing patterns and connections between historical sources. This step-by-step approach helps us evaluate evidence, compare claims, and develop well-reasoned historical arguments.

To ‘Read Like a Historian’ means to critically analyse historical sources, not just by memorising information. It involves questioning the reliability and accuracy of the source, analysing and interpreting the intentions of the author.

The steps in using the “Read Like a Historian Chart” are:

- Identify the central historical question you wish to investigate. Example: “What factors led to the adoption of the name ‘Ghana’?”
- Gather multiple sources that address this question. Example: Primary sources (speeches, documents) and secondary sources (analyses).
- For each source, identify the claim and supporting evidence. Example: Record claims about ancient Ghana’s connection to modern Ghana.
- Evaluate the strength and reliability of each source’s evidence. Example: Assess credibility, potential bias, and supporting documentation.
- Form your own evidence-based conclusion about the question

Interpreting and Developing Final Arguments (concluding)

After analysing multiple sources using the “Read Like a Historian Chart,” the next step is to develop a well-reasoned historical argument. The following are the processes of developing a well-reasoned historical argument:

- a. **Step 1:** Identify the patterns of the sources.
- b. **Step 2:** Weigh evidence from the source with multiple sources to check reliability and accuracy.
- c. **Step 3:** Consider the context of the event or historical source.
- d. **Step 4:** Formulate your claim by stating your view.
- e. **Step 5:** Support your view with evidence.
- f. **Step 6:** Address alternative views or claims.

Activity 1.1 Contextualisation and Corroboration of Historical Sources

1. Work together with your classmates to remind yourselves of the difference between primary and secondary sources and note these down, perhaps on a large piece of paper.
2. Collect pieces of evidence from primary and secondary sources on any historical event that we have covered in Year 1 or Year 2 and name the sources as “Source A”, “Source B”, etc., in that order.
3. Create a chart to analyse the claims made in the evidence of the sources identified and draw a conclusion based on them. Your chart should have a column for source, claims, evidence, and conclusion.
4. Finally, make conclusions about the event: which were the most useful sources and why?

METHODS OF GATHERING DATA FOR RECONSTRUCTING AFRICAN HISTORY

In Years 1 and 2, we explored fundamental historical skills that serve as building blocks for our development as historians. We were introduced to critical thinking when examining sources, historical research and analysis when gathering historical evidence, and communication skills when presenting historical narratives. We

practised creating chronological timelines, distinguishing fact from opinion, and analysing causes and effects of historical events.

These foundational skills obtained in our previous studies established the basis for more complex historical analysis. We developed the ability to summarise information, categorise historical evidence, and make inferences based on available sources. In Year 3, we are going to build upon this foundation by applying these skills specifically to reconstructing African history. Through interviews, examining archival sources, and interpreting evidence, we will now apply these skills to have a deeper understanding of local and African heritage.

Meaning of ‘Methods’ of Reconstructing History

Methods of reconstructing history refer to the various procedures and approaches historians use to write important information about the past. Existing documentary sources on early African History are incomplete and scarce. As a result of this, the writing of African history requires the use of multiple approaches largely based on non-documentary methodologies.

The following are the methods used to write African History

1. Historians use eyewitness accounts to write African History. Historians rely on the narration of someone who witnessed an event to get information for the historical reconstruction of that event.
2. Personal enquiry through interviews. This is when a historian interviews someone who is knowledgeable in the history and culture of a community for information. Here, the historian prepares a list of questions to guide him/her to gather information on the historical events.
3. Review or careful examination of written sources. This is a method used for the interpretation or evaluation of primary or secondary sources for the writing of History.
4. The use of an interdisciplinary approach. This is when historians rely on experts from related fields to gather information to write history. Findings from archaeology, oral tradition, botany, linguistic studies and others can help the historian to reconstruct African history.
5. Historians also use questionnaires to gather information to write African history. They prepare a list of questions covering an event they want to write about and give it to a person who experienced the event or has knowledge about it as a respondent.

6. Personal observation and records. This is when a historian visits a historical site and monuments to observe and record what he sees to reconstruct history.

A Critical Discourse on the Inter-disciplinary Approach in Reconstructing African History

With this method, the experts or professionals from the various fields of knowledge that are important for the writing of African History, such as Archaeology, Numismatics, etc., are relied on to gather information to write about the History of Africa. **Historians are not experts in all fields. As such, they rely on the works of other fields, which offer important data to historical work.** For instance, through botany (the scientific study of plants in a particular environment), we got to know that yam production was indigenous to Sub-Saharan Africa. This and much more information from related fields provides important information on African history. The table below summarises the advantages and disadvantages of the interdisciplinary approach:

Table 1.3: Advantages and Disadvantages of an Inter-disciplinary approach

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
Inter-disciplinary approach provides more reliable historical reconstruction by analysing multiple views on historical events.	It is complex to integrate different disciplinary approaches.
It aids easy cross-checking of historical evidence.	It has a high cost for research and analysis since experts from varied fields need to be consulted.
It creates a more complete historical narrative by filling gaps where one method alone will not be enough.	It is time-consuming since it involves the challenging task of putting together data from different fields.
It enhances critical thinking and interpretation through the employment of varied research tools and techniques.	There is a high potential for conflicting interpretations, making it difficult to reach conclusive findings.
It strengthens evidence through multiple verification methods.	There is no effective collaboration due to differences in methodology and interpretation from scholars in different fields.

ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
It reduces biases and historical distortions through the use of multiple analytical approaches.	

Note

Historians are not expected to collaborate with experts in other fields in terms of methodologies. All historians need are finding or data from other experts.

Activity 1.2 Methods of Gathering Data for Reconstructing History

1. In pairs, explain the meaning of “methods” of writing on historical issues or topics. history and brainstorm some of the methods used by historians in reconstructing African History.
2. Select one aspect of your community’s history (e.g., political, socio-cultural, gender, economic, or medical history) and gather data using any three of the data gathering methods for reconstructing History. Using posters, present your findings about the strengths and weaknesses of the methods you used. Make notes on your findings from this activity.
3. Discuss together: ‘What were the advantages and disadvantages of using the interdisciplinary method?’ and record your conclusions.

SKILLS AND COMPETENCIES THAT CAN BE OBTAINED THROUGH THE RECONSTRUCTION OF AFRICAN HISTORY

The process of reconstructing African history is rewarding to us. We gain some skills and competencies through historical reconstruction. The following are some skills and competencies we gain through the reconstruction of African History:

1. The ability to compare and contrast different accounts.
2. It gives us the ability to sample opinions.
3. It enables us to form hypotheses or theories.

4. It enables us to analyse the motives of authors of historical events.
5. We can interpret historical evidence.
6. We can write and communicate conclusions through different media.
7. It equips us to ask critical questions through interviews.

How Skills/Competencies Acquired from the Process of Reconstructing History

Provide Avenues for National Development

The skills and competencies we obtained from the process of reconstructing history not only help in our intellectual development but are also essential to the development of our nation. This provides the following avenues for national development.

- a. Historical skills and competencies enable us to analyse policies and problems in the country. This helps us to channel public policies to where they are more needed.
- b. Historical skills build patriotism in citizens.
- c. History promotes tolerance and respect for each other.
- d. History preserves cultural heritage and promotes tourism and development.
- e. History helps to highlight and develop indigenous knowledge systems.

Activity 1.3 Skills and Competencies from Reconstruction of History

1. Discuss the skills and competencies that can be obtained through the reconstruction of history with a classmate.
2. Examine how the skills and competencies acquired can be used for national development.
3. Record your findings and discussion points in your notebook.

EXTENDED READING

Click on the video link to learn more about historical corroboration:
<https://youtu.be/e25mfY5MCgU?si=C-PxbUQo82R6oTRZ>.



REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is contextualisation in History?
2. What is corroboration in History?
3. How does contextualisation and corroboration in history help to establish the authenticity of historical sources?
4. What is the historical method?
5. Explain five methods historians use in gathering data for the reconstruction of African History.
6. Identify four skills and competencies that can be acquired through the reconstruction of African history.



SECTION

2

EARLIEST HUMAN CULTURE AND CIVILISATIONS ACROSS AFRICA

EMERGENCE OF COMPLEX STATES

INTRODUCTION

Remember in Year 1, we examined the nature of the earliest human culture in Ghana as well as the prehistoric periods in Ghana. In this section, too, we will explore the beginnings of human culture and early civilisations that developed across Africa. We will examine scientific evidence about human origins and early migrations from Africa. Thus, we will study Darwin's theory of evolution and trace the development of hominids through fossil evidence. The section further explores how early African societies evolved into complex civilisations with unique features and achievements.

By the end of this section, we will have a clear understanding of the scientific evidence supporting human origins in Africa. We will be able to describe the major stages of human evolution and recognise the characteristics of civilisation and identify the key features of ancient Egyptian, Western Sudanese, East African coastal, and Bantu civilisations.

Keep in mind that we learned the following areas in Year 1, which are very relevant in understanding this section.

KEY IDEAS

- **Darwin's theory of evolution** proposes that all species of organisms have developed from common ancestors through a process of gradual change and adaptation.
- **Ice Age** is a period in Earth's history when the ice on the polar caps significantly expands due to a lowering of the Earth's global temperature.
- **Scientific and Non-scientific theories**, the former rely on empirical evidence like Darwin's theory of evolution, while the latter rely on faith or belief systems like the creation stories of religious groups.
- **Sedentary Lifestyle** is a village settlement style that began in Africa around 4000 BC.
- **The "Out of Africa" Theory** proposes that Homo sapiens evolved in Africa around 300,000-200,000 years ago and began migrating to other continents between 70,000-50,000 years ago

SCIENTIFIC EVIDENCE ON THE ORIGIN OF HUMANS

As you recall in Year 1, we explored the prehistoric periods in Ghana, which extended from approximately 50,000 BCE to 700 CE and were divided into three main phases: The Early Stone Age, Middle Stone Age, and Late Stone Age. We learned that the earliest tools discovered in Ghana were Acheulean tools found in the fossil gravel of the Volta, Oti, and Brim rivers. Archaeological sites at Kintampo, Abetifi, and other locations revealed how early humans in Ghana developed increasingly sophisticated tools and hunting techniques. This knowledge on the development of human settlement in Ghana provides us with a valuable foundation as we now expand our view to examine human origins more broadly in this area of the section.

Charles Darwin's Theory of the Evolution of Humankind

In 1859, British naturalist Charles Darwin published his book, *On the Origin of Species*, which presented a biological theory of evolution by natural selection based on his fieldwork (research) in the Pacific. This revolutionary idea explained how species change over time and adapt to their environments. However, it was not until his 1871 book, *The Descent of Man*, that Darwin specifically applied the evolutionary theory to humans. In that book, Darwin put forward the view that man and apes, a primitive 'monkey-like' animal, share common ancestry. He suggested that it was somewhere in the tropics, possibly Africa, that man evolved. Subsequent archaeological investigations have proved Charles Darwin right that man originated in Africa and spread to the other parts of the world. The key points espoused in Darwin's theory are:

1. **Common Ancestry:** Darwin proposed that humans and apes share a common ancestor, rather than suggesting that humans evolved directly from modern apes.
2. **Natural Selection:** Organisms produce more offspring (young ones) than nature can support. Individual organisms with advantageous traits are more likely to survive and reproduce, passing these traits to their offspring.
3. **Gradual Change:** Evolution occurs through small, incremental changes over many generations.
4. **Adaptation:** Changes that help species survive in their environment tend to be preserved. Thus, there is a continuous competitive struggle among

organisms to acquire food. Those who are successful in the struggle are those best suited (adapted) to the environment, while the less fit disappear.

Developments of the Hominid (Humankind)

Hominids are members of the human family (Hominidae) that includes humans and humanlike creatures such as apes. The earliest evidence of human culture in the world was discovered in Africa in 1960. The discovery was made at a site in Olduvai Gorge in northern Tanzania in the Eastern Rift Valley (East Africa). There, archaeologists such as Dr. and Mrs. Mary Leakey discovered fossils of man-like creatures. The fossils were estimated to be between one and a half and two million years old (1,500,000-2,000,000).

The timelines of the hominid span millions of years, marked by gradual changes in physical characteristics and the development of increasing reasoning abilities.

Figure 2.1 shows the stages of the development of the hominid.

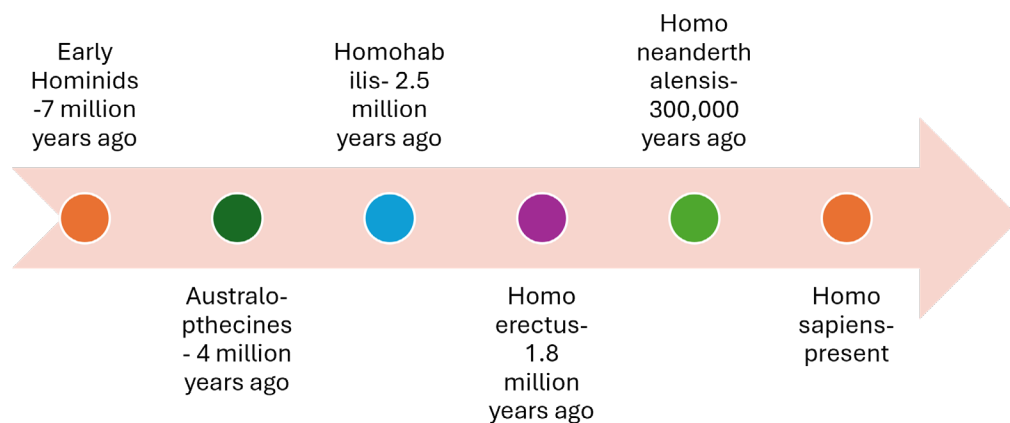


Figure 2.1: Timeline of Hominid Development

Early Hominids (7-4 million years ago)

The earliest hominid fossils date back approximately 6-7 million years. Species like *Sahelanthropus tchadensis* (discovered in Chad) and *Orrorin tugenensis* show early signs of upright walking while retaining ape-like characteristics.

Australopithecines (4-2 million years ago)

Australopithecines (“southern apes”) represent an important evolutionary step. These early hominids walked fully upright but had relatively small brains. The most famous Australopithecine fossil is “Lucy” (*Australopithecus afarensis*), discovered in Ethiopia in 1974 by Donald Johanson’s team.

Key characteristics of Australopithecine hominids

- a. They were fully bipedal in nature. Thus, they walked on two legs.
- b. They had a small brain size, which measured around five hundred cubic centimetres (500cc).
- c. They had a human-like body structure with ape-like head features.
- d. They used simple tools for food gathering and defensive purposes. However, at this point, they had not developed the technique of tool making yet. They only used small-sized stones and wood for their survival.

Homo habilis (2.5-1.5 million years ago)

Homo habilis, meaning “handy man,” represents the earliest species in the Homo genus. They were the first known toolmakers, creating simple stone tools for cutting and processing food.



Figure 2.2: Lower jaw of Homo habilis, a specimen found in 1960 at Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania, and identified by Louis Leakey.

Source: <https://www.britannica.com/place/Olduvai-Gorge>



Key characteristics of this stage of hominid development

- a. They developed a larger brain, which was around 650cc.
- b. They made and used simple stone tools.
- c. They developed a more human-like face than the Australopithecines.

- d. They probably had limited communication abilities.

Homo erectus (1.8 million - 300,000 years ago)

Homo erectus, also known as “upright man”, was the first hominid to migrate out of Africa, spreading to Asia and Europe. They had physical features that were more human-like than those of earlier species.

Key characteristics of *Homo erectus*

- a. They had a larger brain, ranging from 800- 1100cc, than *Homo habilis*.
- b. They discovered the use and control of fire.
- c. They created more sophisticated tools for both food acquisition and defence against predators.
- d. They moved from living in caves to building simple shelters.
- e. The art of spoken language was possibly developed at this stage of hominid development
- f. They hunted in coordinated groups for food.

Homo neanderthalensis (300,000-30,000 years ago)

Neanderthals were highly adapted to cold environments in Europe and Western Asia during the Ice Age. Though often portrayed as primitive, they had refined cultural practices.

Key characteristics of *Homo neanderthalensis*

- a. They had a large brain similar to modern humans.
- b. They had strong and powerfully built bodies.
- c. They created diverse and specialised tools for hunting and gathering food as well as for self-defence against wild animals.
- d. There is evidence of ritual burials developed by the hominids at this stage.
- e. They started using medicinal plants for the treatment of diseases and ailments.
- f. There is some evidence of symbolic thinking among homo Neanderthals.

Homo sapiens (300,000 years ago - present)

Homo sapiens, also known as “wise human”, first appeared in Africa around 300,000 years ago and spread across the globe. They are simply referred to as modern man with advanced intellectual abilities, complex language, and cultural innovation.

Key characteristics of Homo sapiens

- a. They have a highly developed brain.
- b. They developed an advanced language and abstract thinking.
- c. They advanced in artistic and symbolic representation of their complex cultures
- d. They developed complex social structures such as family, a sense of community and strong political institutions.
- e. They are advanced in technological development and innovation.
- f. They are distributed across the globe.

Famous Finds of Human Culture

Archaeological discoveries have provided us with evidence about human evolution. Each find offers a unique insight into our ancestors' physical traits, behaviours, and cultural developments. These discoveries often require teams of scientists using various methods to analyse and interpret the evidence. The common uniqueness about these findings is that all the early discoveries were made in Africa. Thus, re-emphasising the African continent as the original home of humans who later spread to the other parts of the world. **Table 2.1** below presents information on various human fossil discoveries in history.

Table 2.1: Famous Fossil Finds

YEAR	DISCOVERY	LOCATION	AGE	DISCOVERER
2002	Hominid skull	Chad	6 million years	International Team of Researchers
1994	Hominid jaw	Ethiopia	2.33 million years	International Team of Researchers
1978	Hominid footprints	Laetoli, Tanzania	3.6 million years	Mary Leakey
1974	“Lucy” skeleton	Ethiopia	3.5 million years	Donald Johanson
1960	Stone tools	Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania	2 million years	Louis Leakey

Earliest Evidence of Human Migration from Africa

The story of human migration from Africa is a fascinating account in the evolutionary history. Both fossil and genetic evidence indicate that modern humans originated in Africa and later migrated to other continents across the globe. This migratory account is mostly referred to as the “Out of Africa” Theory.

The “Out of Africa” Theory

It is the most widely accepted model for human origins and dispersal. This theory proposes that *Homo sapiens* evolved in Africa around 300,000-200,000 years ago and began migrating to other continents between 70,000-50,000 years ago. This migration is categorised into two phases. The first phase was carried out by *Homo erectus*, while the second one was embarked upon by *Homo sapiens*. These are further explained below.

1. The First Migration Wave: *Homo erectus*

Around 1.8 million years ago, *Homo erectus* became the first hominid species to spread out of Africa. Fossils have been found in Georgia (Dmanisi), China (Peking man), Indonesia (Java man), and other regions of Asia and Europe, confirming that these fossils have roots from *Homo erectus* in Africa. The discoveries further indicate that they developed new technologies to adapt to the different environments they moved into, as each environment has its own uniqueness in terms of adaptability.

2. The Second Migration Wave: *Homo sapiens*

This migration was undertaken by modern humans (*Homo sapiens*) who began leaving Africa around 70,000-50,000 years ago. They reached Australia approximately 65,000-50,000 years ago, requiring advanced boat technology to cross the water barriers. The migration to Europe occurred around 45,000 years ago, while that of the Americas was around 20,000-15,000 years ago, likely via the Bering Land Bridge during the Ice Age. *Figure 2.2* below illustrates the emigrational trajectories of the earliest man from Africa.

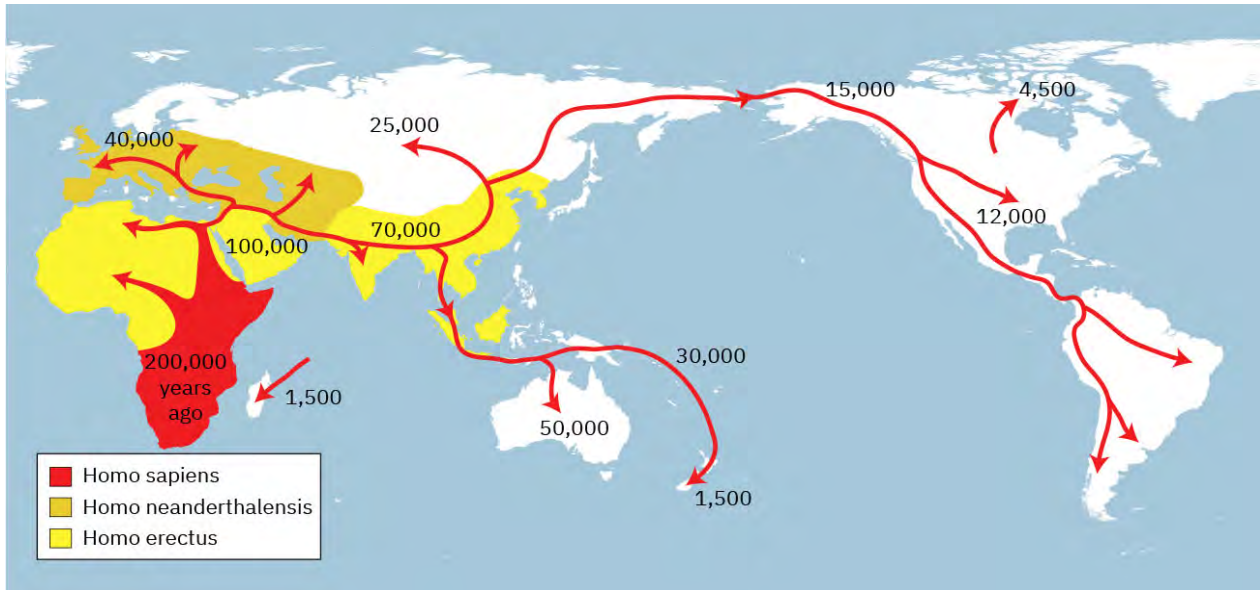


Figure 2.3: Migration of the Earliest Humans.

Source: https://www.fabriziomusacchio.com/weekend_stories/told/2025/2025-01-01-mesopotamia_and_egypt/



Adaptation to New Environments

As humans migrated from Africa to new environments, they encountered diverse climates, varied food sources, and numerous challenges. They adopted various means to adapt to those new habitats. These included:

1. Innovation in tool-making for different hunting and gathering techniques for food.
2. Making clothing and shelter appropriate to local conditions.
3. Development of new social strategies to fit the variation of seasons.
4. Physical adaptations over time. For example, lighter skin in northern latitudes for vitamin D production, and different body proportions for heat conservation/dissipation.

Activity 2.1 Origin and earliest migration of humans

1. Using the internet/textbooks, examine Charles Darwin's theory of the evolution of humans and write a short explanation of the theory and its development.
2. Use a globe or a world map provided by your teacher, trace famous finds of human culture, including the following;

- a. 1960 At Olduvai Gorge, Tanzania, Louis Leakey found 2-million-year-old stone tools.
 - b. In 1974, in Ethiopia, Donald Johansson found “Lucy,” a skeleton of a 3.5-million-year-old hominid.
 - c. 1978 At Laetoli, Tanzania, Mary Leakey found 3.6-million-year-old hominid footprints.
 - d. 1994 In Ethiopia, an international team of scientists found the jaw of a 2.33-million-year-old hominid.
 - e. In 2002, scientists in Chad announced the discovery of a possible 6-million-year-old hominid skull.
3. Annotate on a world map to show how humans migrated from Africa to other continents (1,600,000-10,000 B.C.). The map must include:
 - a. At least 3 major migration routes with arrows and dates
 - b. 5 key fossil sites with their dates
 - c. Important geographical features that affected migration
 - d. A brief explanation of why they have chosen these routes
 - e. An analysis of at least one of the fossil finds and why this was so significant for our understanding of human evolution

SCIENTIFIC THEORIES VS. NON-SCIENTIFIC THEORIES OF THE ORIGIN OF HUMANS

Scientific Theories of Human Origins

Scientific theories about human origins are based on systematic observation, the collection of evidence, and rigorous testing. These theories evolve as new evidence emerges. The most widely accepted scientific explanation is the theory of evolution through natural selection, first proposed by Charles Darwin as discussed earlier in this section.

Key Features of Scientific Theories

1. **Evidence-based:** Scientific theories rely on fossil records, archaeological findings, and genetic studies to support their validity.
2. **Testable:** They make predictions that can be tested through further research.

3. **Peer-reviewed:** Scientific explanations undergo scrutiny by other experts in the field.
4. **Subject to revision:** When new evidence emerges, scientific theories are modified or refined.

Archaeologists are sure that it was in Africa that the common ancestor of apes and humans originated; they are sure that it was in Africa that humans and apes separated from their common ancestor, and that it was in Africa that humans completed their evolution into *Homo sapiens* or ‘true-human’ as we are today

This shared ancestry of humans and apes is supported by anatomical similarities, genetic evidence, and fossil records, which are further discussed below.

- a. **Fossil Evidence:** The discovered remains of early hominids show gradual changes in body structure. For instance, the fossils of “Lucy”, which were about 3.2 million years old, showed evidence of upright walking with ape-like traits. Its skull size shows an increase in brain capacity over millions of years.
- b. **Genetic Evidence:** It is one of the ways to understand the evolution of humans, as genetic mutations can help scientists to estimate the timing of evolutionary changes of hominids. Research has shown that both humans and chimpanzees share approximately 98.8% DNA similarity. Also, Mitochondrial DNA studies trace all humans to a common African ancestor.
- c. **Archaeological Evidence:** The reliance on archaeological discoveries has helped in broadening our understanding of Darwin’s evolutionary theory of *Homo sapiens*. For instance, archaeological findings in the tropics of Africa have shown the making of stone tools to advanced tools, controlled fire usage since the era of *Homo erectus*, and cave paintings and artefacts portray the development of creative thinking and cultural practice.
- d. **Non-Scientific Theories of Human Origins:** Non-scientific explanations for human origins typically come from religious traditions, cultural stories, and mythologies. These explanations have cultural and spiritual significance but do not rely on empirical evidence or follow any scientific methodology. They are sometimes considered myths as they are derived from belief systems.

Key Features of Non-Scientific Theories

1. **Faith-based:** They often rely on belief and faith rather than research or experimental and observable evidence.
2. **Cultural significance:** These explanations frequently serve important social and cultural purposes. Every society has its own conception of the origin and evolution of humans.

3. **Moral teachings:** Many creation stories, whether based in African traditional religion or any of the Abrahamic religions, include lessons about human nature, morality, and purpose for living.
4. **Rooted in tradition:** These accounts are passed down through generations and hold historical importance to the individual society.

Examples of Non-Scientific Theories

- a. **Creation Accounts:** Many religious traditions feature creation stories where divine beings directly created humans. These accounts often describe humans as having a special purpose or relationship with the creator.
- b. **Indigenous Origin Stories:** Various cultural groups have traditional explanations for how humans came to exist, often tied to local geography, animals, or natural phenomena.
- c. **Mythological Explanations:** Some cultures have myths explaining human origins through the actions of gods, spirits, or supernatural forces.

Activity 2.2 Scientific vs. non-scientific theories of human evolution

1. In groups, search on the internet/textbooks and:
 - a. Create a simple comparison chart or table that lists 3-4 main points from a scientific explanation and a corresponding religious creation narrative of human origin.
 - b. Analyse these different viewpoints.
 - c. In 2 minutes, present your findings to the class.
 - d. Share the similarities and differences you noticed from the presentations.
2. Using the information gathered in the previous *Activity 2.1*;
 - a. Debate on the theory of the origin of humans against the religious creation stories. Consider the following question:
 - b. What types of evidence (empirical or mythological) should society value most when teaching about human origins? Note down your thoughts and conclusions.

FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR THE EMERGENCE OF THE EARLIEST AFRICAN STATES

Remember, we learned in Year 1 about the rise and decline of states in different geographical zones of Ghana. We explored how states in the Savannah, Forest, and Coastal zones developed distinct characteristics based on their environments and socio-political circumstances. In the Savannah zone, for example, we learned that the Gonja and the Mole-Dagbani states emerged as a result of able leadership, centralised political administration, the impact of Islam, trade, superior weapons and a well-organised system of inheritance into political office. Similarly, in the forest zone, we learned that leadership roles of some clans, the role of unifying symbols, the introduction of firearms, strategic location (for both mineral resources and natural defence like rivers and mountains) and a well-organised military system contributed greatly to the rise of the Akan states. Finally, our knowledge on the emergence of coastal states tells us that leadership and centralisation of authority, trade, agricultural, social factors such as religion, and the influence of Europeans presence were key factors.

In this area of the section, we will build upon this foundation by broadening our view to examine the formation of early states across Africa, allowing us to understand their common patterns while appreciating regional diversity.

The Beginning of the Sedentary Lifestyle in Africa

The transition from nomadic hunter-gatherer lifestyles to settled agricultural communities laid the groundwork for the emergence of early African states. This significant shift occurred at different times across Africa, generally between 10,000 BCE and 3,000 BCE. When the earliest humans in Africa changed from food-gathering to food production (agriculture), and from hunting to the rearing of animals (livestock keeping), the idea of establishing well-defined and controlled territories set in.

The changeover to food production transformed early humans' lives in several ways.

1. First, knowledge and the ability to produce food encouraged humans to build themselves permanent settlements or regular homes and live sedentary lives.

2. Second, the changeover created leisure and thereby opened the way for the development of craft industries such as pottery, cloth-weaving and boatbuilding.
3. Third, it encouraged the exchange of surplus products (trade).
4. Fourth, it paved the way for the development of the cash economy as well as social and political institutions such as government, laws, religion, customs and festivals.
5. Fifth, it led to rapid population growth. This was as a result of the abundance of food to feed large families since sufficiency in food production promoted procreation.

Archaeological evidence points to about 4000 BC as a probable date for the beginning of agriculture and village settlement in Africa. The earliest proof of agricultural activity comes from Fayum in Egypt and is dated to 4300 BC. Other early agricultural settlements in Africa included the sites at Merinde in the Delta (c. 3600 BC) and Badari in Upper Egypt (c. 4000 BC). Subsequently, agricultural development in Cyrenaica (eastern Libya), Khartoum on the Upper Nile (Republic of Sudan), Ethiopia and Kenya by 2000 BC.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, evidence of agriculture dates back to about 3000 BC. In Ghana, there is evidence of agricultural activity at Kintampo and Ntereso dating back to at least 1500 BC. **Figure 2.3** further illustrates key features of a sedentary lifestyle in Africa and the stages towards early state formation.

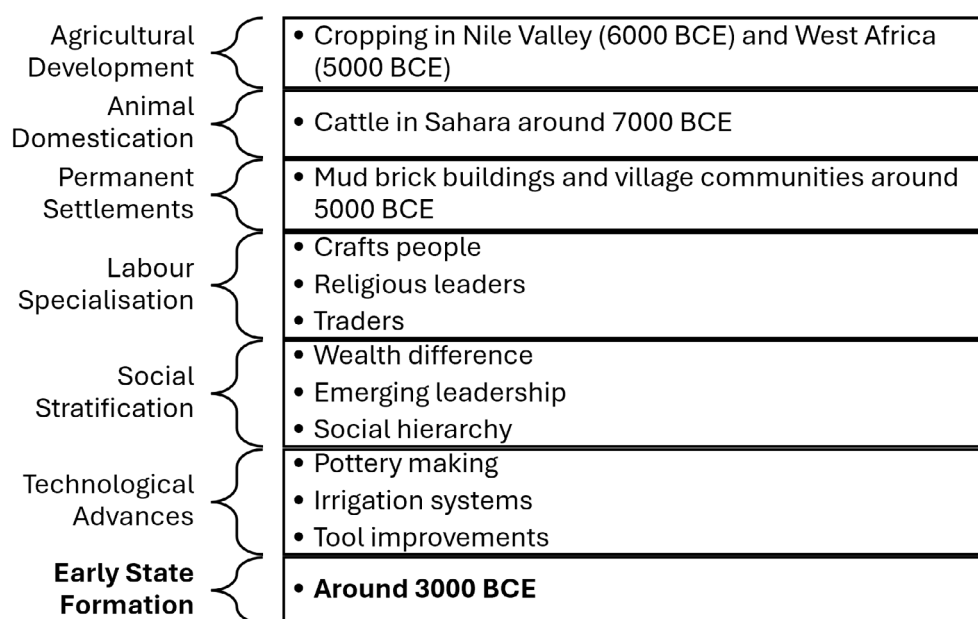


Figure 2.4: Features of a sedentary lifestyle in Africa

Some Early States and Kingdoms in Africa

Africa has a rich history of powerful states and kingdoms dating back thousands of years. These early civilisations varied in size, structure, and influence, but all made significant contributions to African and world history. The map in **Figure 2.5** shows some of these early African states and kingdoms.



Figure 2.5: A map of Africa showing the earliest states and kingdoms.

Source: <https://www.bu.edu/africa/outreach/teachingresources/history/ancient-to-medieval-history/kingdoms/>



Factors for the Rise of the Early African States

The emergence of early African states such as those of northern Africa (Pharaonic Egypt, and the Maghreb states), the western Africa (Ancient Ghana, Mali, Songhai, Asante, Dahomey, Yoruba, Fulani caliphate in Sokoto, Kanem-Burno, and Hausa states), eastern Africa (Ethiopia, Axum, Kush, Kilwa, etc), and

southern Africa (Zulu, Zimbabwe, Monomotapa) were as a result of distinct and inter-related factors. These factors are discussed below.

1. **Advancement in Agriculture:** From the time of the emerging African states, agriculture has remained the backbone of every state. The abundant fertile lands afforded earliest people in Africa to engage in both crop and animal domestication for food sufficiency. The sufficiency in food helped to sustain the expansionist ambitions of the early rulers, as there was enough food to cater for the population. For instance, by 3400 BC, small farming communities had grown up in the Nile Valley.
2. **Environmental factors:** Africa is characterised by many natural resources' deposits like salt, gold and copper, river valleys, and fertile lands for food production to sustain the growing population and for the exchange of weapons. For instance, Mali's towns of Wangara and Taghaza were noted for gold, while Takedda was noted for copper.
3. **Trade networks:** Most early states in Africa owed their emergence to the proceeds of trade. Trade brought more wealth and weapons to their leaders, who leveraged them to establish and expand their territories. In Western Sudan, for example, trade with northern Africa resulted in wealth accumulation of rulers through taxation and the sale of precious minerals like gold. Trade also brought about cultural exchange, leading to intermarriages and urbanisation. Have you ever wondered why North Africa is an Arab spoken region today? You will learn in the subsequent section about how trade and political factors brought this change in a territory previously occupied and ruled by the Berbers.
4. **Strong leadership:** Able leaders of various African people played a pivotal role in the establishment of states and kingdoms in Africa. Strong leaders like King Adulis and King Azana were instrumental in the emergence of the kingdom of Axum. Powerful leaders like Mansa Musa, Askia Mohammed and Sundiata in Western Sudan established a centralised political system that magnified their kingdoms into strong and powerful States.
5. **Religion and artistic expression:** In the previous section of this learning manual, we saw how Africans held to spiritual cohesion with supernatural forces regarding the evolution of humans. In their effort to establish states, religion helped in building cultural cohesion and shared social identity, which became a ground for claiming state legitimacy by various people across Africa. In the later days of the Western Sudanese states, Islam became a binding force that accelerated the expansionist policies of the rulers.

6. **Migration:** The Swahili states on the East African coast were established by Bantu immigrants from the borders of the modern Cameroun–Nigeria who intermingled with the indigenous people, Persians, Arabs and Indians to produce what is known today as Swahili. Also, the influx of Yemeni immigrants around 700 BCE contributed greatly to the emergence of Axum.
7. **Advancement in iron technology:** Knowledge of iron technology helped in early state formation in Africa. In Pharaonic Egypt, which is the oldest civilisation in the world, by about 2000 BC, for example, Egyptian residents near the border with Kush were carrying out copper-smelting at Buhen near the second cataract on the Nile. Egyptian craftsmen manufactured a wide range of copper goods: necklaces, rings, bracelets, vessels and statues. Egyptians in the seventh century BCE learned the knowledge of manufacturing iron weapons from the Assyrians, who invaded Pharaonic Egypt around this period.

Activity 2.3 Rise of Early States in Africa

1. Using the internet or standard textbooks, search:
 - a. Who were the earliest humans in Africa?
 - b. What does a nomadic lifestyle involve?
 - c. How and why early humans began to settle in one place.

Hint: Domestication of plants and animals, availability of water, etc.
2. In pairs, discuss the findings from your search:
 - a. What changes came with sedentary life (e.g., housing, food production, population growth, etc)
 - a. How this change affected social organisation, technology, and culture.
 - b. You should write down three key effects of a sedentary lifestyle on early African societies and present them to the class in your pair.
3. Put yourselves in groups (3-5) and look for an ancient map of Africa from the library.
 - a. Identify and clearly mark at least five of the earliest African states/ kingdoms on the map. These may include:
 - i. Ancient Egypt
 - ii. Nubia/Kush

- iii. Axum
- iv. Ghana Empire
- v. Mali Empire
- vi. Songhai Empire
- vii. Great Zimbabwe

- b. Label each kingdom/state and indicate its approximate geographical location.
- c. On your A3 chart/any alternative paper, draw a comparison table with the following headings.

State/ Kingdom	Time Period	Location	Key Factors of Emergence	Examples of Achievement/Impact

- d. Using prior knowledge and textbooks, discuss and complete the table. Focus on factors such as
 - i. Geography and natural resources (e.g., rivers, gold, salt)
 - ii. Trade and commerce
 - iii. Religion and belief systems
 - iv. Leadership and centralised authority
 - v. Military power
 - vi. Agriculture and technology
 - e. Each group presents their chart to the class in 3–5 minutes, highlighting:
 - i. A comparison of at least two different kingdoms
 - ii. What common and unique factors led to their emergence
 - f. After all presentations, reflect as a class:
 - i. What do these ancient civilisations teach us about Africa's historical development?
 - ii. Are there lessons relevant to modern African societies?
4. Work in groups to act as community advisors. Imagine you are trying to help early humans in Africa to choose the best place to settle.
- a. Each group should pick **at least one** factor that determines the choice of settlement to research/think about. (Example of factors include: trade routes, resources, defence, water, and soil fertility).

- b. Write down why your factors are important for choosing a settlement.
- c. Create a decision chart like this below and rate each location and factor with a range of numbers from 1-5. For example, 5 = best, 4 = very good, 3 = good, 2 = satisfactory and 1 = poor

Nomadic to Sedentary Transition Decision Analysis
Advisor's Worksheet for Community Leaders

Settlement Location Decision Matrix

Location Options	Water Access	Soil Fertility	Defense	Resources	Total
Location 1:					
Location 2:					
Location 3:					
Location 4:					

Phased Transition Plan

Phase 1: Initial Settlement

Phase 2: Growth

Phase 3: Established

Food Production:
Social Structure:

Food Production:
Social Structure:

Food Production:
Social Structure:

Conflict Management Strategy

Internal Conflicts:

External Conflicts:

STEP-BY-STEP INSTRUCTIONS

1. For the Decision Matrix: Rate each location 1-5 for each factor (5=best). Add scores across each row to find the best location.

Figure 2.6: Worksheet on Nomadic to Sedentary Transition

5. With the same group, explore how the environment shaped different early African kingdoms.
 - a. Select two early African kingdoms (for example, Ancient Egypt, Mali, Ghana, Axum or any other).
 - b. Make a chart like this below:
 - c. Fill in how geography shaped farming, trade and security.

- d. In the last row, imagine a different scenario (for example, in case one picked Ancient Egypt, “What if Egypt had no Nile?”)

Environmental Systems Analysis of Early African Kingdoms
 Student Research Worksheet

Kingdom Selection

Kingdom 1:

Kingdom 2:

Kingdom 3:

Environmental Profiles

Kingdom 1 Environmental Profile

List three key geographic features that influenced this kingdom's development:

Kingdom 2 Environmental Profile

List three key geographic features that influenced this kingdom's development:

Kingdom 3 Environmental Profile

List three key geographic features that influenced this kingdom's development:

Alternative History Scenario

Selected Kingdom and Environmental Change

Choose one kingdom and identify one critical environmental factor that you will change:

Hypothesized Development Differences

Explain how the kingdom's development would have differed if this environmental factor had been different:

Figure 2.7: Worksheet on environmental system analysis



THE CONCEPT OF CIVILISATION

The Meaning of Civilisation

Civilisation refers to an advanced stage of human society. A society is recognised to have attained the status of a civilisation if that society exhibits the highest level of cultural, economic, and social complexity, marked by the creation of institutions, laws, and systems that enable large groups of people to live and work together in an organised manner.

In simpler terms, **civilisation** is the way human beings live together in a complex, organised society with shared rules, values, and achievements. One useful tool to help describe and analyse a civilisation is the acronym P-E-R-S-I-A. The table below explains the characteristics of civilisation using the acronym P-E-R-S-I-A.

PERSIA	Components/characteristics of civilisation with examples from African civilisations
Political	Political structures involve systems of governance, authority, and administration. Example: Great Zimbabwe (11th-15th centuries). The Kingdom of Great Zimbabwe developed a centralised political system with a monarch at the apex, supported by a hierarchical structure of regional governors. Its stone enclosures and monuments symbolised political authority and legitimacy.
Economic	Economic systems encompass trade networks, resource management, and wealth distribution. Example: Mali Empire (13th-17th centuries). Under Mansa Musa, the Mali Empire controlled vast gold mines and established extensive trans-Saharan trade routes. The empire's wealth was legendary—Mansa Musa's pilgrimage to Mecca in 1324-1325 was so lavish that it caused inflation in the regions he visited due to the gold he distributed.

PERSIA	Components/characteristics of civilisation with examples from African civilisations
Religious	Religious aspects include belief systems, rituals, and spiritual institutions that shaped societal values. Example: Ancient Egypt (3100-332 BCE). Ancient Egyptians developed a sophisticated religious system centred around numerous deities, with the pharaoh as a divine intermediary. Their religious beliefs influenced everything from monumental architecture (pyramids) to daily practices and concepts of the afterlife.
Social	Social structures refer to class hierarchies, family organisation, and communal relationships. Example: Swahili City-States (9th-15th centuries) The coastal Swahili civilisation developed complex urban societies with distinct social stratification. Merchants formed an elite class, while artisans and labourers occupied lower strata. Their multicultural society incorporated Arab, Persian, and indigenous African influences.
Intellectual	Intellectual achievements include educational systems, scientific advancements, and the preservation of knowledge. Example: Timbuktu, Mali (13th-16th centuries). Timbuktu became a renowned centre of Islamic scholarship with its universities and libraries housing hundreds of thousands of manuscripts. Scholars studied mathematics, astronomy, medicine, and literature, making it one of medieval Africa's most important intellectual centres.
Artistic	Artistic expressions encompass visual arts, music, literature, and other creative cultural productions. Example: Benin Kingdom (13th-19th centuries) The Benin Kingdom produced extraordinary bronze sculptures and plaques that documented their history and culture. Their artists developed sophisticated metalworking techniques that created detailed portraits of rulers and court life, showcasing remarkable artistic skill.

Activity 2.4 Understanding the concept of civilisation

1. a. In your groups, discuss the term “civilisation”.
 - i. Write down your personal definition of the term based on the discussion.
 - ii. Share your definitions and agree on one group definition to write on your flipchart or paper.
- b. Using textbooks, school library resources, or the internet (if available), identify and write down five (5) general characteristics of a civilisation. Use examples from your prior learning to add depth to your answers.

Examples of characteristics may include:

- a. Organised government
- b. Written language
- c. Religion or belief system
- d. Social structure/class system
- e. Economic activities (trade/agriculture)
- f. Technological advancement
- g. Art and architecture

Hint: Choose the five that your group agrees are most important.

- c. Each group presents to the class
 - i. Your agreed definition of civilisation
 - ii. The five characteristics you identified
 - iii. A short explanation of why you chose those characteristics
 - iv. A theory as to why different people/ societies have different concepts of the term.

ANCIENT EGYPTIAN CIVILISATION

The Egyptian civilisation is one of the world’s oldest and most famous civilisations. It emerged and developed as a result of small farming communities and villages that sprang up in the Nile valley, uniting to form larger towns. Around 3100 BCE, the towns in the Nile Valley began to grow and unite to form two main kingdoms in the valley: Lower Egypt and Upper Egypt, each with its own separate ruler. Narmer, who emerged as the king of Upper Egypt, later unified both kingdoms to

form one centralised kingdom with himself as the king. The new kings of Egypt adopted the title Pharaoh, meaning “great house,” and laid the foundations of one of the world’s greatest civilisations. The following are the features of ancient Egyptian civilisation using PERSIA: political, economic, religious, social, intellectual and art.

Political Features

1. **Pharaoh as Divine Ruler.** The Pharaoh was the supreme political and religious leader of ancient Egypt. He was seen as a god-king. He held absolute power over laws, the military, the economy, religion, and foreign policy.
2. **Complex Military System.** The Pharaoh was also the commander-in-chief of the army. The Egyptians used military campaigns to protect their borders, gain resources, and expand their territory.
3. **Division of the Empire into Districts.** Egypt was divided into 42 political districts (Nomes). Each Nome was governed by a district governor, who reported to the Pharaoh.
4. **Dynastic Rule.** In ancient Egypt, political authority passed through hereditary dynasties, often from father to son. Egypt’s history is divided into periods like the Old Kingdom, Middle Kingdom, and New Kingdom, each marked by different dynasties and political developments.
5. **Centralised Bureaucracy.** Egypt had a well-organised bureaucracy to administer its vast territory. Officials like viziers (prime minister), governors and scribes managed different regions and functions. The Vizier, for example, is Pharaoh’s top advisor and head of administration.

Economic Features

1. **Agriculture-Based Economy.** The annual flooding of the Nile deposited fertile silt, making the land ideal for farming. The land was ploughed using an oxen plough. After planting crops, farmers normally fetched water from the Nile to irrigate the land. They later invented a simple machine called the “shaduf” for irrigation. Main Crops produced included wheat, barley, flax, vegetables, and papyrus.
2. **Trade and Commerce.** Internally, goods were traded between districts. Externally, Egypt traded with Nubia, the Levant, Mesopotamia, and later the Mediterranean. Exports included Grain, gold, linen, papyrus, and glassware. Imports included timber (Lebanon), incense, ivory, spices, and luxury goods.

The Nile River was key in the export and import trade since they used for transportation.

3. **Use of the Barter Trade System.** Ancient Egyptians primarily used barter instead of coins. Goods like grain, cattle, and textiles were exchanged for other products or services.
4. **Skilled Labour and Craftsmanship.** The economy included skilled artisans: metalworkers, potters, jewellers, and builders. Artisans produced goods for temples, the elite, and trade.
5. **Taxation and State Control.** The state controlled much of the economy and collected taxes in the form of crops, labour, and goods. For example, the Pharaoh owned most of the land and redistributed it to nobles and priests.

Social Features

1. **Polytheism.** Egyptians believed in many gods and goddesses (worship of several gods). Key gods included Re (sun god), Osiris (god of the afterlife), and Isis (goddess of magic and fertility).
2. **Beliefs in Life after Death.** The Egyptians believed in life after death. Tombs were filled with goods, and bodies were mummified to preserve them for the next life.
3. **The Pharaoh as Divine.** The Pharaoh was seen as a god on earth, the intermediary between the gods and the people. This divine kingship reinforced political and religious authority.
4. **Education and Literacy.** Education was mainly for boys of the upper classes, especially for training scribes. Scribes held a high status due to their literacy and role in administration.
5. **Temples and Priests.** Temples were sacred spaces and often the wealthiest institutions in Egypt. Priests performed daily rituals, maintained the gods' statues, and offered sacrifices during festivals.

Technological/Artistic Features

1. **Architecture and Engineering.** Ancient Egyptian art was deeply symbolic, religious, and conservative in style. This reflected the Egyptians' values and beliefs about the divine, the afterlife, and the natural world.
2. **Achievements of Ancient Egyptian Civilisation.** Ancient Egypt rose from underdevelopment to a more advanced society. This was evident in areas including agriculture, irrigation, engineering and metal technology.

3. **Agriculture.** The Egyptians developed an advanced agricultural technology despite limited arable lands, relying on the Nile's annual flooding. The annual flooding of the Nile deposited fertile silt, making the land ideal for farming. Cultivation is from November to May after the flooded Nile recedes. Ox-drawn ploughs were used to plough the land. The main crops produced included wheat, barley, flax, olives, vegetables, and papyrus
4. **Irrigation technology.** The Egyptians developed a water management system that enabled large-scale and dry-season farming. They developed an irrigation system with a machine called the shaduf. The shaduf is a simple hand-operated tool used for lifting water from a source like a well or river and transferring it to irrigation canals or fields. The shaduf is made of a bucket, pole, pivot and counterweight on the other, acting as a lever. Figure 2.8 below is an example of the shaduf.



Figure 2.8: Use of the Shaduf.

Source: https://www.mdpi.com/water/water-07-05031/article_deploy/html/images/water-07-05031-g001.png



5. **Engineering (Pyramids).** The ancient Egyptians built temples, the Sphinx, tombs and pyramids. One of such is the pyramid built by Pharaoh Khufu at Giza (2600 BCE). It measures 140m high and 222m² at the base. The pyramid was built by carefully putting 2.5 million limestone blocks on top of each other without mortar. The figure below is a pyramid and a sphinx.



Figure 2.9: Pyramids of Egypt.

Source: <https://egymonuments.gov.eg/en/monuments/the-great-pyramid>



6. **Metal Technology.** Progressively, the Egyptians developed metallurgy and shipbuilding techniques. They used a variety of metals, including copper and bronze, to produce tools and weapons. They also worked with gold, silver, and iron. Their metalworking technique involved casting, soldering and alloying to create a variety of objects from jewellery to tools/weapons and architectural elements. They also built a ship capable of carrying up to 80 tons of cargo.

Timeline of Technological Development

Ancient Egypt went through transition periods in an attempt to build and improve on existing technology. The figure below shows the period of development.

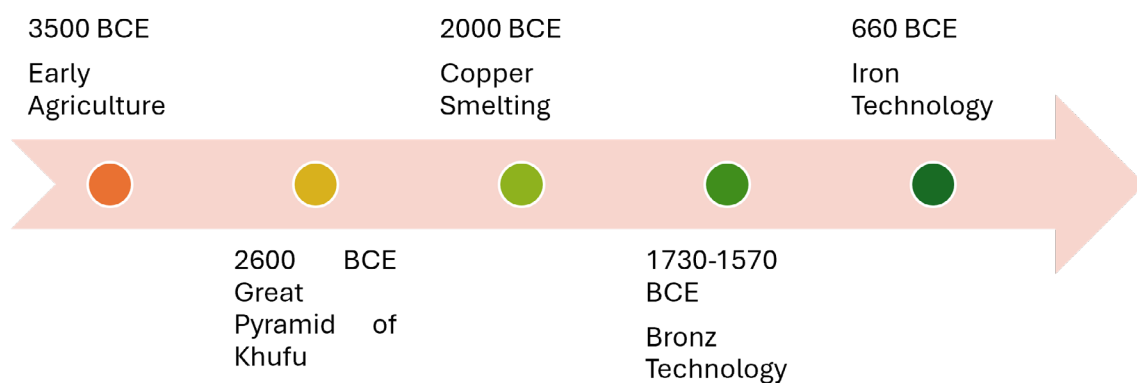


Figure 2.10: Timelines for technological development in Egypt

Activity 2.5 Understanding and presenting ancient Egyptian civilisation

1. Join together in small groups. On a sheet of A3 paper or poster board, draw a six-column chart with the following headings:

Political Economic Religious Social Intellectual
Artistic/Technological

- a. Under each column, describe the major features of Ancient Egypt.
- b. Below the chart, write a short explanation (5–6 sentences) describing how these features worked together to support the stability and development of Ancient Egyptian society. Focus on how religion influenced politics, how the Nile supported the economy, and how intellectual/technological advances helped in building monuments, etc.
- c. Work in your group as history investigators. You will use different historical sources to find out what made Ancient Egypt great and decide how trustworthy each source is.
- d. Visit the library as well as use the internet. Choose two types of sources to explore. For example,
 - i. Written sources (ancient records, books, articles)
 - ii. Archaeological sources (pyramids, tombs, artefacts)
 - iii. Visual sources (pictures, maps, documentaries)
 - iv. Oral sources (teacher notes, stories)
- e. For each source, find out the achievements of Ancient Egypt that the source shows. Does it show pyramids, architecture, irrigation, art of writing, trade, or an advanced political system?
- f. Write this down in your notebook.
- g. Fill in the table below to test the trustworthiness of your source.

Source Example	Type of Source	Who made it? (Origin)	Why was it made? (Purpose)	Can we trust it fully? Why/Why not?

2. Do a short presentation (3–5 minutes) on the achievements and contributions of Ancient Egypt to modern civilisation to the class.

Hint: Include visual elements

- Drawings/sketches of pyramids, temples, or the Nile
- Symbols of gods or the writing system

CIVILISATION OF WESTERN SUDANESE STATES

The West African Sudan refers to the savannah belt of West Africa. This area stretches from the Atlantic coast in the west to the region around Lake Chad in the east. This stretch of land was known to the Arabs as the “*Bilad as Sudan*”, meaning the land of the Blacks. It became home to great African civilisations such as the ancient Ghana Empire, Mali Empire, Songhai Empire, Kanem Bornu and Hausa states between the sixth and ninth centuries AD. Figure 2.11 is the map of the principal kingdoms and the people of western Africa:

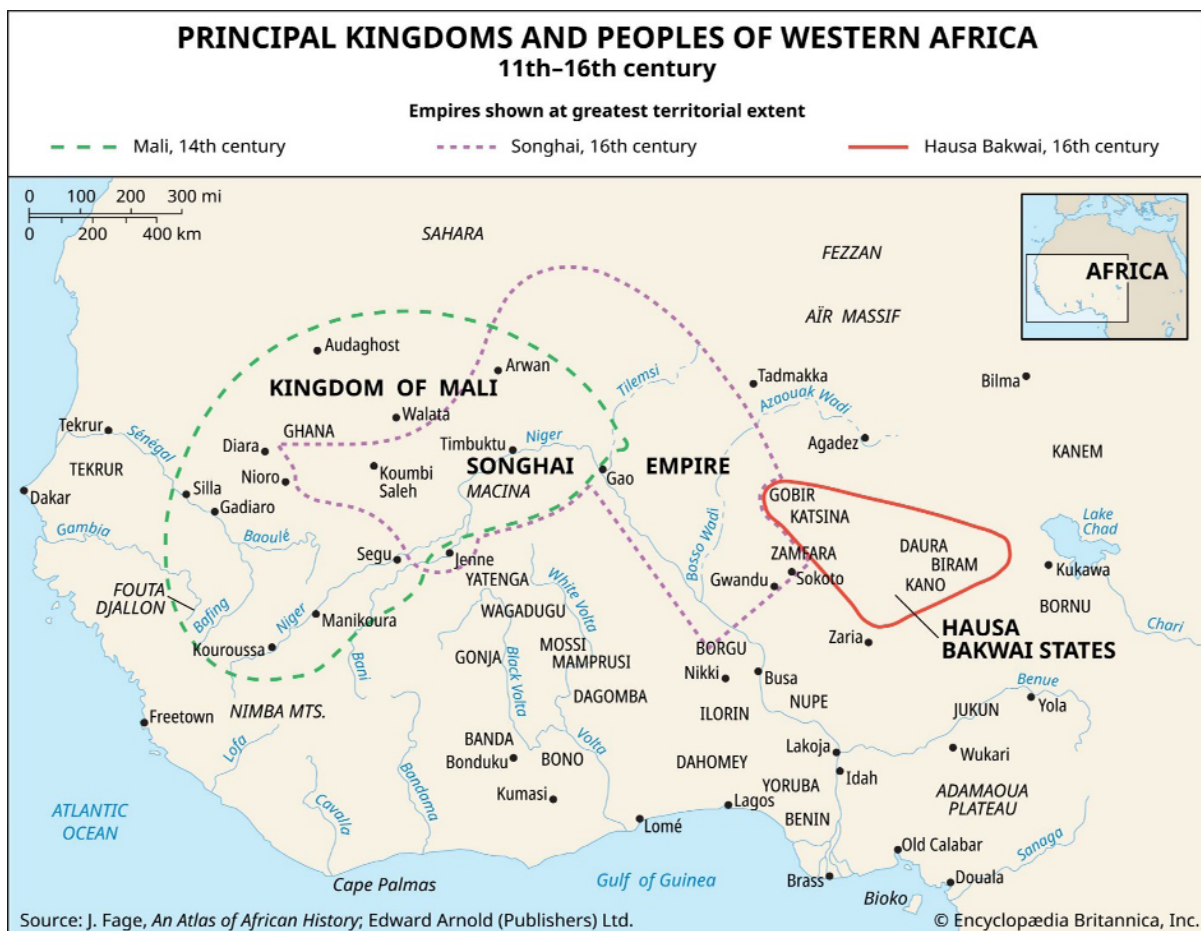


Figure 2.11: Kingdoms and peoples of Western Africa.

Source: <https://cdn.britannica.com/45/5045-050-82A6EBE7/kingdoms-peoples-Africa-11th-16th-century.jpg>



Features of the Civilisation of Western Sudanese States (Western Sudan)

The cultures and civilisations of the Western Sudan show certain general characteristics in their social, economic, religious and political organisation as well as in their settlement patterns and technological developments. The information below is the key characteristics of the Sudanese states.

Political Features

- a. All the Western Sudanese states built large armies for defensive and offensive purposes. Each army had a cavalry section. For example, Ghana raised an army of 200,000 warriors. Ibn Battuta estimated the strength of the Malian army to be 100,000, of whom one-tenth were mounted cavalry.
- b. They practised a centralised (monarchical) system of government which gave absolute power to their kings. The kings were regarded as divine and could not be easily removed from office.
- c. They developed a complex bureaucratic and administrative system in which the kings governed with assistance from paid ministers. In Songhai, for example, the hi-koy was the commander of the navy, the dyina-koy the commander of the army.
- d. Conquered states were administered in different ways. In the case of ancient Ghana, local rulers of the conquered states were allowed to rule themselves. To ensure loyalty, each local ruler had to send a royal son or loyalist to administer the vassal states.

Economic Feature

- a. Agriculture was vital in the economic life of the Western Sudanese. They domesticated and reared animals. Wolof, and later the Fulani in Hausaland, for example, reared a large number of cattle, sheep and goats.
- b. The main basis of the economy of the West African Sudanese states was the Trans-Saharan Trade. The people of all the states took turns at being middlemen in the trans-Saharan trade. Exports of the West African states included gold, slaves, ebony, ostrich feathers, animal skin (leather), cotton and grain. Imports were salt, textiles, sugar, kola nuts, manufactured goods, sword-blades from Spain and Germany, horses and books.
- c. They collected tributes from vassal states and income from royal farms. Import and export duties on trade goods enriched the West African Sudanese states. Ghana, for instance, charged fixed customs duties of one dinar of

gold for each donkey-load of salt imported and two dinars for each donkey-load exported.

Social Features

- a. Some of the western Sudanese states practised matrilineal (Ghana and Mali) while others (Hausa states, Kanem Bornu, etc.) practised a patrilineal system of inheritance.
- b. Western Sudanese society was stratified into three social classes: the rulers, freemen and slaves. Slaves were either war captives or people they bought.
- c. Most of the Western Sudanese states developed around a core group of people. For example, in ancient Ghana, it was the Soninke, in Mali, it was the Mandingo, Songhai of Songhai and in Kanem-Bornu, it was the Kanuri.
- d. Western Sudanese states were polytheistic. They worshipped many gods. However, there was a great deal of religious tolerance in these states and kingdoms as Islam began to gain roots.
- e. The Empires in Western Sudan made extensive use of Muslim scribes and experts. The king of Ghana, for instance, used Muslims in his court as clerks and interpreters.

Technological/Artistic Features

The Western Sudanese attained a high level of technological skills. Knowledge of metal technology was widespread in all the states and kingdoms. Craftsmen manufactured a wide range of items from copper, bronze, and gold

Major Achievements of the Western Sudanese States

The Western Sudanese states boast of numerous achievements encompassing all spheres of life. The various areas of advancement included:

1. **Advanced education and literacy (University of Timbuktu):** The Western Sudanese States established several madrasas (Islamic schools) in Timbuktu (the University of Timbuktu), Mali and Songhai. Timbuktu, for example, flourished during the 14th–16th centuries, especially under the reign of Mansa Musa of Mali and Askia Muhammad of Songhai. It became a major centre of learning. Its academic programs and beautiful libraries attracted scholars from across the Islamic world.
2. **Development of complex art and craft works:** The development of complex art and craft works in the Western Sudanese states was deeply rooted in a rich

cultural heritage shaped by ethnic diversity, historical trade routes, Islamic influence, and environmental adaptations. Their artworks included textiles, weaving, leatherwork, pottery, ceramics, woodwork, metalwork, beadwork and jewellery.

3. **Development of complex religious systems:** The Western Sudanese states developed complex religious systems between the 9th and 16th centuries. These systems blended traditional African religious beliefs with Islam, introduced mainly through trans-Saharan trade and contact with North African merchants and scholars.
4. **Development of complex Architectural techniques:** The states in Western Sudan developed a complex way of building that merged Islamic ideals with indigenous techniques, resulting in a unique style. Mosques, Islamic schools, roads, markets, walls and administrative/palaces were built with materials which includes sun-dried mudbricks and timber. Figure 2.12 is the Sankore Mosque, which also served as a centre for higher learning.



Figure 2.12: University of Sankore.

Source: [Sankoré Madrasah - Wikipedia](#)

5. **Development of metal technology:** The Iron Age in West Africa is believed to have begun around 500 BCE, possibly earlier. Unlike other regions, Western Sudanese developed ironworking independently, not through diffusion from

the Mediterranean or Nile Valley. Iron technology was adopted in different eras and for specific uses by the states, as illustrated below.

a. Ancient Ghana Empire (c. 300–1200 CE)

- i. Used iron tools and weapons to expand territory and secure trade routes.
- ii. Iron ploughs and hoes increased agricultural productivity.

b. Mali Empire (c. 1235–1600 CE)

- i. Benefited from skilled blacksmiths and metalworkers.
- ii. Iron was used for both warfare and farming, enhancing economic strength.

c. Songhai Empire (c. 1430–1591 CE)

- i. Continued and advanced iron production techniques.
- ii. Maintained large armies equipped with iron weapons.

- 6. Advanced agricultural system:** The agricultural systems of Western Sudanese states were complex, adaptive, and sustainable. They cultivated crops and raised animals. Millet, sorghum, Rice, cowpeas, okra, baobab, groundnuts and cotton were produced. They also rear animals, including cattle, goats, and sheep. They dug shallow wells, canals and channels for irrigation.
- 7. Complex system of administration:** The ancient Western Sudanese established complex and centralised systems of government. A monarch ruled each empire. Appointed governors (often relatives or loyal nobles) governed local provinces or conquered territories. These officials were responsible for collecting taxes, enforcing laws, and maintaining order. The acceptance of Islam by the ruling class led to the incorporation of the Sharia laws into the customary law. Each empire had a professional army with standing soldiers, war captains, and local militias.
- 8. Development of long-distance trade (Trans-Saharan trade):** The Western Sudanese developed a complex network of trade. That is, a long-distance trade known as the Trans-Saharan caravan trade. This trade network connected sub-Saharan West Africa with North Africa and the Mediterranean world across the vast Sahara Desert. Imports included salt, textiles, metal wares, horses, glassware and beads, spices, books and manuscripts. Exports from Western Sudan were gold, ivory, kola nuts, slaves, and agricultural products. The proceeds from this trade helped in the development of the Western

Sudanese states—notably ancient Ghana, Mali, and Songhai—between the 8th and 16th centuries.

Trade routes connected major centres from Sijilmasa and Timbuktu/Gao to Kumbi Saleh (Ghana) and later Niani (Mali). The trade routes did not just carry goods—they carried ideas, religions (Islam), and new forms of governance that reshaped the region permanently. Camels were used for the transportation of goods across the Sahara. This was because camels could travel long distances without water and could carry heavy loads.

9. **Advanced military establishment:** The western Sudanese states developed formidable military systems that enabled them to expand, protect trade routes, maintain internal peace, and ward off external threats. Under rulers like Sundiata Keita and Mansa Musa, for example, Mali developed a professional army that could respond quickly to threats and enforce imperial authority. The use of iron weapons gave ancient Ghanaian forces an edge over their less technologically equipped rival. Sunni Ali and Askia Mohammed of Songhai had one of the most powerful and centralised military establishments.

Activity 2.6 Mind-mapping and evaluation of achievements of Western Sudan

1.
 - a. Draw a mind map titled: “Features of the Civilisation of the Western Sudanese States”
 - b. From the centre, draw at least six branches representing the key features:
 - i. Political system
 - ii. Economic life
 - iii. Social organisation
 - iv. Religious practices
 - v. Military strength
 - vi. Art
 - vii. Technology
 - c. Under each branch, add keywords, short phrases, or small drawings that describe each aspect in detail.

2. a. Create a comparison chart or short report with three columns labelled:

Ghana Empire Mali Empire Songhai Empire

- b. Under each column, list and discuss at least three major achievements, using prior knowledge from “Rise of States and Kingdoms in Ghana” and the Internet/approved learner materials.
- c. Do a short presentation on your discussion to the class.
- i. Use the following question as a guide.
 - ii. How did the achievements of the Western Sudanese states make Africa unique in comparison to other nations or states that you have studied?

CIVILISATION OF THE SWAHILI COAST OF EAST AFRICA

The emergence of the Swahili civilisation on the East African coast was a gradual and complex process influenced by a mix of indigenous African cultures and external interactions, particularly with Arab, Persian, and Indian traders. The Swahili people were originally Bantu-speaking communities who had migrated from inland regions. Swahili language (Kiswahili) is the most widely spoken language in the eastern and southern parts of Africa today. It is mostly spoken in places such as Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi, Mozambique and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Swahili in these areas is used as a lingua franca, which does not belong to any particular ethnic group but is used widely as a language of trade. The Swahili language (Kiswahili) emerged as a blend of Bantu structure with significant Arabic vocabulary, reflecting the cultural fusion. The blend of foreign influence and the predominantly Bantu indigenous cultures on the East African Coast led to the rise of the Swahili civilisation. The figure below is a graphical representation of the location of the states that emerged on the Swahili coast.



Figure 2.13: Swahili coast.

Sources: <https://chartercitiesinstitute.org/blog-posts/building-africa-kilwa-kisiwani-the-indian-ocean-trade-and-the-rise-of-east-african-city-states/20cities.jpg>



Features of the Civilisation of the Swahili Coast of East Africa

1. The presence of a lingua franca (Kiswahili language). Kiswahili is a Bantu language enriched by words borrowed from Arabic, Portuguese and Persian languages.
2. Africanised Swahili culture. For example, local African customs, beliefs, and social structures continued to play a key role.
3. Presence of both African traditional religion and Islamic religion. Though the people embraced Islam, they still practised the traditional African religion.
4. Centralised political system.
5. Luxurious living and lifestyle of people and the kings. The Swahili kings (sultans) lived in great luxury. The sultans of Pemba and Zanzibar, for example, dressed in very fine silk and cotton garments obtained from Chinese merchants at Mombasa.
6. Urban civilisation. Its people lived in beautiful cities such as Kilwa, Pemba, Mafia, Malindi, and Zanzibar. These were all large centres of population.

7. Subsistence agriculture practice. The Swahili were not great farmers. They were really gardeners.
8. Barter system of trading. One type of goods was exchanged for another type without the use of money.

Major Achievements of the Swahili Civilisation

1. **Emergence of a common language (Kiswahili):** The Swahili states developed a common language, Kiswahili. Kiswahili, rooted in Bantu but heavily influenced by Arabic, served as the practical language of communication. Despite regional ethnic diversity (various Bantu groups, Arab settlers, Persian immigrants), Swahili acted as a unifying identity and language. It bridged communication between coastal elites and inland communities, aiding political and economic expansion.
2. **Advanced metalworking:** Metalwork on the East African coast was a blend of indigenous innovation and foreign influence, particularly from Islamic and Indian cultures. Indigenous iron smelting was practised using bloomery furnaces made from clay. By this, wrought iron was produced from iron ore. Tools (knives, hoes), spear tips, weapons, and jewellery made of iron, copper, and occasionally bronze were produced. Figure 2.14 is the bloomery machine.

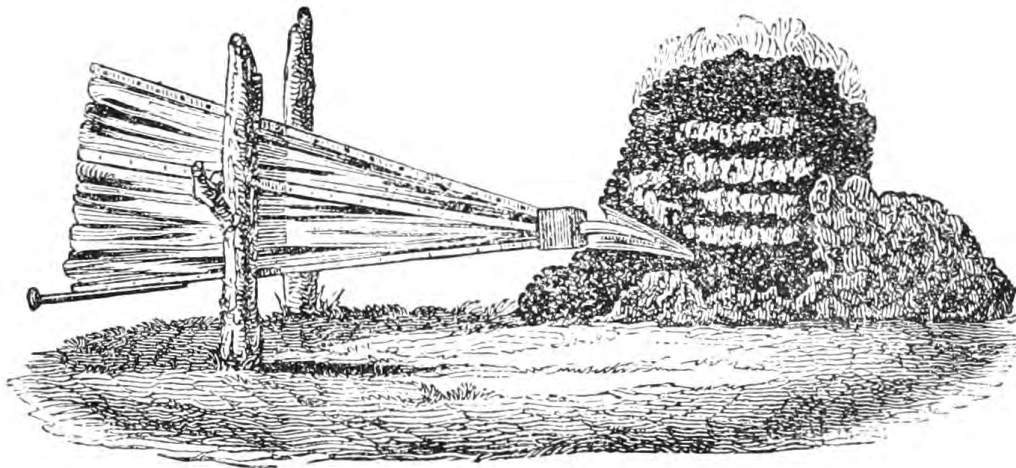


Figure 2.14: Bloomery machine.

Source: <https://www.medievalware.com/blog/late-medieval-steel-revolution/>



3. **Development of complex architectural techniques:** The architectural techniques of the East African Coast reflected a rich hybrid of indigenous

African traditions and external influences, especially from the Arab, Persian, Indian, and later Portuguese worlds. Before external contact, East African coastal communities built homes using locally available materials: wattle and daub (mud walls with wooden frameworks) and thatched roofs (using palm fronds or grass). With the rise of the Indian Ocean trade, especially with the Arab world, builders began using coral stone and lime mortar. They built multi-storied houses, mosques, neat town layouts and decorative elements.

4. **Complex system of Government:** Swahili had unique governing structures combining Islamic principles, local African customs and merchant-based politics. There was no centralised Swahili Empire, but rather a network of autonomous cities. Each Swahili city operated an independent city-state with its own government, rulers, and institutions. A Sultan (from Arabic influence) ruled most cities. The Sultan was often a hereditary leader, though succession could be contested. The Council of Elders advised or checked the Sultan's authority. Sharia law played a central role in governance. Swahili governments regulated trade, maintained tax systems, diplomatic relations, and public works (like mosques, ports, and walls).
5. **Advanced trading system:** The Swahili Coast was part of the larger Indian Ocean trade network, connecting East Africa (Swahili city-states), the Arabian Peninsula (Oman, Yemen), Persia (especially Shiraz), India (Gujarat, Kerala), Southeast Asia (Indonesia) and China (via intermediary trade).

Exports included gold, ivory, tortoiseshell, rhino horn, slaves, timber, animal skins, iron and other metals. Imports were porcelain, glassware, beads, spices, textiles, dates and other foodstuffs. Trade was often done via barter, but also through cowry shells, metal objects, and, in some places, Islamic coins. Kilwa, for example, minted its own gold and copper coins by the 11th century.

Activity 2.7 Exploring the Swahili Civilisation

1. **a.** In pairs or small groups, draw a flowchart titled: "The Origin and Features of the Swahili Civilisation"
- b.** The flowchart should visually show how Swahili civilisation developed through a fusion of cultures. Start with:
 - i. Indigenous Bantu-speaking African communities
 - ii. Interaction with Arab traders
 - iii. Influence from Persian and Indian merchants
 - iv. Resulting in a unique Swahili culture.

- d. Include key features in the flowchart, such as:
 - i. Use of the Swahili language (Bantu base with Arabic loanwords)
 - ii. Spread of Islam
 - iii. Coastal trading ports (e.g. Kilwa, Mombasa, Zanzibar)
 - iv. Distinctive architecture and urban life
 - v. Maritime trade with Asia and the Middle East
 - e. Add arrows and short notes to make it visually appealing and easy to follow.
2. Using the internet/approved learner materials, search and create a poster on one of the following aspects of Swahili civilisation
 - a. Architecture (e.g. coral-stone houses, mosques)
 - b. Trade networks (gold, ivory, slaves, spices)
 - c. Urban planning and port cities
 - d. Swahili language and literature
 - e. Cultural fusion (food, dress, religion, music)

Each poster should include:

 - i. A title
 - ii. Images or sketches
 - iii. Bullet points explaining key features
 - iv. One paragraph summary
3. Display the posters around the classroom for a Gallery Walk.
 - a. Walk around, view each group's work, and write down at least one interesting fact or question for each.
 - b. In the same groups, use your knowledge from the flowcharts and posters to:
 - i. List at least 4 major achievements of the Swahili civilisation.
 - ii. Discuss the historical importance of each.
 - c. Come to a group consensus about which achievement you believe is the most significant, using the following guiding questions:
 - i. Which achievement had the most lasting influence?
 - ii. Which contributed most to the development of Swahili identity?
 - iii. Which had the greatest regional or global impact?

- d.** Write a group conclusion (5–6 sentences) and prepare to share briefly with the class (1–2 minutes).

THE BANTU CIVILISATION

The word Bantu means “the people”, and it is the plural of the word “Muntu”, which means a person. The Bantu refers to a group of 400 or more languages, along with the people who speak them. Examples of Bantu languages include Luganda (spoken in Uganda), Kikuyu (spoken in Kenya), Kiswahili (spoken in Tanzania), and Shona (spoken in Zimbabwe). These languages are different but closely related to each other because they all originated from a single parent language known as proto-Bantu. The Bantu people are widely spread across the face of the African continent from Cameroon in the west towards Kenya in the east, and parts of southern Africa. Linguistic research has proven that the original home of the Bantu was the area south of the middle Benue River valley in eastern Nigeria before they spread to occupy the central, eastern and southern parts of Africa.

Features of the Bantu Civilisation

1. The Bantu practised both the Matrilineal and Patrilineal systems of inheritance. Some Bantu practiced matrilineal system of inheritance where children inherited from their mother’s bloodline (mother’s lineage). This often includes property, lineage identity and sometimes succession to leadership positions. For instance, the Kaguru people of East Africa.

On the other hand, some Bantu practiced patrilineal system of inheritance where children inherit property or lineage identity from their father’s lineage. For example, the Kikuyu of Kenya and the Meru.

2. They practised polygamy: In the Bantu societies, men married two or more wives.
3. Agriculture and Fishing activities: Bantu agricultural practice centred on a mix of crop cultivation and, in some areas, animal husbandry. Cultivation of Southeast Asian food crops became prominent when bananas and Taro (cocoyam) were introduced to them. Those around the rivers practised fishing.
4. They lived in compact villages: The initial habitation of the Bantu society was stateless. It was a kinship-based social structure and a decentralised governance often referred to as “stateless societies.”

5. **Centralised political system:** The Bantu societies developed a complex political system over time. They developed powerful kingdoms with decision-making powers in the hands of the king. Examples of these political kingdoms include the kingdom of Mapungubwe, the kingdom of Great Zimbabwe and the Zulu empire.
6. **Metalworking:** Agricultural surplus gave the Bantu time to engage in other productive activities such as metalwork. Here, they used metals such as iron and copper to produce agricultural, hunting, warfare tools, as well as cultural symbolic objects. Historically, the Bantu became well known for their knowledge in metalworking.
7. **Believed in witchcraft, divination, magic, etc:** The Bantu societies, just like any African society, believe in witchcraft, divination and magic.

Major achievements of the Bantu

1. The Bantu developed complex metal technology (Iron and goldsmithing).
2. They also developed a complex political system (a centralised system of government).
3. They created advanced states and kingdoms such as Zimbabwe, Monomotapa, Mapungubwe, Zulu, etc)
4. They were advanced in agricultural developments (Food crops, fishing, animal husbandry, etc.)
5. They developed ceramics from clay. This was mostly dominated by women who made vessels, cups, pots and made other cultural tools using ceramics.

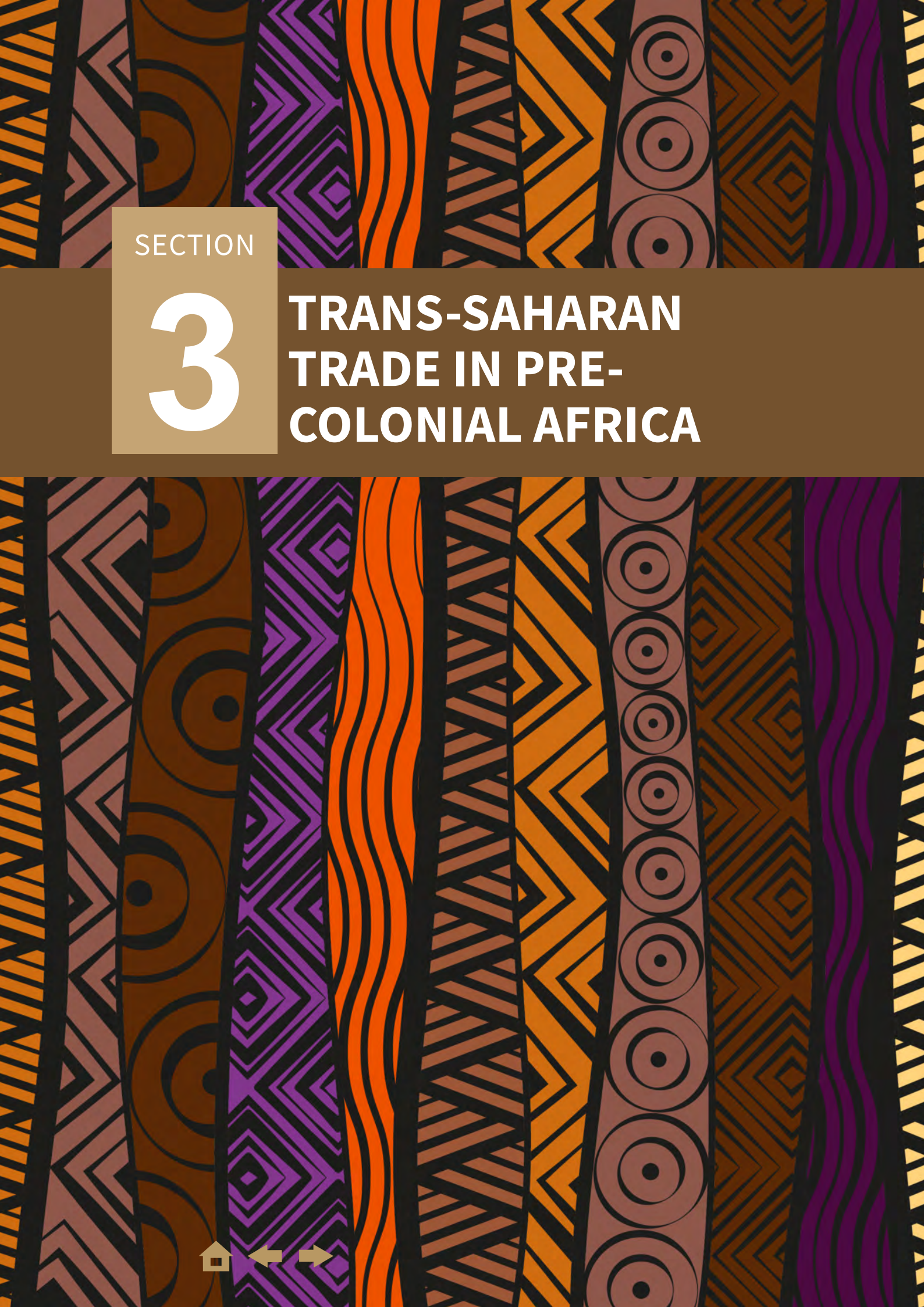
Activity 2.8 Understanding the Bantu Civilisation

1. **a. In groups, use textbooks, class notes, or the internet to search for the major features of the Bantu civilisation.**
 - b. Each group should:
 - i. Write bullet points summarising at least 5 major features
 - ii. Share your findings in a 2-minute mini-presentation to another group or the whole class.

2.
 - a. Discuss and list at least three major achievements of the Bantu civilisation. These could include:
 - i. Mastery of iron technology
 - ii. Development of agriculture and food production
 - iii. Diffusion of Bantu languages across Africa
 - iv. Spread of cultural practices and belief systems
 - b. Choose one major achievement your group finds most important or fascinating.
 - c. Create a Mini Exhibit Poster for a Class Gallery Walk. Your exhibit should include:
 - i. A clear title (e.g., “Iron Technology: Forging Africa’s Future”)
 - ii. Illustrations or drawings (tools, crops, migration paths, language maps, etc.)
 - iii. Brief descriptions or bullet points
 - iv. A short paragraph (4–5 sentences) explaining the significance of your chosen achievement
 - d. Post your exhibits around the classroom for a Gallery Walk, where groups take turns exploring each other’s work and leaving feedback or questions on sticky notes.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. List the six stages of the hominid development.
2. State three features each for scientific and non-scientific theories of human origins.
3. Examine any five factors that contributed to the rise of early African states.
4. Analyse four contributions of Ancient Egypt to the world's civilisation.
5. Describe any five achievements of the Western Sudanese states.
6. Examine any five features of the Bantu civilisation.



SECTION

3

TRANS-SAHARAN TRADE IN PRE- COLONIAL AFRICA



PRE-COLONIAL ECONOMY AND ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES

INTRODUCTION

This section builds on previous knowledge in the nature of trade and the development of trading activities in pre-colonial Ghana, treated in Year One. It explores one of Africa's most significant historical commercial networks: The Trans-Saharan Trade. You will discover how this trading network connected North Africa with West African kingdoms across the formidable Sahara Desert, facilitating the exchange of goods, ideas, and cultures. Moreover, you will understand the origins, organisation, and routes of this remarkable trade network.

Through the activities provided in each area of the section, you will identify the key regions and peoples involved, particularly appreciating the crucial role of the Tuareg. You will analyse the factors that contributed to its rise, including the introduction of camels and the spread of Islam. You will evaluate the wide-ranging social, political, and economic impacts on participating societies. Finally, you will examine the challenges faced by traders and the factors that led to the decline of trade.

This knowledge will help you to appreciate how pre-colonial African societies built sophisticated commercial systems that shaped the continent's development and connected Africa to the wider world.

KEY IDEAS

- **Atlantic Trade** was a European-led coastal trade that eventually replaced the trans-Saharan trade system in West Africa.
- A **caravan** is a group of traders travelling together, often with camels, for safety and efficiency across deserts.
- **The gold-salt trade** was the exchange of gold from West Africa for salt from the Sahara, which was central to the Trans-Saharan economy.
- **Trans-Saharan Trade** was a trade system across the Sahara Desert linking West and North Africa, active from early medieval times to the 16th century.

ORIGINS AND ORGANISATION OF THE TRANS-SAHARAN TRADE

In Year One, we explored the exchange economy of pre-colonial Ghana, which consisted of two main forms: domestic trade and long-distance trade. Domestic trade occurred in local markets through a barter system, with centres like Begho, Salaga, and Kumasi serving as important hubs. Women played crucial roles in retail trade, controlling specific commodities and managing finances. Long-distance trade connected different regions and facilitated the exchange of specialised goods between ecological zones. This trade contributed significantly to the economic growth and cultural exchange in pre-colonial Ghana.

This prior knowledge helps us understand the emergence, organisation and effects of the Trans-Saharan Trade.

The Concept of the Trans-Saharan Trade

The Trans-Saharan Trade was a network of commercial routes that connected North Africa with West Africa across the Sahara Desert. It began around the 3rd-4th century CE but developed significantly from the 7th century, reaching its peak between 1300 and 1600 CE.

This trade network linked three distinct regions: North Africa (connected to the Mediterranean World and Europe), the Sahara Desert, and the Western Sudan (including the savannah and forest zones of West Africa). The name “Trans-Saharan” reflects its defining feature, which means crossing the vast Sahara Desert.

The trade was organised in caravans, which were large groups of merchants travelling together with their goods and guards for protection. This caravan system allowed traders to navigate the harsh desert environment safely and efficiently.

Regions that Participated in the Trans-Saharan Trade

The three main regions that participated in the conduct of the Trans-Saharan Trade contributed different goods based on their resources and specialisations. **Table 3.1** below shows the regions that participated in the trade and some of the goods they traded on.

Table 3.1: Participating Regions of the Trans-Saharan Trade

Trans-Saharan Trade: Regions and Goods Supplied		
North Africa	Sahara Desert	Western Sudan (West Africa)
Salt, textiles, beads, copper, horses, cloth, and metal goods.	Salt, copper, dates	Gold, ivory, slaves, kola nuts, pepper, hides and skins, gum.

Main Routes for the Trans-Saharan Trade

The Trans-Saharan Trade Routes were a network of routes that connected North Africa with West Africa. Three main trade routes crossed the Sahara Desert.

- 1. The Western Route:** This route began in Morocco and Algeria, passing through cities like Fez and Marrakesh before reaching Sijilmasa at the desert's edge. From there, it crossed the desert to Awdaghost and then to Ancient Ghana. This route was particularly important for the gold trade, connecting the gold fields of West Africa with Morocco.
- 2. The Central Route:** Starting from Tunis (Tunisia) and Tripoli in modern Libya, this route passed through Ghat and continued south to Gao and Timbuktu on the Niger Bend. This route became increasingly important during the Mali and Songhai empires when Timbuktu flourished as a centre of trade and Islamic learning.
- 3. The Eastern Route:** This route connected Egypt through the Fezzan region to Kanem-Bornu and Hausaland. It facilitated trade between Egypt and the Lake Chad region and later connected to the Hausa city-states. *Figure 3.1* below is a map that indicates the trade routes.



Figure 3.1: The main routes of the Trans-Saharan Trade.

Source: <https://www.worldhistory.org/uploads/images/10148.png?v=1751938218-0>



What was common among these trade routes was that, along each route, there were trading posts, oases which provided water, rest points and other critical supplies. Some of these posts grew into important cities in their own right, serving as commercial and cultural centres where traders from different regions would meet and exchange goods.

The Conduct of the Trans-Saharan Trade

The Trans-Saharan Trade operated through caravans organised by Berber merchants (traders) from North Africa. These caravans travelled along the established routes, timing their journeys after the rainy season to avoid sandstorms. The journey

across the desert typically took three months, allowing merchants to make only one round trip annually. Along the routes, trading posts like Sijilmasa, Awdaghost, and Walata provided essential rest stops, storage facilities, and meeting places for traders. Initially, using a barter system, merchants exchanged goods directly—sometimes trading salt for its equivalent weight in gold. Traders employed local agents (the Tuareg) to provide certain services for smooth trading activities.

Problems Faced by the Caravan Traders

The Trans-Saharan traders encountered numerous challenges during their journeys across the desert.

1. **Harsh desert climate:** Scorching heat during the day and cold at night made travel physically demanding. It was difficult to find enough water for people and animals (especially camels). In addition, the weather affected their goods as some articles were rusted and appeared old.
2. **Long and exhausting journeys:** Some trade routes stretched over 2,000 miles and took several weeks or even months to travel.
3. **Navigational difficulties:** There were no landmarks in the desert. The desert's shifting sands made it difficult to maintain a sense of direction. Caravans often relied on experienced Berber or Tuareg guides who knew the terrain well.
4. **Risk of robbery and attacks:** Caravans carrying gold, salt, and slaves were attractive targets for robbers. In some instances, passing through territories controlled by rival tribes could lead to ambushes or demands for tribute.
5. **Cultural and language barriers:** Traders from different regions often spoke different languages and followed different customs. These could lead to disputes or hinder trade negotiations. The traders resolved this by employing the Tuaregs as interpreters.
6. **The Role of the Tuareg in the Trans-Saharan Trade:** The Tuareg provided the following services to the caravans during the Trans-Saharan Trade in exchange for payment.
 - a. *They served as guides:* The Tuareg had familiar knowledge of oases, terrain, and weather patterns. Hence, navigated caravans safely through the desert.
 - b. *They served as guards:* They protected the caravan from raiders and wild animals.

- c. *They were trading post managers:* The established and maintained desert rest stops for the caravan
- d. They provided services including shelter, head porting, food and water to both traders and camels.
- e. *They served as interpreters:* They facilitated communication between traders.

Activity 3.1 Organisation of the Trans-Saharan Trade

1. Relying on your prior knowledge and with the aid of the internet/textbooks
 - a. Explain the concept of the Trans-Saharan Trade.
 - b. Identify and discuss the three main routes of the Trans-Saharan Trade from a map to be given by your teacher.
 - c. Discuss how goods were transported during the Trans-Saharan Trade.
 - d. Point out five items traded from North Africa and five items traded from West Africa, and their location on a map to be provided by your teacher.
2. Follow the link <https://youtube.be/L2831OXEyrY?si=7U01q7OXxh4PtTiO> to watch a short video on the Trans-Saharan Trade and discuss:



- a. How the trade was conducted.
 - b. Roles played by the traders, guides and guards.
 - c. How the traders were able to overcome the harsh desert conditions to make a profit from the trade.
3.
 - a. In a role-play setting, re-enact the role played by the Tuareg during the Trans-Saharan Trade.
 - b. Include the following in your role play: their establishment of rest stops, production of food and water, provision of horses and camels, and their roles as guides, guards, and interpreters for traders.

4. In a small group of your peers, analyse the extract below.

“After twenty-five days, we arrive at Taghaza... One of its marvels is that its houses and mosque are of rock and salt, and its roofs of camel skins. It has no trees, but is nothing but sand with a salt mine. They dig in the earth for the salt, which is found in great slabs lying one upon the other... A camel carries two slabs of it. No one lives at Taghaza except the slaves of the Massufa tribe, who dig for the salt [. . .]

The people of Mali have some admirable qualities. They are seldom unjust and have a greater abhorrence of injustice than any other people. Their sultan [the mansa] shows no mercy to anyone guilty of the least act of it.... Neither traveller nor inhabitant in it has anything to fear from robbers or men of violence.” ---A quote from Ibn Battuta’s Travels in Asia and Africa (14th century)

Use these questions to guide your analysis.

- a. What is known about Taghaza from the extract above?
- b. How useful was the town of Taghaza in the Trans-Saharan Trade?
- c. Each group do a short (2-3 minutes) presentation of your analysis to the class

FACTORS THAT LED TO THE RISE OF THE TRANS-SAHARAN TRADE

The rise of the Trans-Saharan trade was influenced by a combination of geographic, technological, economic, political, and cultural factors. Here are some key factors.

1. **Introduction of the camel.** The “camel revolution” made desert travel possible and more efficient. Camels could carry heavy loads, endure harsh desert conditions, and travel long distances without water.
2. **Development of caravan routes.** This, for example, enabled safer and more efficient movement of goods and other services.
3. **Rise of powerful West African kingdoms.** Kingdoms like ancient Ghana, Mali, and Songhai provided security and political stability, which encouraged long-distance trade.
4. **Spread of Islam.** Islam promoted literacy and created a shared cultural and legal framework. For example, Muslim merchants, scholars, and rulers facilitated trade relations across regions.

5. **Technological and logistical innovations.** The use of packsaddles for camels, the development of navigation techniques, and a better understanding of desert routes improved trade efficiency.

How the Introduction of the Camel Promoted the Trans-Saharan Trade

The introduction of the camel to North Africa by the Romans in the 1st century CE transformed the Trans-Saharan trade. Before camels, merchants relied on horses and donkeys, which were not well-suited to desert travel. Camels were uniquely suited to desert travel in several important ways.

1. **Endurance:** Camels could travel for several days without food or water, allowing caravans to cross vast stretches of desert between oases. This makes them more fit for desert conditions.
2. **Carrying capacity:** A single camel could carry heavy loads (about 150-200 kg), much more than horses or donkeys, increasing the volume of goods that could be transported.
3. **Desert adaptation:** The camel has broad and flat feet, which prevented them from sinking into soft sand, making desert travel more efficient.
4. **Protection from elements:** Long eyelashes and closable nostrils protected camels during sandstorms, reducing travel delays.

Effects of the Camel in the Trans-Saharan Trade

These advantages earned camels the nickname “ships of the desert.” By the 7th century CE, camels were widely used throughout the Sahara, dramatically accelerating trade development. The use of the camels led to:

- a. Larger caravans carrying more goods
- b. Creation of more direct routes across the desert
- c. More frequent trading journeys
- d. Lower transportation costs
- e. Greater safety for merchants
- f. Exchange of cultural, religious (Islam) and technological ideas

Without the camel, the scale and regularity of the Trans-Saharan Trade would not have been possible. The *Figure 3.2* below is an example of the camels used.



Figure 3.2: Camel on caravan trade.

Source: <https://nuttersworld.com/ancient-trade-routes-mediterranean-sea/ancient-overland->



How the Introduction of Islam in West Africa Influenced the Trans-Saharan Trade

The spread of Islam across North Africa and into West Africa significantly enhanced the Trans-Saharan Trade, particularly in the 15th and 16th centuries.

Impact of Islam on the Trans-Saharan Trade

1. **Introduction of Arabic:** The introduction of Islam during the trade came along with the Arabic language, which served as a common language for traders.
2. **Common legal system:** The Islamic religion provided a common law for standardised trade practices among participating states and people.
3. **Pilgrimage routes:** As one of the pillars of Islam, Hajj created new travel and trade networks between Africa and Asia.
4. **New market avenues:** Islamic traditions and practices created a new vacuum for specific goods. For instance, Islamic dress style and education resulted in the rising demand for new goods such as garments and teaching and learning materials.
5. **Trust networks:** The Islamic religion served as a magnet that united various communities and enhanced trust among them. This had a significant impact on merchant trust and cooperation, which is essential in business.

Activity 3.2 Rise of the Trans-Saharan Trade

1. Why did the Trans-Saharan Trade emerge and grow in West Africa?
 - a. Brainstorm and jot down possible factors that might have accounted for the rise of the trade.
 - b. Discuss in groups the points you wrote down.
 - c. Based on your discussion, create a mind map of the factors you agreed on.
2. In your small groups, do a role play answering: *How did the introduction of the camel change the Trans-Saharan Trade?*
 - a. Roles may include:
 - i. A trader from North Africa
 - ii. A West African king or merchant
 - iii. A camel caravan leader
 - iv. A Tuareg nomad guiding through the desert
 - b. Reflect on the following questions.
 - i. What did the camel allow traders to do that they could not before?
 - ii. How did this affect towns and cities?
3. In what ways did the introduction of Islam influence the Trans-Saharan Trade?
 - a. Quickly review your prior knowledge on:
 - i. Spread of Islam through North Africa
 - ii. Use of the Arabic language
 - iii. Growth of Islamic learning centres (e.g., Timbuktu)
 - iv. Islamic laws and trust in trade
 - b. Form two circles: an inner circle and an outer circle. Each of you in the inner circle faces a partner in the outer circle.
 - c. Each pair discusses a guiding question (see below) for 2-3 minutes before the outer circle rotates clockwise to form new pairs.
 - d. Use the following rotating prompts for 4-5 rounds.

Round 1: How did Islam affect the trust and cooperation between traders from different regions?

Round 2: What role did the Arabic language play in trade across the Sahara?

Round 3: How did the spread of Islam lead to the growth of trade cities and learning centres?

Round 4: Was Islam more important than geography in facilitating Trans-Saharan Trade? Why or why not?

Round 5: Which had greater impact on trade: the introduction of camels or the spread of Islam?

EFFECTS OF THE TRANS-SAHARAN TRADE

The Trans-Saharan Trade had profound and far-reaching effects on West African Sudanese states and societies. These effects greatly impacted political structures, economic activities and social organisation of the Western Sudanese Empires.

Political Effects

The Trans-Saharan trade had significant political effects on Western Sudan. The trade influenced the rise, consolidation, and administration of powerful West African states. Here are some of the political effects.

1. **State formation and expansion:** The revenue to the state in the form of taxes and the idea to control the trade routes and articles of trade led to the conquest of weaker states and the expansion of the state.
2. **Modern system of governance:** The sharia (Islamic law) and keeping of records all came to be practised in Western Sudan. This was made possible because of the literate Muslim scholars who came into Western Sudan to trade.
3. **Diplomatic relations and international prestige:** Some diplomatic exchanges occurred between West African states and North Africa, the Middle East, and even Europe. Aside from this, rich West African rulers gained international recognition. For example, Mansa Musa's pilgrimage to Mecca (1324 CE) enhanced Mali's global prestige.
4. **Centralisation of political power:** Control of the trade and its routes led to centralisation and bureaucratic administration. For example, rulers like Mansa Musa of Mali built strong centralised governments with appointed governors, tax systems, and standing armies.

Economic Effects

1. **Development of slave labour systems:** The demand for goods led to the expansion of slave labour systems. Enslaved people were both traded and used for agriculture, mining, and household work.
2. **Spread of currency and financial systems:** The trade encouraged the use of currency and standardised weights and measures. Cowries, gold dust, and later minted coins were used as currency, enhancing trade efficiency.
3. **Gold-salt trade and wealth accumulation:** West Africa exported gold, which was in high demand in North Africa and Europe. In return, salt (from the Sahara) and other goods like textiles, horses, and luxury items were imported.
4. **Division of labour:** The Trans-Saharan trade stimulated the development of major cities like Timbuktu, Gao, and Djenné. These cities attracted merchants, scholars, artisans, and traders, leading to the specialisation of labour. This further enhances the development of the craft industry.
5. **Integration into a wider trade network:** West African Sudan became part of a larger Afro-Eurasian trade network, connecting it to the Mediterranean, the Middle East, and even Asia.
6. **Revenue from taxation:** West African Sudanese rulers instituted taxation through which revenue was raised to develop their kingdoms.

Social Effects

1. **Spread of Islam:** Arab and Berber traders introduced Islam to Western Sudan. Over time, local rulers converted (e.g., the kings of Ancient Ghana, Mali, and Songhai), which encouraged the broader population to follow.
2. **Islamic education and culture:** The religion brought new systems of education, including Quranic schools and Islamic law. This led to the emergence of major centres of learning such as Timbuktu, Gao, and Djenné.
3. **Urbanisation and city growth:** Trade routes led to the growth of major urban centres like Timbuktu, Kumbi Saleh, and Gao, which became melting pots of culture, learning, and commerce.
4. **Social stratification:** The trade increased social stratification in West African societies. Three social classes emerged. The upper class consisted of the ruling class, composed of kings, nobles, and royal officials. The middle class was composed of merchants, scholars and religious leaders. While the

lower/bottom class was made up of commoners, which comprised farmers, artisans and slaves.

5. **Cultural exchange and hybrid identities:** Intermarriage and prolonged contact between Berbers/Arabs and local populations led to mixed cultures, especially in border areas. Local customs blended with Islamic practices, creating unique religious and cultural expressions (e.g., Sufi brotherhoods and syncretic rituals).

Activity 3.3 Effects of the Trans-Saharan Trade

1. With a partner:

- a. Brainstorm and list any six major states that took part in or were affected by the Trans-Saharan Trade.
- b. Obtain an old African map from your library and locate these states.

2. Put yourselves into groups (3-5).

- a. Discuss how the Trans-Saharan Trade influenced the political development of the Western Sudanese kingdoms as well as the social life of Africans, including religion, marriage, language, urbanisation, and the social class system.
- b. Note down your discussion points and conclusions.

3. Using prior knowledge on the Trans-Saharan Trade:

- a. Write down at least three effects of the Trans-Saharan Trade you can think of.
- b. Pair and share with a classmate to identify common or new points.
- c. In groups of not more than five, select and group effects that had an economic impact on the people and states of Western Sudan.
- d. Discuss among yourselves how these economic effects influenced the growth and expansion of the states. Share your thoughts with the class and note down your conclusions.

Hint: Think about the following: exploitation of natural resources, development of craft industries, income generation, etc.

DECLINE OF THE TRANS-SAHARAN TRADE

The Trans-Saharan Trade flourished between the 8th and 16th centuries. The trade continued well into the nineteenth century. It was in the latter half of that century that it began to decline. This trade facilitated the exchange of gold, salt, slaves, and other goods in West and North Africa. It also played a key role in the rise of powerful West African kingdoms like Ancient Ghana, Mali, and Songhai. However, from the late 16th century onward, this once-thriving trade route began to decline. The decline of the Trans-Saharan Trade marked a turning point in African economic history, as attention shifted toward coastal trade and European interactions.

The decline of the Trans-Saharan trade was influenced by both internal and external factors. The internal factors are those that originated from within the region or were directly related to the functioning of the trade networks themselves. While the external factors are the factors that originated from outside the region and played a significant role in reducing the importance of this trade route. The following are the factors that influence the decline of the trade.

Internal Factors

1. **Decline of Western Sudanese Empires:** Major empires that supported and protected trade routes, such as Ancient Ghana, Mali, and Songhai, weakened or collapsed. Their decline led to insecurity, fragmentation, and a lack of central authority to maintain trade safety. This was a result of the invasion of Morocco in 1591 against Songhai, leading to its collapse. Without strong governance, lawlessness increased, making the desert routes more dangerous.
2. **Environmental challenges:** Desertification and prolonged periods of drought made parts of the Sahara even harder to cross. Water sources, like oases, diminished, making long-distance travel more difficult and riskier.
3. **Shift in trade dynamics within Africa:** West African regions began to focus more on local and regional trade networks, especially around the forest and the savannah zones. The rise of alternative trade centres (e.g., in the forest region) reduced dependence on Trans-Saharan trade.
4. **Internal conflicts and civil wars:** Frequent conflicts among local rulers, such as the wars following the fall of Songhai, disrupted trade. Rivalries among cities like Timbuktu, Gao, and Djenné interfered with the cooperation necessary for long-distance trade continuity.

5. **Declining value of some trade goods:** Some goods traded across the Sahara (like salt) began to lose value or were sourced more easily elsewhere. Local production of salt from alternative sources made trans-Saharan supplies less necessary.

External Factors

1. **European maritime exploration and trade (15th century onward):** Portuguese exploration of the West African coast in the 15th century opened new sea routes to West Africa. European traders began exchanging goods directly with West African kingdoms, bypassing the need for long trans-Saharan routes.
2. **Atlantic slave trade:** The rise of the Atlantic slave trade shifted the focus of African trade from trans-Saharan routes to the Atlantic coast. European demand for slaves, gold, and other goods redirected commerce to ports like Elmina and Lagos, reducing reliance on Saharan crossings.
3. **Colonialism (19th–20th century):** European colonisation of Africa disrupted traditional trade routes and imposed new economic systems focused on colonial interests. Colonisers taxed and regulated local trade, often undermining long-standing trans-Saharan networks.
4. **Role of European goods:** European manufactured goods replaced traditional African goods in terms of desirability and trade volume. For instance, items like gold, salt, and ivory, which were once central to the trans-Saharan trade, lost their value as global economies changed.
5. **External invasion:** External-backed conflicts and invasions in North Africa and the Sahel, such as Ottoman incursions or later colonial wars, disrupted stable trade networks. Instability made long-distance trade riskier and less profitable.

Effects of the Decline of the Trans-Saharan Trade

The Trans-Saharan trade network was crucial to the prosperity of West African empires such as Ancient Ghana, Mali, and Songhai. When it diminished, the region experienced major changes. The following were some of the effects.

1. **Loss of revenue and wealth:** The decline led to a sharp decrease in the wealth of Western Sudanese states, which had relied heavily on taxing and controlling trade routes.

2. **Collapse of urban centres:** Major trade cities like Timbuktu, Gao, and Djenné began to decline as commerce shifted away from the desert routes to coastal areas.
3. **Loss of livelihood:** The Tuareg were key intermediaries and received payments in the Trans-Saharan Trade, particularly in the transport of goods like gold, salt, slaves, and textiles across the desert. As the trade declined and sea trade routes rose, they lost their primary income.
4. **Shift in trade focus:** Attention moved to Atlantic trade (with European powers) along the West African coast, especially involving slaves, gold, and, later, palm oil.
5. **Decline of great empires:** Empires like Songhai weakened and eventually fell (e.g., Moroccan invasion in 1591), as they could no longer sustain military and administrative structures without trade wealth.
6. **Rise of forest and coastal states:** Forest kingdoms like Ashanti, Dahomey, and others began to rise in importance due to their involvement in the trans-Atlantic slave trade. A section of the population migrated toward the coast, where new economic opportunities existed.
7. **Decline of Islamic scholarship:** With less trade and patronage, centres of learning like Timbuktu, suffered. Libraries were neglected, and scholars lost support. Also, the spread of Islam slowed while Christianity was introduced.

Activity 3.4 Decline of the Trans-Saharan Trade

1. Join together with some of your peers and discuss the challenges faced by caravan traders in the Trans-Saharan trade.
2. In small groups, using the internet or textbooks/learner materials or any other approved material,
 - a. Search and list three internal and three external factors that contributed to the decline of the Trans-Saharan Trade.
 - b. Create a poster with two main sections: **Internal Factors** and **External Factors**.
 - c. Hold a discussion answering: *“If European influence had not occurred, how might the trade have developed differently?”*
3. Join together with some of your peers and discuss the challenges faced by caravan traders in the Trans-Saharan trade

4. Form two circles in your class (an inner and an outer circle) and discuss the question:
 - a. “What were the effects of the decline of the Trans-Saharan Trade on West Africans?”
 - b. Review your prior knowledge or textbooks/notes individually.
 - c. List at least three effects of the trade’s decline.
 - d. Those in the inner circle start the discussion, while those in the outer circle observe and listen attentively and take notes or ask questions.
 - e. Rotate to replace your peers in the inner circle to continue the discussion and elaborate more on the effects.
 - f. Reflect on the question: “*Which effect do you think was most significant? Why?*” Note down your conclusions.

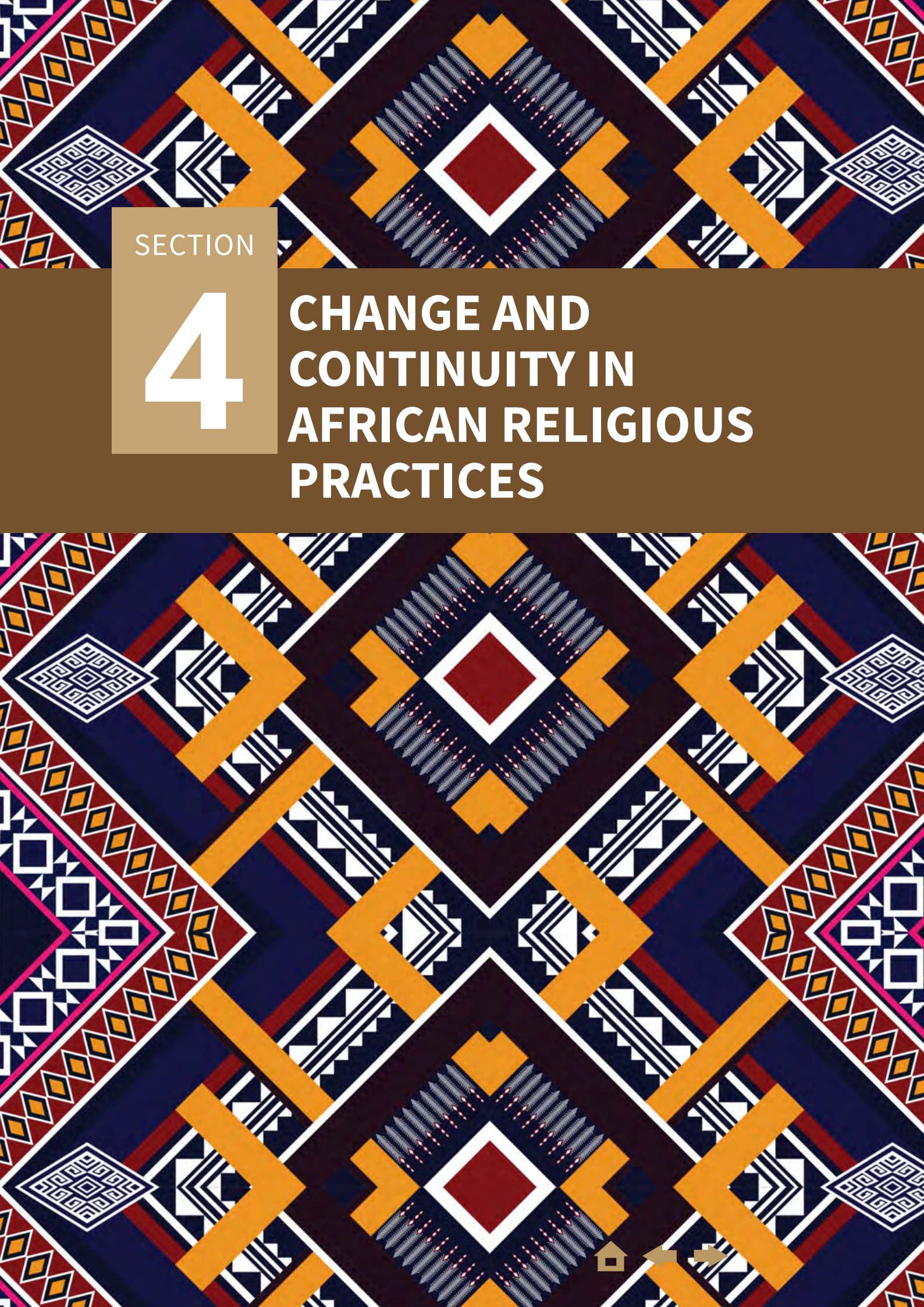
EXTENDED READING

Follow the link <https://study.com/academy/lesson/video/trans-saharan-trade-west-african-sudanic-states.html> to learn more about the conduct, routes and effects of the Trans-Saharan Trade.



REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Discuss how the Trans-Saharan Trade was conducted.
2. Examine the socio-economic effects of the Trans-Saharan Trade on pre-colonial African Societies.
3. Assess the impact of the Trans-Saharan Trade on the political development of the Western Sudanese Empires.
4. Investigate reasons that accounted for the decline of the Trans-Saharan Trade by the 16th century.



SECTION

4

**CHANGE AND
CONTINUITY IN
AFRICAN RELIGIOUS
PRACTICES**



RELIGION AND RELIGIOUS CHANGE

INTRODUCTION

In this section, we will explore how religious practices evolved throughout African history.

By the end of the section, we will understand key aspects of indigenous African religious systems. We will review concepts from Year 1, including indigenous beliefs and women's religious roles. We will analyse how traditional religion supported cultural systems and community life. We will identify elements that have persisted and those that have changed over time.

We will also investigate how Islam and Christianity were introduced to different regions of Africa. We will then evaluate their influence on African societies, cultures, and political systems.

This knowledge will help us appreciate the dynamic nature of religious practice in Africa. It will demonstrate how spiritual traditions respond to changing circumstances while maintaining cultural connections. This understanding will contribute to our recognition of religion as a powerful force in historical development.

KEY IDEAS

- **Continuity and change** refer to the aspects of life that remained the same and those that evolved or developed in the course of time.
- **Life after death** refers to the belief that a person's spirit continues to live even after physical death.
- **Supreme Being** is the creator of the universe (*Nyame* in the case of the Akan of Ghana).

INDIGENOUS AFRICAN RELIGIOUS BELIEFS AND PRACTICES

Before the introduction of Christianity and Islam, Africans had their own way of relating to the Supreme Being (God). This was evident in their indigenous beliefs

and practices. God was not introduced to Africans through Christianity or Islam. In fact, in every African language, there is a name given to the Supreme Being (God). Let us take a close look at key African religious beliefs and practices.

Key African religious beliefs and practices

The following are some of the indigenous African beliefs and practices.

1. The belief in life after death. Africans believe in the concept of life after death, where the spirit continues to exist after physical death. The belief in life after death influences various aspects of African life, including funeral rites, ancestral veneration and the way people live their lives.
2. **Belief in the existence of the Supreme Being:** Many African societies believe in the existence of the Supreme Being or a high god who created the universe and governs its workings. This Supreme Being is often considered distant from human affairs but is revered and worshipped through various media.
3. **Belief in Deities:** In addition to the Supreme Being, many African societies believe in various deities or gods and goddesses who are associated with specific aspects of life, such as fertility, war, prosperity, and so on. These deities are often believed to have powers that can influence human affairs, and people may offer sacrifices or prayers to appease them.
4. **Worship of nature:** Africans have a deep respect for nature and often worship natural creation such as rivers, trees, animals, mountains and forests. This form of worship is based on the belief that nature has spiritual powers that can be harnessed for good and evil. The worship of nature is often tied to the idea of sacredness and the interconnectedness of all living things.
5. **Belief in ancestors:** The belief in ancestors is a fundamental aspect of African spirituality. Ancestors are believed to continue playing an active role in the lives of their descendants, offering guidance, protection, and blessings. People often offer sacrifices and prayers to their ancestors to seek their favour as well as to avoid their wrath. *Figure 4.1* below demonstrates the pouring of libation by Ghanaians.



Figure 4.1: Pouring libation during the state funeral of W.E.B. Du Bois in Ghana (August 1963).

Source: <https://credo.library.umass.edu/view/full/mums312-i0784>



6. **Belief in witchcraft:** The belief in witchcraft is widespread in many African societies. Witchcraft is often associated with evil powers that can be used to harm others. Africans believed that certain individuals possessed witchcraft powers, and this could lead to accusations, fear, and social tension.

The Role of Women in Indigenous African Religious Practices

In Year 1, we learned that women played important and diverse roles in Ghana's indigenous religious practices. Four key roles were highlighted: **priestesses** who served as direct channels to deities and spirits; **diviners** who interpreted spiritual signs and omens; **guardians of ancestral traditions** who preserved sacred knowledge; and **caretakers of sacred spaces** who maintained ritual sites.

We discovered that women's spiritual authority often complemented their social roles, providing avenues for influence and leadership within traditional Ghanaian communities. We saw how female ritual specialists underwent specific training and initiation processes to fulfil their sacred responsibilities.

We also explored how women's religious roles reflected their connection to fertility, life-giving, and nurturing aspects of society, while also recognising that female spiritual authority extended beyond these domains into broader community leadership.

Building on this foundation, this area of the section examines women's religious roles across diverse African cultures.

The following are some of the roles played by women in indigenous African religious practices.

- a. Women served as priestesses to the traditional shrines of the gods.
- b. They performed specific annual or seasonal rituals, such as fertility rituals and others.
- c. They served as mediums through which the gods communicated to the people.
- d. They acted as soothsayers.
- e. They served as traditional spiritual healers.
- f. They served as keepers of sacred rituals.

How African Traditional Religion (ATR) Sustained Culture and Livelihood

African Traditional Religion has played a major role in various aspects of our society to sustain African culture and ways of life. The following are some of how it contributed to sustaining our culture.

Education

- a. Oral traditions (folktales, proverbs, role of griots) in African Traditional Religion ensured the preservation of cultural values, history, and moral codes, which were passed from generation to generation. Many African proverbs and stories still teach shared ethics and social norms today.
- b. Moral instruction was embedded in stories about community service, honesty, respect, and bravery.

Arts and Expression

- a. Sacred music and dance interwove spiritual meaning with everyday life. It was used in initiation, harvest, funerals, and healing rituals, strengthening cultural memory.
- b. Symbolic art forms (masks, sculptures, *Adinkra symbols*) expressed moral values and connected the material world with spiritual realms. Among the Akan of Ghana, the Epa masks symbolise royal, agricultural, and spiritual roles; the *Adinkra Sankofa* ("return and fetch"), which emphasises learning from the past as a moral imperative.

Governance

- a. **Leadership legitimacy:** Kings and chiefs assumed moral oaths to ancestors and divinities before occupying the office, which ensured leadership legitimacy.
- b. **Justice systems:** Local justice was administered through restorative, ancestor-sanctioned procedures, reconciliation ceremonies, and oath-taking at shrines. In the Asante Empire, the Okomfo Anokye codified laws that tied moral behaviour (loyalty, truth, harmony) to divine sanction. Disputes without witnesses were settled by divination or ritual oath-taking.

Agriculture

- a. **Seasonal rituals:** Crop rituals aligned planting and harvest seasons with spiritual cycles—offering libations and prayers to gods/ancestors for rain and fertility. Among the Ga of Ghana, the *Gome* dance during the *Homowo* festival marks the end of drought and the restoration of harvest.
- b. **Agricultural knowledge:** Indigenous farming knowledge (e.g., soil, rainfall, crop rotation) was taught during ceremonies and seasonal festivals.

Health and Healing

- a. Traditional medicine (herbalism, divination, ritual cleansing) provided primary care in many communities, addressing illness as a spiritual imbalance. WHO (World Health Organisation) data from May 2003 shows 70–80% of Ghanaians use herbal medicine as first-line care; traditional healers were vital even in mental health support, and efforts are ongoing to integrate them into national health programs.
- b. Holistic wellbeing embraced social, emotional, physical and spiritual harmony. Healing was often treated in entire families or clans.

Social Cohesion

- a. Community ceremonies (funerals, festivals, sacrifices) united people through shared ritual participation and ancestor/veneration. The *Kundum* harvest festival among the Ahanta involves communal singing, dancing, and libation to ward off malevolent spirits, promote unity, and express gratitude.
- b. Shared values and ethics were reinforced daily via taboos, libation, naming rights, and moral proverbs—promoting trust and reciprocity.

Activity 4.1 Traditional religious belief systems

1. Get a chart roll or poster paper and markers.
 - a. Label the centre of the chart “African Religious Beliefs”.
 - b. Around it (the centre), draw branches for: *Life after Death, Supreme God, Deities/Spirits, Ancestors, Nature/idols*, etc.
 - c. Beneath each branch, write 1–2 lines describing examples from earlier civilisations;
 - i. *Ancient Egypt*: Anubis weighing the heart in the afterlife; *AmonRe* as sungod; Book of the Dead spells.
 - ii. *Ghana Empire/Akan*: beliefs in *Nyame* (supreme creator), *abosom* connected to rivers/trees, ancestor veneration through stools and libation.
 - iii. *Asante*: Okomfo priests, *abosom*, spirit possession during *Adae/Odwira* festivals.
2. Decorate with illustrations (e.g., *Adinkra* “*Gye Nyame*”, stylised Anubis, river shrines).
3. Display your posters around the classroom for a gallery walk; move around, add one positive comment or question on sticky notes to at least two other groups’ posters.

Activity 4.2 Role of Women in African Traditional Religion

1. Create **four** stations in the classroom. Each station should get a flip card or an A4 paper and label it accordingly as below:
 - a. **Station 1:** Priestesses and Oracles: women as ritual leaders among Yoruba, Akan, Ewe, Shona, etc.
 - b. **Station 2:** Healers and Birth Attendants: traditional birth attendants (TBAs), herbalists, including modern Nigerian examples where women healers work with clinics.
 - c. **Station 3:** Spirit Mediums and Possession: women as central mediums in Vodun, Igbo, and Serer spiritual ritual.
 - d. **Station 4:** Symbolic Roles and Cultural Transmission: women viewed as lifegivers, linked to fertility goddesses (*Asase Yaa, Oshun*), storytellers, initiators.

2. Rotate in groups and at each station:
 - a. Read the brief information on the flip-card or mini handout.
 - b. Answer two guiding questions: e.g.
 - i. What spiritual role(s) did women fulfil here?
 - ii. How did this affect their status in society?
3. At the end, return to “home base charts” to role-play the roles of females in indigenous African religious practices to the class.

Activity 4.3 Continuity and change in African Traditional Religion

1. Choose one theme from the following:
 - a. **Festivals, sacred music & dance** (e.g., Odwira, Homowo, masquerade)
 - b. **Justice, morality & leadership** (chiefly oaths, ancestral arbitration)
 - c. **Health & healing rituals** (herbal clinics, diviners, traditional birth attendants)
 - d. **Environmental respect** (sacred groves, earth taboos)
2. Use a paper/mini whiteboard divided into two halves and label it like the following:

Then	vs	Now
a. On your left-hand side, draw and caption an ATR scene illustrating how that theme helped sustain culture and livelihood. Include social values taught (e.g., communal respect, accountability to ancestors). b. On the right side, depict how that practice has persisted (e.g. Homowo still performed in Accra; chiefs still pour libations; TBAs still active) or changed (e.g. festivals blended with Christian elements, herbal clinics licensed by the state). c. Write one sentence each on: i. One value ATR supported; ii. One way it continues or is transformed. d. Class votes whether the change is: i. <i>Beneficial?</i> ii. <i>Unbeneficial?</i> or iii. <i>Mixed?</i> iv. Note down your conclusions.		

INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY AND ISLAM IN AFRICA

Africa was introduced to Christianity as early as the first century CE and Islam as far back as the seventh century. Below are some historical facts about the introduction of Christianity and Islam in Africa and, by extension, Ghana.

Early Spread of Christianity

Introduction of Christianity in Egypt (Alexandria)

1. Christianity arrived in Egypt around the 1st century CE.
2. It came to Alexandria through the Mediterranean trade routes: Traders and Jewish communities in Alexandria met early Christians around the 1st/2nd century CE.
3. Alexandria became an early core centre of Christian theology, with scholars like Origen and Clement. Clement and Origen helped the early converts in Egypt to understand the Bible in Greek.
4. By the beginning of the second century CE, the Christian faith had fully been established in Alexandria.

Factors that Contributed to the Acceptance of Christianity in Egypt

The following factors attracted Egyptians to accepting Christianity as a monotheistic faith, contrary to their prior polytheistic lifestyle.

- a. A Greek-speaking population open to new ideas, which motivated Egyptians to accept Christianity.
- b. Existing Jewish customs provided the foundation for monotheism (the worship of one God).
- c. The development of a distinctive Coptic tradition. A new Coptic language and art developed (like hieroglyphic-influenced church designs).
- d. A strong intellectual tradition through the Alexandrian school. The Alexandrian school taught deep Bible study.

Introduction of Christianity in Ethiopia (Axum)

1. Missionaries from Syria, led by Frumentius, brought Christianity to Axum around 330–350 CE.
2. King Ezana of Axum was converted and quickly made Christianity the official religion in the state. He was the first African king to make Christianity a state religion. This led to the development of the unique Ethiopian Orthodox Church, which still exists today.

Reasons for Acceptance of the New Faith by the Axumites

The following factors helped Christianity to flourish in Axum from the 330s CE.

- a. The king (King Ezana) accepted and made it the official faith of the state.
- b. The new religion was blended with Ethiopia's ancient traditions.
- c. Ethiopia's location in the highlands made it independent.
- d. It produced its own religious books in the Ge'ez language and rock-hewn churches, such as those in Lalibela, as shown in **Figure 4.2** below.



Figure 4.2: The Lalibela-Rock-hewn church in Ethiopia.

Source: <https://whc.unesco.org/en/documents/188927>



Introduction of Christianity in Tunis and Carthage (North Africa)

1. These states were introduced into Christianity under Roman rule.
2. Thinkers like Tertullian and Augustine shaped Christian beliefs in North Africa.

3. These communities wrote in Latin and shared ideas that shaped churches far beyond Africa.

Early Spread of Islam in Africa

1. The spread of Islam in Egypt

- a. In the 640s CE, Arab armies conquered Egypt and introduced Islam.
- b. Islamic laws and Islamic education, including Al-Azhar University, grew in Egyptian cities.
- c. Egypt became one of North Africa's centres of Islamic education and culture.

2. The introduction of Islam in North Africa:

- a. Arab Muslims conquered much of North Africa starting around 640 CE.
- b. They spread Islam in cities like Carthage, Tunis, and on the Sahara's edge.
- c. They integrated with Berber communities, who were indigenous in northern Africa.

Factors that Facilitated the Acceptance of Islam in North Africa

Islam grew rapidly in North Africa due to the following factors.

- a. The military superiority of Arab forces over the indigenous people. They conquered and imposed Islam on them.
- b. The economic benefits of joining the Islamic community. They could use Arabic money and credit in their business.
- c. Trade networks and urban development encouraged people to adopt Islam and Arab culture as a lifestyle.
- d. The administrative efficiency of Islamic governance. They could benefit from better administration under Islamic laws.

The spread of Islam in West Africa (Gao, Timbuktu, Kano)

1. Islam arrived through the Trans-Saharan Trade.
2. From the 800s to 1400s CE, Muslim merchants and scholars carried Islam across the Sahara Desert.
3. It penetrated West Africa through peaceful conversion during the peak of the trade (11th-14th centuries).
4. Cities like Timbuktu became the centre of Islamic and Arabic education.

5. The trade made Islam easily accepted by the Western Sudanese kings and their people, especially when converted rulers encouraged Arabic education.
6. It spread among elites and merchants before becoming widespread.

Key Elements of Acceptance of Islam in West Africa

The major elements that helped in the spread of Islam in West Africa included;

- a. Local kings viewed Islamic literacy and administration as helpful in trading with the “Arab North African Merchants”.
- b. Some kings became Muslim, and their people followed.
- c. Islamic teaching blended with festivals and prayers, which were similar to African Traditional Religion.
- d. In kingdoms like Mali and Ghana, some rulers still held traditional customs alongside Islam.

The Spread of Islam In East Africa (Zanzibar, Swahili Coast)

Islam Spread in East Africa through the Indian Ocean trade. By the 1100s CE, Muslim trade ships from Arabia and Persia reached islands like Zanzibar, bringing Islam to the coast. Islamic culture mixed with local customs to form Swahili traditions. Trade helped Islam mix with local African cultures and languages.



Figure 4.3: The Great Mosque of Kairouan in Tunisia (670 AD).

Source: <https://www.islamiclsndmsrks.com/wp-content/uploads/2023>



Influence of Christianity and Islam on Africa

The introduction of Christianity and Islam in Africa has brought a lot of changes in the lives of Africans. The table below simplifies the influence Christianity and Islam have had on our lives as Africans.

Table 4.1: The influence of Christianity and Islam on Africa

Area of influence	Christianity's influence	Islam's influence
Architecture/ Cultural Arts	The most famous example of the rock-hewn church of Lalibela in Ethiopia. Churches in Ghana built steeples and stained glass.	Mosques in Africa have domes, minarets, and Arabic calligraphy.
Dress	Churches adopted Western-style robes, gowns, and head covers.	Muslim wore kaftan, a jalabiya, and a hijab.
Education	Introduced the Western form of education. Built church schools like Wesleyan, Basel Schools in Ghana.	Brought Arabic education. Opened Islamic schools (madrasas) teaching Arabic and maths.
Politics and Law	Christian ideas and doctrines are incorporated in democratic constitutions.	Islamic law (Sharia) is adopted in Islamic countries in Africa.
Language	The Bible has been translated into Ga, Fante, Twi, and others.	Arabic became an official and commercial language in northern Africa.
Religious Institutions	Churches in towns opened community centres and youth groups.	Muslim chiefs built mosque compounds and Friday gathering halls.

Activity 4.4 Locating early Christian and Islamic states in Africa

1. Get a blank piece of paper and draw a map of Africa.
2. On the map, mark key areas that experienced the early spread of Christianity (for example, Egypt, Ethiopia) and Islam (for example, North Africa (Tunis, Carthage) and West Africa (Mali, Ghana, Songhai)).

3. For each location, formulate historical questions using the 5Ws (What, Why, Where, When and Which) 1H (How) style of questions in history.

- a. For example: “Why do you think King Ezana made Christianity the official religion of Axum?”
- b. Work in pairs to answer the questions.

Activity 4.5 Seminar or watching a documentary on the spread of Christianity/Islam

1. Your teacher will invite a resource person to narrate to you how Christianity and Islam were introduced in Africa.

OR

2. Follow the links to watch documentaries on how the two religions entered Africa. For Islam, view https://youtu.be/9vQ1Rs42V_k?si=Rhsn0znjUdbzrtJ, and



for Christianity, view <https://youtu.be/32cQSyxphTw?si=EwTv1-WegqPSgYeE>



3. Write down your observations from the narration of the resource person or the documentary.
4. Discuss with your pair what you learned from the presentation.
5. Create a mind map or summary of your discussion.

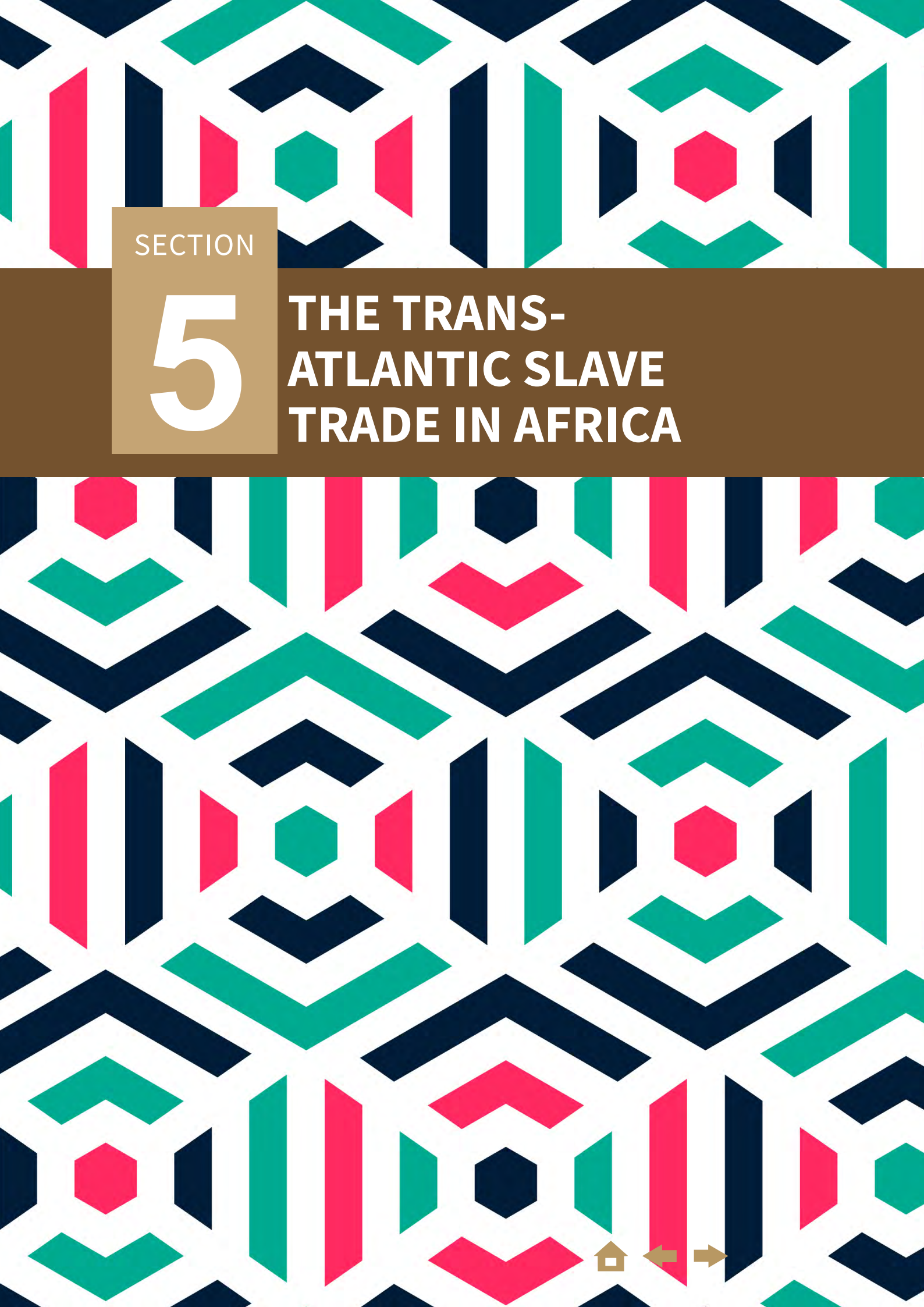
Activity 4.6 Researching the impact of Christianity and Islam

1. Form groups of 3-5 members.
2. Using the internet, search for the following: *The influence of Christianity on Africa*.
 - a. The influence of Islam on Africa.
 - b. You may choose at least three areas from the following areas and research:

- i. The influence on Education
 - ii. The influence on Architecture
 - iii. The influence on Governance and Law
 - iv. The influence on Language
 - v. The influence on Dress
 - vi. The influence on Festivals
3. Discuss how these areas have been transformed due to the introduction of Christianity and Islam.
4. Present your findings to the class.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What were the unique features of African religious practices?
2. What role did women play in indigenous African religious practices?
3. In what ways did African Traditional Religion help to sustain culture and livelihood?
4. What aspects of the indigenous African religious beliefs have changed or continued over time?
5. Explain how King Ezana's conversion influenced the spread of Christianity in the Ethiopian region.
6. Explain two ways Islam influenced trade and learning in West Africa by 1400 CE.
7. Why is the Larabanga Mosque significant in Ghanaian history?



SECTION

5

THE TRANS-ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE IN AFRICA



GLOBAL CONNECTIONS

INTRODUCTION

This section examines one of the most devastating periods in African history: The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade. Building on Year 2 knowledge of the slave trade in Ghana, we will explore the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade across the entire African continent.

By the end of this section, we will understand the differences between traditional African slavery and the Atlantic slave trade. We will analyse the nature of slave capture, castle imprisonment, and the Middle Passage. We will evaluate the widespread effects of the trade on African societies.

KEY IDEAS

- **Slave trade** refers to the buying, selling, and transporting of human beings.
- **The Haitian Revolution** was a successful slave uprising and anti-colonial revolution that took place in the French colony of Saint-Domingue (now Haiti) between 1791 and 1804.
- **The Industrial Revolution** was a period (starting in the late 18th century) when major changes in technology and industry transformed economies from manual labour to machine-based production, especially in Britain.
- **The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade** was a slave trade which primarily enslaved African people across the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas.
- **Triangular Trade** refers to a historical system of the trans-Atlantic trade during the 16th to 19th centuries, primarily involving three regions: Europe, Africa and the Americas (including the Caribbean). It was called “triangular” because the trade routes formed a triangle between these three regions.

THE NATURE AND IMPACT OF THE TRANS-ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE

The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was large-scale human trafficking, which primarily involved the forced movement of African people across the Atlantic Ocean to the Americas. Historians called it the Triangular Trade because the organisation of the trade took a loosely triangular shape. Thus, the slaves were taken from Africa to the Americas, used as labour for the production of raw materials such as tobacco, cotton and sugar cane. These raw materials were, in turn, taken to Europe to feed European industries. After the raw materials were refined in Europe into finished goods, they were then shipped back to Africa to be exchanged for slaves to be taken to the Americas once more. The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was different from the indigenous African slavery in various ways.

Comparing Indigenous African slavery and the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade

Areas compared	Indigenous African slaves	Trans-Atlantic slave trade
How people became slaves	• Prisoners of war. • People who could not offset debts. • Punishment for serious crimes.	• Captives of war. • Kidnapping. • Raids from villages.
Treatment of slaves	• Slaves were integrated into the families. • Slaves could own property. • They were protected by traditional laws.	• Slaves had no rights at all. • They were treated as items/articles of trade. • They suffered terrible conditions.
Chances of freedom	• Slaves could buy their freedom. • They could be freed by their masters. • Some gain their freedom over time.	• They could never become free. • One becomes a slave for life. • There was no legal path to freedom for the slaves.

Areas compared	Indigenous African slaves	Trans-Atlantic slave trade
Family and Children	• Slaves and their owners usually stayed together. • They could marry and have children. • Children could become freed.	• Slaves were separated from their masters. • Children born of slaves become slaves. • No family right.
The main purpose of slavery	• Slaves were used as settlement of debt. • They provide labour for their masters. • Slavery served as punishment for wrongdoing.	• Provide labour for plantations. • Make a profit for slave traders. • Build wealth for slave owners.
Scale and extent	1. Indigenous slavery involved small numbers within communities. • Was local and limited.	• Millions of people were bought and sold as slaves. • Lasted over 400 years. • International in scope.
Impact on society	• Society remained stable. • Traditional system continued. • Limited disruption. • Fewer deaths recorded through raids.	• Massive population loss. • Destroyed African economies. • Created insecurity. • Countless others died in raids.

The Emergence of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade in Africa

The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade began in 1442. This happened when Portuguese traders first took African captives from the Senegal River to Portugal. After Christopher Columbus reached the Americas in 1492, the direction of the trade changed to become trans-Atlantic. The Spanish colonisation of the Americas in 1492 created a massive demand for labour, especially on sugar, tobacco, and later

cotton plantations. The demand for labour in the New World plantations drove the expansion of the trade.

Phases of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade

The trade developed in several phases. The timelines are shown below.

1. **1442-1492:** The trade took place mainly from Senegambia to Portugal and Spain.
2. **1492-1575:** Beginning of the trade to the New World, with a focus on gold initially.
3. **1595-1640:** Establishment of Portuguese fort Luanda, Angola.
4. **1640-1675:** Competition between European powers for control of the trade.
5. **1675-1700:** Expansion to new areas, including the Gold Coast.
6. **1700-1807:** Peak period with the largest number of enslaved Africans transported.
7. **1807-1865:** Era of the abolition, though illegal trade continued.

The Concept of Triangular Trade

The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was also called the “Triangular Trade”. Triangular because it involved a three-part journey between Europe, Africa, and the Americas, forming a triangle. See *Figure 5.1* below as an illustration of the triangular trade network.



Figure 5.1: Triangular trade.

Source: [Triangular trade - Wikipedia](#)

However, this does not mean that the same ship sailed from Europe to Africa, then to the Americas, and back to Europe in one journey. Instead, different ships were involved in different parts of the trade, but together they created this triangular pattern of commerce.

How the concept worked

Stage 1: European ships loaded with manufactured goods (guns, cloth, alcohol) sailed to West Africa

Stage 2: These goods were traded for enslaved Africans, who were then transported to the Americas in what was called the “Middle Passage”. Millions of Africans were shipped across the Atlantic in terrible conditions. Many died from disease, malnutrition, or abuse during the journey.

Stage 3: Survivors were sold at slave markets in the Caribbean, North America, and South America. In the Americas, the enslaved people were sold, and ships were loaded with raw plantation products (sugar, tobacco, cotton) to return to Europe for industrial processing.

Capture, Treatment, and Transportation of Slaves

The capture and transportation of enslaved Africans during the transatlantic slave trade was a brutal and inhumane process. Figure 5.2 explains how the slaves were captured, treated and transported across the Atlantic Ocean (middle passage).

How Slaves were Captured	Treatment at Capture, in Castles and Forts	The Middle Passage
• Warfare between african communities • Kidnapping of individuals and families • Raids on villages and towns • Purchase from the local markets • Judicial punishment for crimes • Tributes payments from conquered states	• captives were made to walk long distance in chains • Enslaved people were held in overcrowded dungeons • Men, women, and children were separated • Poor sanitation and limited food • Many died from disease and harsh conditions. • Branded with hot irons to show ownership	• Enslave people were chained together in the ship • Dehumanising of slaves • Little space to move, sit or lie down properly • Poor sanitation and ventilation led to diseases • Many died during the voyage. approximately 1.8 million Africans died during transportation.

Figure 5.2: Capture and transportation of slaves

Effects of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade

The Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade had devastating effects on the Africans, especially the vulnerable groups who were mostly left behind. The following are the effects of the trade on Africa and the vulnerable in these African societies:

1. **Demographic impact:** Loss of millions of people, especially young adults. An estimated population of 12 million Africans were sold and transported through the Atlantic Ocean as slaves. Most of these slaves were young adults.
2. **Economic disruption:** Traditional economies were destroyed. The slave trade increased interstate wars, raiding and kidnapping, leading to general insecurity on the continent.
3. **Political instability:** Constant warfare between communities. The major sources of slaves were inter-state conflicts, kidnapping and raids on communities. This brought a lot of destruction to communities and states as gun-wielding individuals attacked those who did not have enough guns.
4. **Social breakdown:** Families and communities were torn apart. The random capture of slaves separated them from their families, leading to the breakdown of family ties.
5. **Cultural loss:** Traditional knowledge and skills were lost. Most of the young people were skilled labour from Africa. Their capture and transport to the New World led to a loss in agricultural, weaving, blacksmith and other skills.

Effects on Vulnerable Groups

- a. **Women:** women were forced into roles they were not traditionally expected to perform due to the capture of the young, skilled persons.
- b. **Children:** Children lost their parents and protection; many became orphans.
- c. **Elderly:** Lost care from younger generations. The young men and women who were supposed to take care of the elderly were taken into slavery, leaving them on their own.

Activity 5.1 Comparing indigenous slavery to the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade

1. Using your knowledge gained in Year 2 about the trans-Atlantic trade in Ghana, talk with a classmate about the following.
 - a. How the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was conducted. Consider the following questions:

- i. Which group of people were involved in the trade?
 - ii. Which continent/region were the slaves from?
 - iii. How were they acquired?
 - iv. How were they treated?
 - v. Which continents/regions were they taken to?
 - vi. What items did Africans get from Europeans for selling slaves to them?
- b. Some similarities between indigenous slavery and the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade.
 - c. Differences between indigenous slavery and the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade.
 - d. Comparing the two, indigenous slavery and the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade, which one had overall fewer negative impacts?

Activity 5.2 Understanding the conduct of the trade

With the help of your teacher, visit one of the castles/forts (Elmina, Cape Coast and others) in Ghana, which served as holding centres for slaves before their transportation to the Americas. Or follow the link <https://youtu.be/1xZErIv1fg?si=hUgYamqTkAginvq4> to watch a documentary on the slave trade and jot down some points. Let the following questions guide you:



1. How were the slaves brought to the castles/forts?
2. How were they treated in the castle?
3. How were they transported from the castles/forts to the Americas?
4. What were their experiences during their journey to the Americas?
5. Think deeply about the general experience of the slaves.
6. Share with your friends the lesson you learned from the field trip or the documentary.

Activity 5.3 Understanding the volume of the trade

1. Form groups and take a small piece of paper.
 - a. Write one of the following questions on it.
 - i. How many Africans were taken to the Americas as slaves in the 16th Century?
 - ii. How many Africans were taken to the Americas as slaves in the 17th Century?
 - iii. How many Africans were taken to the Americas as slaves in the 18th Century?
 - b. Write answers to the question using the internet to look for the answer.
 - c. Fold and throw them in the centre of the classroom.
 - d. Each of you should randomly pick one and unfold it.
 - e. Turn and tell a friend about your thoughts on the answer given to the question.
 - f. Why do you think the number of slaves transported to the Americas increased hugely in the 18th century?
2. Using the internet or textbooks, search for the effects of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade on:
 - a. Women
 - b. Children
 - c. Elderly (aged)
 - d. Write down your findings
 - e. Form groups (3-5 members) and discuss your findings
 - f. Prepare a short presentation to show to the class.

RESISTANCE AGAINST THE TRANS-ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE

For over 400 years, millions of Africans were taken from their homelands and transported across the Atlantic Ocean to work in plantations and mines in the Americas. However, it is important to understand that Africans did not accept this situation without fighting back. Enslaved people and African societies did not passively accept slavery; resistance was constant, courageous, and complex.

It occurred at every stage. Thus, before capture, during the Middle Passage, and in the Americas. These acts of resistance helped to weaken the trade and inspired abolitionist movements across the world.

Forms of Resistance against the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade

Resistance to the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade took many forms, both by the enslaved Africans and by others who opposed the trade.

Resistance in Africa

1. **Refusal to Participate:** Some African leaders and communities refused to participate in the trade. For example, King Alfonso I of Kongo protested Portuguese slave raids in his kingdom in the early 1500s. Some Islamic leaders condemned the trade of fellow Muslims.
2. **Armed Resistance:** Many communities organised militias or relied on traditional warrior groups to defend themselves against slave raids. In some instances, entire villages/settlements fortified themselves with walls to avoid capture.
3. **Resistance during Capture and Transport:** Individuals and groups resisted violently when kidnapped or sold. Some managed to escape before being transported to the coast.
4. **Suicide and Self-Mutilation:** Many enslaved people chose death over enslavement, jumping overboard or starving themselves as acts of resistance. Others resorted to self-mutilation (e.g., cutting off fingers or harming themselves) to make themselves unfit for sale.
5. **Flight and Relocation:** Individuals and groups fled areas targeted by slave traders, often relocating to more remote or less accessible locations. Some ethnic groups moved into mountains, forests, or swamps to escape vulnerability. For example, in West Africa, some communities moved inland or up into hills to avoid slave-raiding zones along the coast.

Resistance in the Americas

1. **Everyday Acts of Defiance:** slaves on the plantations engaged in work slowdowns, feigned illness, tool-breaking, damaging crops and sabotaging the production process. They also maintained African culture, languages, religion, and names as a form of resistance.

2. **Escapes and Maroon Societies:** Enslaved Africans escaped and formed independent communities, often in remote areas. For example, Palmares in Brazil, Maroon communities in Jamaica and Suriname
3. **Organised Rebellions:** Brutal treatment and the desire for freedom led to high tensions and large-scale uprisings. Examples are the Stono Rebellion (South Carolina, 1739) and the Haitian Revolution (1791–1804), leading to the first Black republic.
4. **Abolition Movements and Intellectual Resistance:** Enslaved and free Africans were also active in anti-slavery movements. For instance, Olaudah Equiano, Frederick Douglass, and others used writing and public speaking to expose the horrors of slavery.

Activity 5.4 Understanding the resistance put up by Africans

Using the internet or textbooks, search for at least **three methods** adopted by Africans to resist being taken into slavery.

- a. Write down the key points you got from your search.
- b. Form small groups and discuss your findings from the research.
- c. In your group, work together to create a simple chart showing the methods of resistance you discussed.

Activity 5.5 Resistance to the trade

1. Based on your prior knowledge of resistance against the slave trade:
 - a. Put yourselves into three groups and assign roles to each group. For example;

Role 1: One group representing a community (choose one of you to act as King Agaja or any other African king that resisted the trade, some of you serve as his elders, some serve as the army, and others serve as ordinary members of the community).

Role 2: The second group represents another community who serve as slave raiders.

Role 3: The final group representing slave buyers (British). Role plays the resistance to the slave raiders and the sale of enslaved peoples.

2. Follow the link <https://youtu.be/Sn32cWUT83E?si=sQm2qYYhvG3szOSw> to watch a documentary on the Haitian Revolution of 1791.



- a. Take note of the following while watching to write key information
 - i. Who were the key leaders of the revolution?
 - ii. What were the key events?
 - iii. What challenges did they face?
 - iv. What success did they achieve?
- b. Pair with a classmate to create a timeline showing the key events identified from the documentary from 1791 to 1804.
- c. Discuss with your pair how the success of the revolution contributed to ending the slave trade.

THE ABOLITION OF THE TRANS-ATLANTIC SLAVE TRADE

Having learned about African resistance to the slave trade, we will now explore how this trade finally came to an end. The abolition of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was a long process that took many years and involved people from different continents who worked together to end it. The word “abolition” means to officially end or stop something completely.

Timelines for the Abolition

The timelines and events leading to the abolition are outlined below.

1. **1772-** Lord Mansfield declared slavery illegal in England. Lord Mansfield was the Chief Justice of the King’s Bench in England who ruled that slavery was unsupported by English common law. However, this declaration did not abolish slavery but gave the abolitionist movements in England the energy to press harder for the abolition.
2. **1787-** The British founded Sierra Leone as a resettlement colony of freed slaves from the New World. In addition, Thomas Clarkson, Granville Sharp,

and William Wilberforce, who aimed at abolishing the trans-Atlantic slave trade, formed an Anti-Slave Trade Committee in England.

3. **1803-** Denmark abolished the slave trade as the first European nation to do so.
4. **1807-** Britain abolished the slave trade through the passage of the Slave Trade Act of 1807 by its parliament. The law prohibited the transportation and trading of enslaved people by the British and their ships.
5. **1808-** The United States of America (USA) abolished the slave trade. The law did not end slavery within the USA; it only abolished the importation of slaves into its territories.
6. **1815-** The Congress of Vienna condemned the slave trade. European leaders, who met at the Congress of Vienna to redraw the map of Europe after the Napoleonic Wars, officially condemned the slave trade and called on other countries who are yet to abolish it to do so.
7. **1833-** Britain abolished slavery in all her overseas colonies.
8. **1888-** Brazil abolished slavery as the last country to do so.

Reasons for the Abolition of the Slave Trade

The slave trade was abolished mainly due to humanitarian (moral and religious reasons), economic, and political reasons. These factors worked together to see the end of the inhumane practice of the slave trade. They are further explained below.

Humanitarian Reasons (Moral and Religious)

Humanitarian abolitionists believed that slavery was wrong and against God's will. They argued that the slave trade was inhumane, brutal, and morally unacceptable. The important humanitarian groups that championed against slavery included:

Religious Leaders

- a. Pope Leo X and Catholic Church leaders spoke against the slave trade. They argued that all humans were equal before God and that slavery contradicted the Christian teachings of love, compassion, and justice.
- b. Quaker religious groups, also known as the Society of Friends, were among the earliest groups in America to condemn slavery as sinful and unchristian.
- c. Methodist and Anglican churches later joined the advocacy of ending the slave trade and slavery in general. They argued that Africans were fully human, with souls capable of salvation. This belief challenged the racist ideas used to justify slavery, promoting the idea that Africans deserved education, freedom, Christian conversion, not enslavement.

Philosophers and Writers

- a. Famous thinkers like John Locke, Jean-Jacques Rousseau, Adam Smith and Montesquieu influenced abolitionist thought, arguing that slavery was a violation of human nature and social justice.
- b. Writers like Samuel Johnson wrote books exposing the cruelty and suffering of enslaved people.
- c. They argued that slavery violated the fundamental principles of human dignity, liberty, and equality. That all people deserved freedom and equal treatment.

The Anti-Slave Trade Committee

- a. It was formed in England in 1787.
- b. Granville Sharp, Thomas Clarkson, and William Wilberforce (Evangelical Christian and British Member of Parliament) led it.
- c. They organised petitions, gave speeches, and wrote pamphlets condemning the slave trade.
- d. They helped people understand the suffering caused by slavery.

Economic Reasons

By the late 1700s, the slave trade was becoming less profitable due to the following factors:

Impact of the Industrial Revolution

- a. New machines were invented in Europe and in Britain in particular, which replaced human labour. This change led to a growing need for free labour, wage earners, and domestic consumers rather than enslaved labourers.
- b. Africa's raw materials became valuable for Europe's growing industries rather than slave labour. Factories needed raw materials like cotton and palm oil, not slaves. This shift aligned with the economic interests of free trade proponents (like Adam Smith) and early imperialists.
- c. It became more profitable to trade in goods than people. Thus, factory-based production became more profitable than plantation agriculture.

Market Changes

- a. British colonies in the Caribbean had enough enslaved workers, which made continuous importation of slaves economically useless.

- b.** European merchants and governments began to see “legitimate trade” in products like palm oil, cotton, and coffee as more profitable and sustainable than the slave trade.

Rise of Free Labour Ideology

Economists like Adam Smith argued that free labour was more efficient and productive than slave labour. Paid workers were motivated to work harder and innovate for higher wages, while slaves were not. The belief that capitalism worked better with free labour gained popularity among European elites.

High Cost of the Slave Trade

The cost of maintaining slave ships became expensive. Feeding, housing, and preventing rebellion were expensive for plantation capitalists as compared to industrial capitalism.

Political Reasons

Changes in government and law helped end the trade.

Legal Decisions

- a.** In 1772, Lord Mansfield, the Chief Justice of the King’s Bench, ruled that slavery was illegal in England.
- b.** This freed over 15,000 enslaved people in Britain.
- c.** It set an important example for other countries and encouraged the abolitionists’ advocacy in England.

Political Changes

- a.** Independence of the United States in 1776.
- b.** Ireland joined the British Parliament in 1802.
- c.** Irish representatives were Catholic and opposed slavery.
- d.** This gave abolitionists more votes in Parliament.

Pressure from Abolitionist Movements in Britain

- a.** The Society for Effecting the Abolition of the Slave Trade, founded in 1787 in Britain by William Wilberforce, Granville Sharp, and Thomas Clarkson, influenced the British Parliament and public policy towards the trade.
- b.** They kept the issue in the national spotlight through petitions, speeches, and campaigns.

- c. Mass petitions, debates in Parliament, and widespread public support compelled the British government to abolish the trade in 1807.

International Diplomacy and Agreements

- a. By the early 19th century, nations began to see the slave trade as a diplomatic issue.
- b. At the Congress of Vienna in 1815, major European powers such as Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal jointly condemned the slave trade.
- c. Britain used its naval power and diplomacy to pressure other nations to end the trade, signing treaties with countries to ban slave trading.

Rise of Liberal Political Ideals

- a. Enlightenment and liberal political movements emphasised freedom, equality, and human rights.
- b. Politicians influenced by liberalism and democratic ideas found it increasingly difficult to justify slavery and the slave trade.

Role of African Abolitionists

Olaudah Equiano



Figure 5.3: Olaudah Equiano.

Source: [Olaudah Equiano \(1747 - 1797\)](#)

1. He was a former enslaved African from present-day Nigeria who wrote about his experiences while settled in Britain.
2. His autobiography, *“The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano”*, was published in 1789.

3. His book gave first-hand testimony of the horrors of slavery and the Middle Passage.
4. He worked with British abolitionist groups, giving lectures and promoting anti-slavery petitions.

Ottobah Cugoano

1. A former enslaved person who wrote powerful books against slavery.
2. He was born in modern-day Ghana and enslaved as a child, who later gained freedom in England and became a radical abolitionist.
3. He wrote “*Thoughts and Sentiments on the Evil of Slavery*” in 1787, which called for the immediate abolition of slavery and the slave trade.
4. He associated with Granville Sharp and other British abolitionists to campaign actively for African rights and condemned Christian justification for slavery.

African Rulers

1. Kings like Agaja of Dahomey fought against the trade.
2. In the 1720s, he wrote to King George I of Great Britain, expressing a desire to trade in other goods like cotton and ivory instead of slaves.

Activity 5.6 Abolition of the slave trade

1. Read the quotes in the following sources carefully.

Source A: Quotes from Olaudah Equiano’s autobiography (“*The Interesting Narrative of the Life of Olaudah Equiano*,” 1789).

“The shrieks of the women and the groans of the dying rendered the whole a scene of horror almost inconceivable. ... O, ye nominal Christians! Might not an African ask you, did you learn this from your God, who says unto you, Do unto all men as you would men should do unto you? ... I am not afraid to speak for myself and to say that I consider myself a man; I am not an animal. ... If you teach us the arts and manufacture, and extend commerce to Africa, there will not be a need for slaves.”

Source B: Quotes from Ottobah Cugoano’s book (“*Thoughts and Sentiments on the Evil and Wicked Traffic of the Slavery and Commerce of the Human Species*,” 1787).

“It is the greatest evil that ever afflicted human nature; it is a war against the very soul of man. ... No one can be a true Christian and yet live in the practice of slave-keeping. ... I hope to see the slave-trade abolished, and the slaves delivered out of the hands of their oppressors. ...If any man should buy another and make a slave of him, I should think it no crime to resist or even to kill him.... I am not ashamed of being a descendant of Africa. The colour difference is no more than a shadow.”

Source C: Quotes from King Agaja of Dahomey’s letter to King George I of Britain in 1726.

“The passions that are common to us all will therefore inevitably bring on disputes; and it is far preferable that both our nations should continue on the same footing they have hitherto done, allowing your ships to come and go as usual... the desire of seeing each other often will certainly unite us more firmly in friendship. ...I have stopped the sale of slaves in my country for some time now because your people abused it. Let us trade in peace with cloth and powder, and we shall both benefit. ...If your subjects will trade here in goods and not in slaves, I will permit them to build a house and stay to trade.”

2. Use the following guiding questions to help you analyse the sources above.
 - a. What kind of source is this? Is it primary or secondary?
 - b. Who is speaking in the source?
 - c. What actions did this person take against slavery?
 - d. What methods of resistance are mentioned in the sources?
 - e. What impact did their actions have in abolishing the slave trade?
3. Record your findings on your group worksheet.
4. Form a small group to design a poster that:
 - a. Introduce three of the African abolitionists analysed from the sources.
 - b. Show their contributions to ending the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade.
 - c. Present your poster briefly to the class. Use 1-2 minutes per group for the presentation.

5. Brainstorm to answer the question, “*Why was the slave trade abolished?*”
- a. Individually jot down at least one idea under the following main categories of reasons for the abolition.

Humanitarian (Moral and Religious Reasons)	Economic Reasons	Political Reasons

- b. Put yourselves into two groups.
- c. Form two circles: a small inner circle (facing outward) and a larger outer circle (facing inward, so that each of you is paired with someone in the inner circle).
- d. Discuss the following prompts with your pair.
- Round 1:** “*What are the humanitarian reasons for abolishing the slave trade?*”
- Round 2:** “*What were the economic reasons that made the slave trade less profitable?*”
- Round 3:** “*How did political changes in Europe and the Americas contribute to abolition?*”
- d. After each round, the outer circle rotates clockwise to face a new partner, while the inner circle remains seated.
- e. Return to your seat after all three rounds are completed.
- f. Some of you should share the general class key points from your conversations.

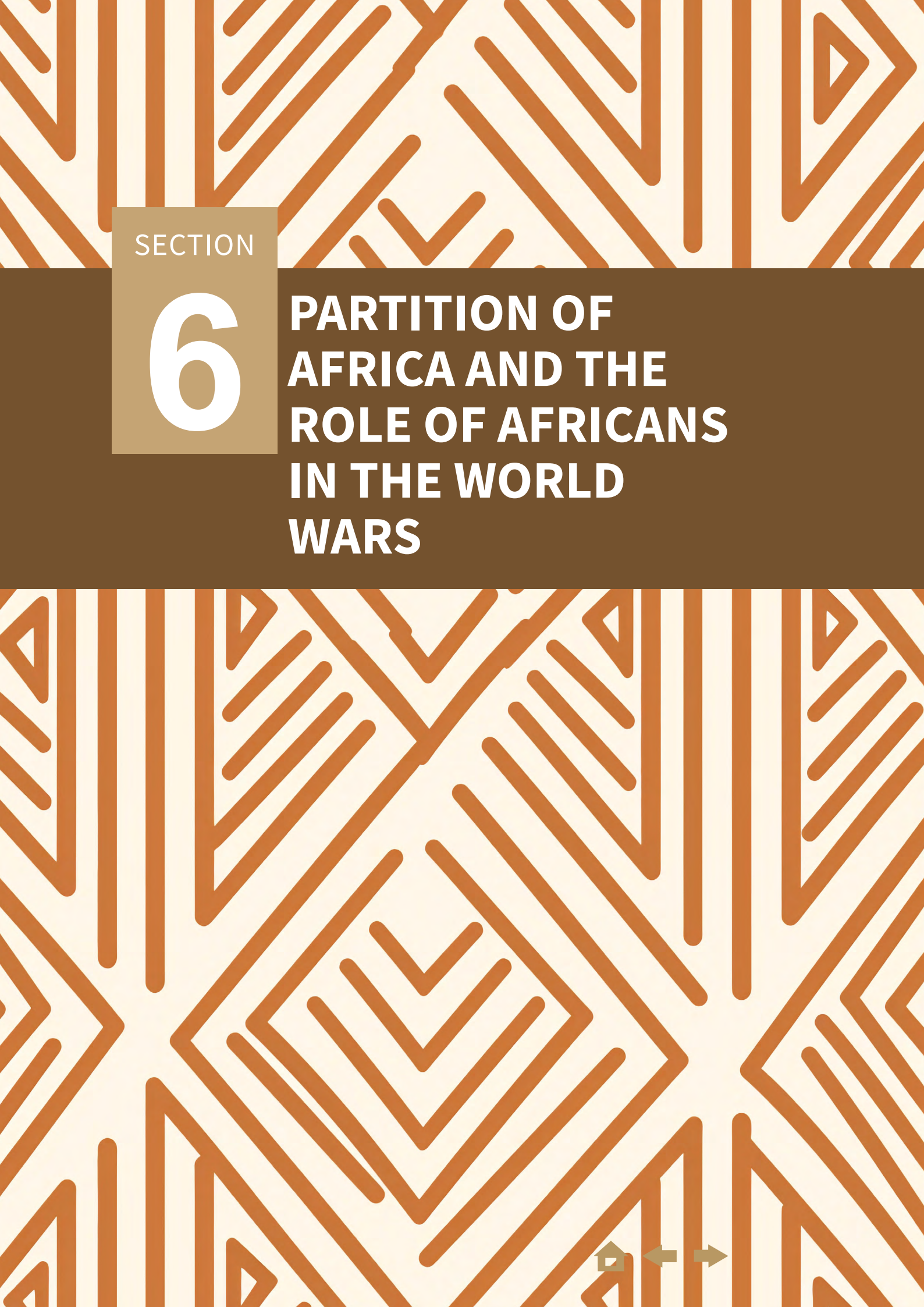
EXTENDED READING

- A short video of the Haitian Revolutionary War song used during the uprising. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hTmakHInXys&list=RDhTmakHInXys&start_radio=1
- A video documentary on the Haitian revolution. <https://youtu.be/Sn32cWUT83E?si=sQm2qYYhvG3szOSw>



REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Describe how the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade was conducted.
2. Investigate the impact of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade on Africa.
3. Analyse the nature of African resistance against the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade.
4. Highlight the factors that led to the abolition of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade.



SECTION

6

PARTITION OF AFRICA AND THE ROLE OF AFRICANS IN THE WORLD WARS



PRELUDE TO COLONISATION AND COLONIAL RULE

INTRODUCTION

This section explores two major events that shaped modern Africa: The European partition and Africans' participation in the World Wars. We will examine how European powers divided Africa among themselves and the consequences for African societies.

By the end of this section, we will understand the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 (also known as the Berlin West Africa Conference) and its impact on Africa. We will analyse how European powers established colonial rule through direct and indirect rule systems. We will examine why some African kingdoms remained independent whilst others were colonised. We will explore the role of traditional leaders under colonial administration. We will also investigate Africans' contributions to both World Wars between the 1910s and 1940s. We will evaluate how these global conflicts affected African societies and influenced later independence movements.

This knowledge helps us understand how external forces shaped African political boundaries and governance systems over time. This section is a build-up of knowledge from Year 2.

KEY IDEAS

- The Scramble for Africa refers to the period from the late 19th to the early 20th century, in which European imperial powers claimed control of most African territory.
- The Assimilation Policy was a French colonial policy aiming to integrate Africans into French culture and governance.
- Indirect Rule was a British colonial system, which used existing traditional rulers to govern the territory, particularly in the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast.
- Direct Rule was a colonial system whereby the colonial governments replaced local rulers with foreign officials.
- Nationalism is a strong patriotic feeling and desire for self-governance.

THE BERLIN CONFERENCE OF 1884-1885

It was a major diplomatic meeting held in Berlin, Germany, from November 15, 1884, to February 26, 1885. It was convened by German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck and attended by representatives from 14 European powers and the United States. The primary goal of the conference was to regulate European colonisation and trade in Africa during the period of New Imperialism.

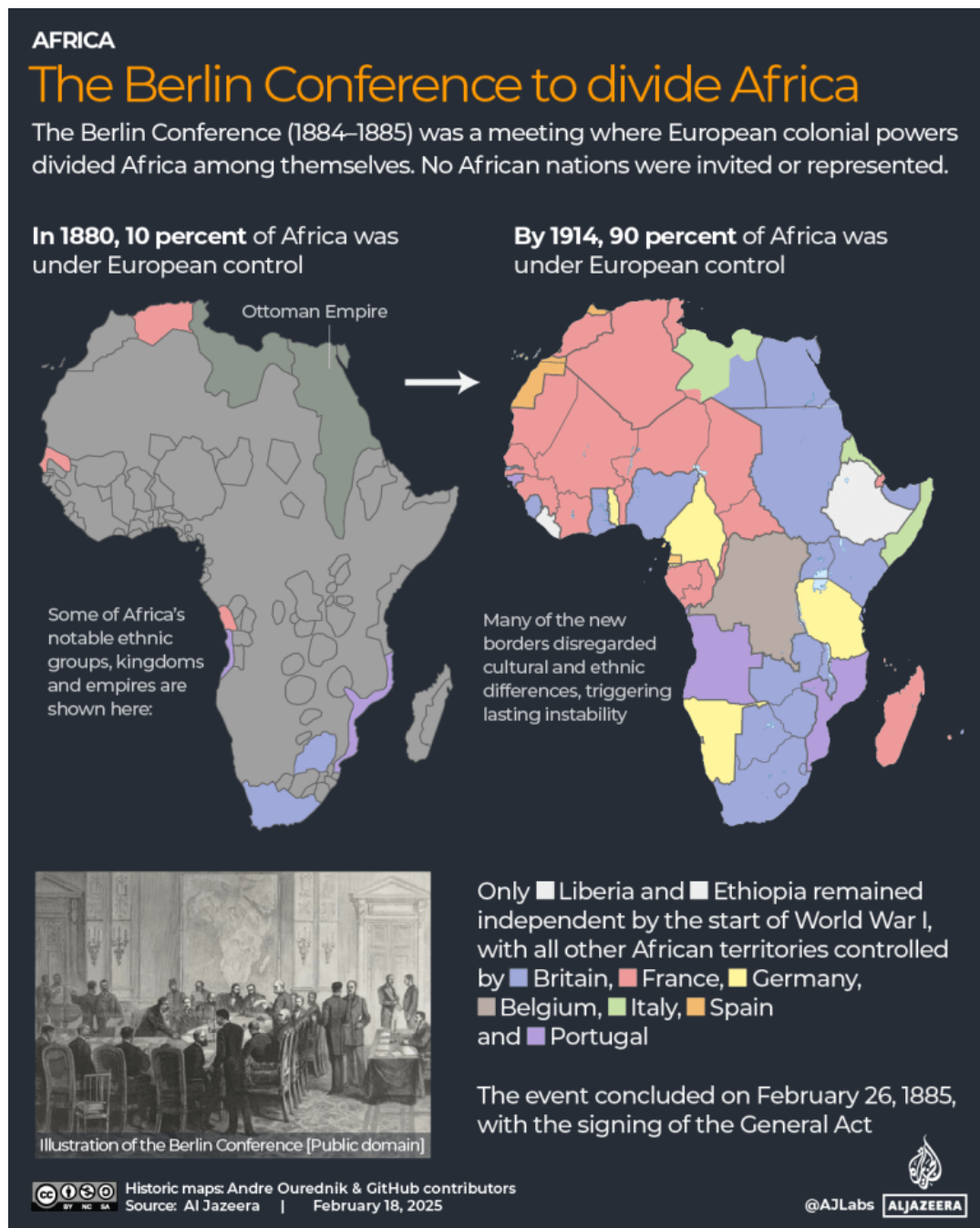


Figure 6.1: Map of Africa before and after the Berlin Conference.

Source: <https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2025/2/26/colonising-africa-what-happened-at-the-berlin-conference-of-1884-1885>



Reasons for the Organisation of the Berlin Conference

The Berlin West Africa Conference was organised during the period of the “Scramble for Africa”. During the late 19th century, European powers rapidly competed to conquer, occupy, and colonise African territories. It was therefore deemed necessary by the European powers for a conference to be held to;

1. Formalise a system that would legitimise the “**Scramble for Africa**”.
2. Establish rules for the colonisation and division of African territories.
3. Avoid conflict among European powers over African territories.
4. Ensure free trade and navigation along Africa’s major rivers (especially the Congo and Niger Rivers).

Although no African representatives were invited, the decisions made at the conference laid the foundation for the partitioning of the continent, leading to the formal colonisation of nearly all of Africa by the early 20th century.

Reasons for the Scramble and Partition of Africa

The scramble and partition of Africa by European powers was driven by a combination of economic, political, strategic, and ideological factors.

Economic Motives

1. **The need for raw materials:** Africa was rich in valuable resources such as gold, diamonds, rubber, palm oil, cotton and groundnuts. Europeans needed these natural resources to fuel their growing industrial economies.
2. **The search for new markets:** With high competition in Europe, Africa offered new consumers for European-manufactured goods, including textiles, tools and weapons.
3. **The need for cheap labour:** European powers wanted cheap African labour to work at the mines, plantations, and construction sites.
4. **Economic rivalry among European powers:** The major European nations (Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, Portugal, and Italy) competed for economic dominance. As such, colonies were seen as symbols of economic strength and prestige.
5. **Investment opportunities:** Africa offered vast opportunities for capital investment, especially in infrastructure like railways, mines and ports.

Political Reasons

1. **National rivalry among Europeans:** Colonies were seen as a sign of national strength and global influence. European powers were competing to increase their power and prestige by acquiring colonies.
2. **The Balance of power:** The European powers see colonies as a geopolitical asset; losing ground in Africa could weaken a nation's global influence. To maintain the balance of power, European nations often claimed African territories.
3. **Strategic and military interests:** Certain African territories held strategic value, such as key ports, trade routes, or access points to Asia (for example, the Suez Canal in Egypt). Colonies could serve as naval bases or military outposts to secure important maritime routes and protect national interests abroad.
4. **Desire to increase international prestige:** Ruling a large overseas empire was seen as a way to enhance a nation's global reputation and legitimacy. Leaders wanted to show that their nation was modern, powerful, and capable of civilising “lesser” nations.

Social/Ideological and technological Justifications

1. **Civilising mission:** Europeans believed it was their duty to “civilise” African societies, which they viewed as primitive.
2. **Social Darwinism:** By misapplying Charles Darwin's theory of evolution to human societies, Europeans believed they were the most “evolved” or “fit” and that it was natural and inevitable for them to dominate “less advanced” societies.

Table 6.1: European Nations Present at the Berlin Conference

European Power	Representative(s) at the Conference	Territories Claimed or Controlled
Germany	Otto von Bismarck (Chancellor), Count Herbert von Bismarck	Cameroon, Togo, German, South-west Africa (Namibia), German East Africa (Tanzania, Rwanda, Burundi)
France	Jules Ferry (Premier), Alphonse Chodron de Courcel	West Africa (Senegal, Ivory Coast, Mali, Niger), Central Africa (Gabon, Chad, Congo-Brazzaville), Madagascar

European Power	Representative(s) at the Conference	Territories Claimed or Controlled
Britain	Sir Edward Malet (Ambassador), Lord Granville (Foreign Secretary)	Egypt, Sudan (with joint Anglo-Egyptian control), Nigeria, Ghana (Gold Coast), Sierra Leone, Uganda, Kenya, South Africa
Belgium	King Leopold II (through diplomats, especially Baron Lambermont)	Congo Free State (modern-day DRC)
Portugal	Barros Gomes (Foreign Minister)	Angola, Mozambique, Guinea-Bissau
Italy	Count Pietro Antonelli	Eritrea, parts of Somaliland (later expanded to Libya and Ethiopia)
Spain	Pedro de Torres (Minister), various diplomats	Equatorial Guinea (Rio Muni, Bioko), Western Sahara, parts of northern Morocco
Netherlands	Diplomats only; limited involvement	Retained some trading rights; no major African colonies post-conference
Russia	Observers only	None
Austria-Hungary	Observers only	None
Denmark	Observers only	None
Sweden-Norway	observers only	None
Ottoman Empire	Observers: had a previous North African influence	Formally controlled Egypt, Libya, Sudan

Rules and Agreements for the Partitioning of African Territory (the Berlin Act)

The rules for the partitioning of the African continent were established during the Berlin Conference. This was done to avoid conflict among the European powers. The following are the rules for the Scramble and partition of Africa.

1. The principle of effective occupation. This states that claims to any territory could be regarded as valid only if the claimant occupied it with a military and administrative system.
2. The occupant of a territory was required to notify the other powers involved in the Berlin Conference. This was to allow counterclaims to be investigated.
3. Treaties signed with African kings were to be accepted as valid titles to territory.
4. Each signatory power was free to extend its coastal territories inland and to a reasonable distance.
5. The Congo and Niger rivers were to remain free for navigation by merchant ships of all nations. This was to ensure cooperation among European powers.
6. European powers were expected to respect existing treaties with African rulers.

African Reactions to the Partition

The devastating impacts of European colonisation made Africans respond actively to protect their identities and communities. The following are examples of some reactionary measures.

1. **Armed resistance:** Africans employed military confrontations and guerrilla warfare against the partition. For example, Samori Ture led a prolonged resistance against French colonial expansion in West Africa. The *Maji* Rebellion (1905–1907) in German East Africa was another large-scale revolt against German colonial rule. In addition, the Anglo-Zulu War of resistance in South Africa.
2. **Diplomatic alliances and treaties:** Certain kingdoms and chiefs signed treaties with Europeans, sometimes not at will, but under pressure. By these treaties, they hope to protect their people or gain an advantage over rivals.
3. **Early nationalist movements:** By the early 20th century, educated Africans and elites began organising to demand greater rights, autonomy, and eventually independence. Early political groups and pan-African ideas started to take root as a response to colonial rule.

Why Some African Kingdoms (Countries) Remained Independent after the Partition

By the end of the 19th century, almost the entire African lands were under the control of European countries. Only two African countries were not colonised during the Scramble for Africa. That is Ethiopia and Liberia. The map below is a pictorial view of the situation after colonisation.

African Countries Never Colonized by Europeans



Figure 6.2: African countries not colonised.

Source: https://www.reddit.com/r/MapPorn/comments/1hg8w9n/african_countries_never_colonized_by_europeans/#lightbox



These nations maintained their independence through a combination of strategic factors that other African kingdoms lacked.

1. **Strong military resistance** was a key factor in maintaining their independence. Ethiopia, in particular, developed a well-equipped army that could effectively challenge European forces, as demonstrated in their victory over Italian forces at the Battle of Adwa in 1896.
2. **Geographic location and terrain** provided natural advantages. Ethiopia's mountainous landscape made invasion difficult, whilst both countries occupied positions that were less immediately attractive to European powers compared to coastal or resource-rich regions.
3. **Skilled diplomacy** enabled these nations to navigate European rivalries effectively. Ethiopian leaders like Emperor Menelik II successfully played

European powers against each other, whilst Liberia maintained its American connections for protection.

4. **Protection by a dominant political power** offered security from European conquest. Liberia benefited from American support as a colony for freed slaves, whilst Ethiopia maintained independence through strategic alliances and treaties.
5. **European agreements or rivalries** sometimes worked in favour of African independence. Competition between European powers occasionally created situations where maintaining certain African states as buffer zones served their interests better than direct conquest.
6. **Lack of immediate economic or strategic value** to European colonisers meant some regions faced less pressure for colonisation, allowing them to maintain autonomy longer than resource-rich areas that attracted immediate European attention.

Activity 6.1 Charting the reasons for the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885

1. Form a pair with a classmate. Tell him/her what you know about the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885.
2. Using the internet or textbooks, read about three reasons each (under political, economic, social/ideological and technological) why European powers met and divided Africa among themselves (Berlin Conference).
 - a. Get a piece of paper and draw a chart of four columns.
 - b. Write down the reasons under the following headings in the columns of the chart: **Political, Economic, Social/Ideological and technological** reasons. In short sentences, explain the reasons you identified in the chart.
 - c. Walk to the classroom wall and post your work on the wall.
 - d. Walk around the classroom wall and read your classmates' charts.

Activity 6.2 Analysing Political Cartoons on the Berlin Conference

1. Pair up with a classmate.
2. Look closely at the images, drawings, symbols, and words in the picture below.



Figure 6.3: Cartoon European leaders at the Berlin Conference.

Source: https://en.m.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Cartoon_depicting_Leopold_2_and_other_emperial_powers_at_Berlin_conference_1884.jpg



3. Discuss with your partner;
 - a. What message does the cartoon/picture say about the Berlin Conference?
 - b. Does it support the scramble for Africa or show it as unfair? Why?
 - c. Write 3–4 sentences to support your opinion.
 - d. Present your opinion to the class.

Activity 6.3 Comparing Africa before and After the Partition

1. Form small groups (3–5 learners), and look at two maps:
 - a. Africa before 1885.
 - b. Africa after the Berlin Conference.
2. Use the following links to search for the maps: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scramble_for_Africa#/media/File:African-civilizations-map-pre-colonial.svg; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scramble_for_Africa#/media/File:Africa_map_1914.svg



3. Identify at least **five major changes** in boundaries or territories.
4. Discuss why these changes happened, who benefited and what problems these could have caused.
5. Write down key points raised from your discussion.
6. Present your findings to the class in a short talk (2–3 minutes).

Activity 6.4 African Reactions to the Partition of the continent

1. Using the internet or textbooks, search with a partner on how Africans reacted to the partitioning of the continent. For example:
 - a. Resistance
 - b. Diplomacy
 - c. Cooperation
2. Discuss your findings with your partner for 2 minutes.
3. Divide yourselves into two groups.
4. Put yourselves into two circular sitting arrangements such that:
 - a. Inner circle faces outwards.
 - b. Outer circle faces inwards (so each person is facing a partner).
 - i. Those seated in the **outer circle** move one step to the right to meet a new partner.
 - ii. Repeat the rotation and discussion with new ideas from each person three times.

Activity 6.5 Countries Claimed and Reasons for Independence

1. Form groups (4-5 learners per group).
2. On chart paper, make a list of African countries/territories claimed by each European power during the Berlin conference.
3. Use a map of Africa to check your accuracy.

4. Discuss among yourselves why some African countries (like Ethiopia and Liberia) were not colonised.
5. Write down at least **two key reasons** from your discussion.

THE IMPACT OF THE PARTITION OF AFRICA

The impact of the Partition was profound and multifaceted, affecting millions of people socially, politically, economically, and culturally. Here is a breakdown of the key impacts.

Political Impact

1. **Increase in wars:** Before the introduction of guns and ammunition from Europe, many African societies used traditional weapons like spears, bows, and arrows in warfare. The introduction of firearms allowed armies to kill from a distance, which led to deadlier battles and higher casualties.
2. **Loss of independence:** African nations lost their sovereignty. They became subjects to foreign laws and rulers. Colonial administrators replaced local governance, undermining indigenous rulers' authority.
3. **Rise of resistance movements:** colonisation helped foster a sense of unity among different groups. Some leaders began organising resistance movements to protect their communities and assert independence. Examples were the *Mau Mau* uprising (1952-1960) in Kenya and the Anglo-Asante wars in Ghana.
4. **Introduction of artificial borders:** The Europeans created borders, which cut across regions with mixed populations. These new borders solidified divisions and intensified long-term territorial disputes.
5. **Established colonial system of administration:** The partition formalised Europeans colonisation of the African continent.

Economic Impact

1. **Exploitation of resources:** European powers exploited Africa's vast natural resources, including minerals, precious metals, agricultural products, and other raw materials. For example, mining operations were set up to extract

gold, diamonds, copper, and other minerals, often with little benefit to local communities.

2. **Introduction of cash crop economies:** Cash crops, including coffee, cocoa, rubber, cotton, and palm oil, were produced. These crops were grown primarily for export to fuel European industries rather than local consumption.
3. **Decline of indigenous industries:** Traditional African industries such as textiles, ironworking, pottery, and leather goods were displaced by European manufactured goods. This led to a decline in indigenous industrial skills and local manufacturing capacity.
4. **Exploitation of African labour:** European powers often imposed forced labour policies on Africans, compelling them to work on plantations, mines, railways, and public projects. Examples include the Belgian Congo under King Leopold II, where brutal forced labour was used to extract rubber.

Religious Impact

1. **A peaceful atmosphere for missionary activities:** The colonial government often protected missionary activities. This official support deterred attacks from hostile groups and allowed missionaries to carry out their work without fear of violence or disruption.
2. **The conversion of a large number of Africans to Christianity:** In the late 19th Century, a small minority of Africans, mainly coastal communities and a few inland groups, practised Christianity. By the early 20th century, estimates suggest that roughly 5-10% of the African population had converted to Christianity.
3. **Reduction in negative practices:** Christianity contributed to the decline of harmful practices like witchcraft-related violence, human sacrifice, and female genital mutilation.

Social Impact

1. **The introduction of western education:** Colonial governments took responsibility for establishing government schools or subsidising mission schools. Focus was on reading, writing, arithmetic, and vocational skills like carpentry, agriculture, and domestic work.
2. **The introduction of foreign languages as official means of communication:** Western education introduced European languages (English, French,

Portuguese, German) as the language of instruction, which later replaced many indigenous languages in formal communication.

3. **The introduction of Western modes of dressing:** Before colonisation, African societies had diverse and rich traditions of clothing that were deeply tied to their cultural identities and social status. Over time, Western dress codes spread widely in urban centres, schools, and workplaces, blending with or sometimes replacing traditional African garments.
4. **The introduction of the Western system of health delivery:** European powers introduced hospitals, clinics, vaccination programmes, and public health campaigns, which had lasting impacts on disease management and healthcare delivery in Africa.

Activity 6.6 Investigating the Impact of the Partition of Africa

1. Form groups of 4–6 classmates.
 2. Each group should use the internet or visit the library and look for:
 - a. **Primary sources** (examples, maps, letters, treaties, photographs) and
 - b. **Secondary sources** (examples, textbooks, articles, historians' commentaries).
- Hint:** Your search should focus on how the partition affected Africa.
3. As a group, read and discuss each source to find:
 - a. Political impact of the partition of Africa.
 - b. Economic impact of the partition of Africa.
 - c. Social and cultural impacts of the partition of Africa.
 4. Take notes and write a **summary** (about 100–150 words) of what your group learned from the sources.
 5. Prepare a **poster, multimedia, or oral presentation** showing your findings with evidence from the sources.

Activity 6.7 Linking Past Impacts to Modern-Day Challenges

1. In the same groups, discuss how the partition has led to modern challenges, such as:
 - a. Ethnic conflicts

- b. Underdevelopment
 - c. Identity struggles (loss of African identity through westernisation and Christianisation)
- 2. For each challenge, explain the link between the partitions and the present problem.
- 3. Think of practical solutions that African governments or the African Union could implement to address these problems.
- 4. Write a group report with:
 - a. A short introduction to the partition of Africa
 - b. Key points from your discussion
 - c. Examples of modern challenges linked to the history of the partitioning of Africa
 - d. Suggested solutions.
- 5. Present your work to the class in a **5–7-minute presentation**, followed by questions from your classmates.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT RULE SYSTEMS IN AFRICA

The Scramble for Africa, which led to the organisation of the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885, resulted in the adoption of two main administrative systems by the European empires to govern their new colonies in Africa. These administrative frameworks were the systems of indirect and direct rule.

1. The indirect rule system relied on existing African indigenous political hierarchies and structures. Here, colonial officers worked through chiefs, kings, and councils, adapting customary laws to serve imperial interests while keeping day-to-day governance (tax collection, minor justice, local policing) in the hands of recognised local authorities. The indirect rule system is closely associated with the British administration.
2. While the direct rule system, favoured by the French, Belgian, Portuguese, and German administrations, replaced or cut off indigenous leadership. European officials and imported legal codes dominated every level of administration, aiming to “assimilate” colonised peoples into European political, cultural, and economic systems.

Indirect and Direct rule in Africa had some key features. The features are summarised in **Table 6.2** below.

Table 6.2: Features of Indirect and Direct Rule Systems in Africa

Features of Indirect and Direct Rule Systems	
Indirect Rule System	Direct Rule System
In Indirect Rule, a major role was given to native authorities in the administration of the colonies.	In Direct Rule, power was concentrated in the hands of European colonial officials.
There was the existence of native treasuries.	Local political structures were ignored or dismantled.
The chiefs maintained their native courts under indirect rule. The courts were under supervision	The Europeans held most key administrative positions in justice delivery.
There was a resident Governor in the colonies.	A standardised system of governance was applied across all colonies regardless of local differences.
There was recognition of customary laws.	There was a strong military and political presence in the colonies to enforce colonial laws.

Indirect Rule and Direct Rule were adopted based on the circumstances of either the colonies or the metropolitan Government (colonial masters). The following are some of the reasons for the adoption of Indirect Rule and Direct Rule in Africa.

Reasons for the Adoption of Indirect Rule in Africa

1. There were inadequate British personnel for direct political administration. West Africa was big, and many Europeans fell ill or died from tropical diseases. They relied on local chiefs to help them rule.
2. There were inadequate funds for the British to pay British officials. Maintaining British officials everywhere was expensive. Using local chiefs was much cheaper than hiring British officials.
3. Language barrier/differences were an important reason for the adoption of British Indirect Rule in West Africa. British officials did not speak local languages. The chiefs spoke the same languages as the people, so they could explain rules and ideas clearly.

4. Vast geographical areas of the African colonies made it difficult for them to use Direct Rule. West African territories were very large, with poor roads and difficult access.
5. There was an effective indigenous political structure in West Africa. In places like Northern Nigeria or Ghana, chiefs, kings, and emirs already ruled. These traditional systems worked well, so Britain maintained them and placed them under British supervision.

Reasons for the Adoption of Direct Rule in Africa

1. The assimilation policy. France believed Africans could become French by adopting the French language, laws, customs, and education. Those who did were supposedly granted French citizenship. But in reality, only a few elites did, and many were still treated as second-class people.
2. The desire for total control. France wanted full authority over their colonies. They replaced local rulers with French officials and centralised power under Paris.
3. The distrust of traditional authorities. The French thought local chiefs were backward or unreliable. They wanted to remove the chiefs' power and run everything directly via French officials.
4. The idea of European superiority. The French believed their culture and civilisation were superior. They felt Africans should adopt French culture to become 'civilised'.
5. The desire to create model colonies in Africa. France saw some colonies (like Dakar in Senegal) as examples of French society overseas. They built schools, institutions, and laws just like in France, hoping these areas would act as French provinces abroad.

The adoption of Indirect Rule and Direct Rule in Africa had both advantages and disadvantages for the people of Africa. **Tables 6.3** and **6.4** below show a summary of the advantages and disadvantages of indirect rule and direct rule in West Africa.

Note

It is important to note that indirect rule was not uniformly applied. Its implementation depended on existing indigenous political structures and the availability of colonial government officials.

Table 6.3: Advantages and Disadvantages of the Indirect Rule System in Africa.

Advantages	Disadvantages
Indirect Rule promoted the emergence and development of nationalism in West African countries.	It excluded educated Africans from the political and governance process.
Under Indirect Rule, Africans were allowed some degree of freedom.	It contributed to the slow pace of constitutional rule.
Indirect Rule deepened the trust between the colonial administration and the protectorate.	Traditional rulers under the system of indirect rule became corrupt and enriched themselves at the expense of their subjects in some parts of West Africa.
Indirect Rule led to the abolition of outmoded cultural practices.	It created disunity and disorder between the local chiefs and the educated elites.
Indirect Rule helped to preserve the native forms of government.	It encouraged tribalism and sectionalism.
Indirect Rule was cheaper to run.	It led to Interference in traditional chieftaincy succession.
Indirect Rule facilitated the maintenance of law and order.	

Table 6.4: Advantages and Disadvantages of the Direct Rule System

<i>Advantages and Disadvantages of the Direct Rule System</i>	
Advantages	Disadvantages
The Direct Rule system facilitates quick decision-making without reliance on intermediaries.	It led to the disregard for African cultures and traditions.
Direct Rule ensures fairer distribution of national resources.	There was a high cost of administration due to the employment of officials for administrative duties.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Direct Rule System

• Direct Rule improved the standard of living of citizens successfully assimilated.	• It increased Resistance as a result of the strong political control over the colonies.
• It improved economic development since the colonies were treated as extensions of metropolitan Europe.	• There was inadequate African participation in political governance.
• Direct Rule improved education for assimilated African citizens.	• It facilitated forced labour, land seizures, and other forms of exploitation under tight European control.

Activity 6.8 Exploring the differences in Direct and Indirect Rule

1. Pair with a classmate.
2. Read short descriptions from your Learner Material/textbook, about
 - a. **Direct Rule** (where foreign officials led and made rules)
 - b. **Indirect Rule** (where local leaders helped the colonisers to govern).
3. Draw a table of two columns.
 - a. One column representing Direct Rule and
 - b. The other column representing Indirect Rule.
4. Fill the columns with the differences/things you have observed with:
 - a. Indirect Rule System
 - b. Direct Rule System

Hint: Indirect Rule used chiefs and local leaders, while Direct Rule replaced them with foreign colonial officials.

5. Put your thoughts together and write down the European countries that adopted any of the systems in their colonial administration.

Activity 6.10 Researching reasons why European powers adopted Indirect or Direct rule in different parts of Africa

1. Form small groups.
2. Search from the internet and other source materials on:
 - a. Reasons why European powers chose **Indirect Rule** in some parts of Africa.
 - b. Reasons why European powers chose **Direct Rule** in some parts of Africa.
3. Write **at least four** reasons **each** in your notebooks.

Example of reasons

- a. Indirect Rule was cheaper and caused less unrest.
 - b. Direct Rule aimed for uniform control and the spreading of European civilisations (like in French colonies).
4. Share your findings in a short, spoken or written summary with other groups.

Activity 6.11 The advantages and disadvantages of indirect and direct rule systems in Africa

1. Put yourselves in groups (3-5 members)
2. Get drawing paper, coloured markers, or tablets (if available).
3. Draw two circles or charts showing the **Advantages** and **Disadvantages** of each rule system.

Hint: Use the internet or textbooks to search for the advantages and disadvantages of both systems

THE ROLES OF TRADITIONAL LEADERS IN THE INDIRECT RULE SYSTEM

1. Traditional leaders were in charge of the maintenance of law and order.
2. They were responsible for collecting taxes on behalf of the colonial administration.
3. They supervised communal labour and developmental projects in their areas.

4. Traditional leaders settled minor disputes between their subjects.
5. They acted as links between the colonial government and the people.
6. They stood as symbols of unity in their communities.
7. They implemented policies and projects for the colonial government.
8. They served as an electoral college for the legislative council.

The Reasons Why The Educated Elites Opposed The Indirect Rule System

1. The Indirect rule system did not involve the educated elites in the administration of their territories.
2. The Indirect rule system discriminated against Africans in the civil service.
3. The Indirect rule system did not provide a representative government (there were no elected representatives of the local people).
4. The Indirect rule system recognised and vested more powers in the traditional rulers, hence neglecting the educated elites.
5. The Indirect rule system failed to enhance the socio-economic development of the colonies.
6. It delayed constitutional and political development in the various colonies.
7. There was embezzlement (theft) of funds in the native treasuries by most traditional leaders.

Activity 6.12 Role of Traditional Leaders in the Indirect Rule System

1. Form a small group with your classmates and discuss the following roles performed by traditional leaders under the Indirect Rule System.
 - a. Daily administrative duties.
 - b. Judicial and governance roles.
 - c. Chiefs as symbols of unity.
 - d. The role of supervision of communal labour and developmental projects.
 - i. Get a flip chart or plain sheet.
 - ii. Write the roles in bold, and under it, write your explanation in bullet points or key notes.
2. Present your work to the class in 3 minutes.

3. After each presentation, open the floor for Questions and Answers (1-2 questions maximum).

Activity 6.13 Why the educated African elites opposed the Indirect Rule system in Africa

1. Your teacher will invite someone to share with you the role played by chiefs in the British colonial system. Write down the main points in your notebook.
2. Turn to your classmates and talk to him/her about “Why the educated Africans did not like a system where chiefs were the main link to colonial government?”
 - a. Your discussion should focus on the following reasons:
 - i. Some chiefs were illiterate.
 - ii. The educated elites were excluded from the administration.
 - iii. Undemocratic in nature.
 - iv. Misuse of power by chiefs.
 - v. Slow political progress.
 - b. Write a short, clear explanation of one of the reasons, with examples of at least two African countries whose educated elites opposed the indirect rule system.
 - c. Share your explanation orally with the class.

WORLD WAR I (1914-1918): THE GREAT WAR

World War I began in August 1914 after a terrible event in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia and Herzegovina. On 28th June 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir presumptive of Austria-Hungary, was killed by Gavrilo Princip, a Bosnian Serb nationalist. This murder started a chain reaction because many European countries had promised to help each other if war broke out.

The war had two main sides

1. **The Allied Powers:** Britain, France, and Russia (later joined by the United States in 1917)

2. **The Central Powers:** Germany, Austria-Hungary, the Ottoman Empire, and Bulgaria

The fighting was very different from earlier wars. Soldiers dug long ditches called trenches and faced each other across dangerous ground called “no-man’s land”. New weapons like machine guns, poison gas tanks, and aeroplanes made this war much more deadly than any war before it.

The war ended on 11th November 1918 when Germany agreed to stop fighting. Germany was very tired from years of war and was facing problems at home. The formal end came with the Treaty of Versailles in 1919, which made Germany give up land, reduce its army, and pay money to the winning countries.

For Africa, the end of the war meant big changes. German East Africa was partitioned between Britain and Belgium. German colonies in Africa (Togo, Cameroon, and German South West Africa) were given to Britain and France to rule by the League of Nations. This made European control over Africa even stronger.

World War II (1939-1945): The Global Conflict

World War II began on 1st September 1939 when Germany, led by Adolf Hitler, attacked Poland. Britain and France declared war on Germany two days later to help Poland.

The war happened because:

1. Germany was angry about the harsh punishment after World War I.
2. The world was going through hard economic times in the 1930s.
3. Dangerous leaders had taken power in Germany, Italy, and Japan.

World War II, just like World War I, had two main sides. That is:

1. **The Central Powers:** Germany, Italy, and Japan.
2. **The Allied Powers:** Britain, France, the Soviet Union, the United States, and many other countries.

This war was fought all over the world and used new technologies like radar, jet engines, and atomic weapons.

The war in Europe ended on 8th May 1945 when Germany surrendered after Hitler killed himself and Soviet forces captured Berlin. The war in the Pacific ended on 15th August 1945 when Japan surrendered after the United States dropped atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki.

After the war, the United States and the Soviet Union became the world's most powerful countries, whilst European colonial empires became much weaker. This weakness would later help African countries gain independence.

Activity 6.14 Researching the events leading to the First and Second World Wars

1. Form groups of 3-5 learners.
2. Using textbooks or the internet, search for;
 - a. The factors leading to World War I
 - b. The factors leading to World War II
3. During your search, note important dates and events from 1910 to 1945. For example:
 - a. The assassination of Ferdinand (June 28, 1914)
 - b. Declarations of World War I (July – August 1914)
 - c. The First Battle of the Marne (September 1914)
 - d. The major battles like Verdun and the Somme, the US joining (1917)
 - e. The Armistice on **11 November 1918**.
 - f. Germany invading Poland (1 September 1939)
 - g. Declarations of World War II by Britain and France (3 September 1939)
 - h. The major battles, the Holocaust, as well as the global spread of the Axis powers.
4. Use a long paper to design a chart.
5. Label one half for **WWI** and the other for **WWII**.
6. Place events in chronological order, adding simple labels like “Germany invades Poland with the date, War begins with the date.
7. Let your dates follow from the first date, next date to the last date (ascending order).
8. Share your timelines with the class
9. Ask questions like, “Why is this event important?” or “How did this event change the war’s direction?”
10. Respond to questions from your colleagues respectively

Activity 6.15 Reflecting upon the lessons learned from the advent of the two Wars

1. Gather in groups (3-5 members).
2. Think and discuss what these wars taught us. Examples of lessons include:
 - a. Nuclear weapons show how devastating technology can be.
 - b. The bombing of Hiroshima remains a powerful warning.
3. How can we avoid making the same mistakes?
4. Write down key points from your discussion in your notebooks.

ROLE OF AFRICANS IN THE WORLD WARS

Except for Ethiopia and Liberia, the entire African continent was under European colonisation during the period of the wars. Hence, the occurrence of the Wars required Africans involvement. Africans did not voluntarily choose to join these wars. They were forced to participate because European countries ruled over them as colonies.

How Africans were Drawn into the Wars

Africans got involved in the Wars in the following ways.

1. **France made military service compulsory:** France forced about 180,000 French West Africans to fight in Europe during World War I, causing many rebellions in Mali, Burkina Faso, and Benin.
2. **Britain used different recruitment methods:** Britain used voluntary recruitment at first, but later expanded their efforts, recruiting soldiers from the West African Frontier Force.
3. **African territories had strategic military value:** Togo had the best wireless transmitter along the Atlantic coast at Kamina, whilst Cameroon had one of the finest deep-water ports in West Africa at Douala.
4. **Economic contributions:** During the Second World War, British colonies in Africa were major contributors of food, raw materials and military materials to the British war effort. Parts of Africa were important beef producers, supplying this vital foodstuff to Commonwealth forces in the Middle East. British Somaliland helped raise £7,363.00 to build Spitfire planes, whilst the Maasai of Kenya donated 17,926 cattle to the war effort, which was very precious to them.

5. **Manufacturing military equipment:** Between June 1940 and May 1941, South African factories produced 1,300 military vehicles, which were used during British campaigns in North East Africa. East African factories produced clothing, mortar barrels, anti-tank mines and reconnaissance vehicles.
6. **Forced labour in war industries:** Some people were called up to work in industries that were producing military equipment, which meant they were given no choice but to assist the war effort.
7. **Replacing lost resources from Asia:** In 1941, Japan invaded the British colony of Burma, causing Allied forces to lose access to important raw materials such as rice, rubber and pyrethrum. Africa's capacity to produce and manufacture materials became vital to the success of the British war effort.
8. **Strategic location for military operations:** West Africa became an important stopping point for convoys and aircraft travelling around the world. Between January 1942 and October 1943, 1,000 American aircraft reached West Africa before fighting in the Middle East.

The Involvement of African Soldiers in the World Wars

1. **Combat service on the front lines:** African soldiers fought bravely in important battles, with Senegalese troops fighting on the Western Front in France and British soldiers from the King's African Rifles fighting in East Africa and the Middle East.
2. **Military achievements and victories:** The Ghana Regiment achieved the first Allied victory in World War I when they captured Lomé, Togo, whilst a Nigerian brigade captured Mogadishu, the capital of Italian Somaliland, in World War II.
3. **Essential support services:** About 7,000 Sierra Leonean carriers served in Tanganyika during World War I, and hundreds of thousands of Africans worked as carriers and auxiliaries, transporting equipment and supplies.
4. **Skills development during military service:** Many African soldiers learned new skills during their service, becoming tailors, mechanics, drivers, masons, and carpenters, which helped them after the wars.
5. **Heavy casualties and Sacrifices:** About 65,000 men from French North and West Africa died in World War I, whilst over 375,000 African men and women served in World War II, with 3,387 killed or missing and 5,549 wounded.

Role of African Women in the World Wars

Women's wartime roles are often underrepresented. Examples: There were East African Military Nursing Service (EAMNS) and other women's auxiliary units during WWII, and female combatants in Ethiopia from 1935 onward. Below are some of the roles of African women in the First and Second World Wars.

1. **Military support:** African women served as camp followers with military forces. They cooked meals for hundreds of soldiers daily and transported military supplies and equipment.
2. **Medical services:** Women worked in military hospitals as ward assistants. They cleaned wounds, changed bandages, and used traditional healing knowledge to make medicines from local plants.
3. **Agricultural leadership:** When men left to fight, women took complete control of farming. Some managed up to seven farms at the same time. They increased food production to supply military forces.
4. **Resistance activities:** Women helped men escape forced military recruitment. They hid refugees and guided them through secret forest paths to safety in neighbouring territories.

Activity 6.16 African involvement in WWI and WWII

1. Your teacher will assist you with documentaries on how Africans were drawn into the World Wars. For **World War I**, follow the link <https://youtu.be/dMcB-WpQgv8?si=MbZzkYUfwOUFGxCM>, and for **World War II**, follow the link https://youtu.be/hcIFhN1z03o?si=-iuZs3d4HG_AFX9T



2. Jot down some key points while you watch the documentary.
3. Form groups of 3-5 members per group.
4. From the documentary, identify and discuss:
 - a. African nations whose people were involved in the World Wars.
 - b. How were they recruited to fight?
 - c. Which colonial powers were they fighting for?

- d. What roles did they play in the Wars?
- 5. Present your key points from your discussion to the general class.
- 6. Focus your presentation on the role African played in the Wars. Example:
 - a. Supply of soldiers
 - b. Financial support
 - c. Supply of foodstuffs
 - d. Supply of raw materials and others.
- 7. Take questions after your presentation and respond to them accordingly.

Activity 6.17 The role of African men and women in WWI and WWII

1. Pair with a classmate.
2. Draw a chart with two columns
3. Title it as **“The different roles African men and women played in WWI and WWII”**.
4. Label one column “the role of African men” and the other as “the role of African women”.
5. Using the internet, search for three roles each gender played in the world wars
6. Write them in their respective columns.
7. Discuss what these stories reveal: how did women contribute?
8. Write a one-to two-paragraph essay on *“Why is it important to remember women’s roles in history?”*
9. How do their stories change our understanding of the wars?
10. Present your work to the class.

IMPACT OF THE WORLD WARS ON AFRICA

Social impact

1. Family and community disruption: The recruitment of young men disrupted traditional family structures. Women had to take on responsibilities that men previously held.

2. **Skills and knowledge acquisition:** Many African soldiers learned new technical skills during military service. This contributed to the emergence of new professional classes in African societies.
3. **Broader perspectives and consciousness:** Military service exposed African soldiers to different cultures and ideas about governance. This later influenced independence movements and nation-building efforts.
4. **Increased demands of social developments:** Africans, especially nationalists, demanded improved social developments such as developments in higher education, health care, Africanisation of the civil service, and many others.

Political Impact

1. There were increased demands for constitutional reforms, especially after the Second World War. Most of the educated elites called for changes in the constitution to allow for inclusion in the administration of the colonies.
2. The Africans' participation in the wars helped in breaking the myth of the superiority of Europeans. The African War veterans reported how, for the first time, they saw the white soldiers being afraid, in pain and in death. They also narrated stories of how they had the opportunity to sleep with the white women. This broke the myth that the white man was a higher-class human being than the blacks.
3. Most African soldiers are learning how to read and write in the white man's language.
4. The wars helped in the introduction of new ideas, such as the quest for freedom, liberty, self-government, justice.
5. Facilitating nationalist struggles in the colonies. The World Wars sparked nationalist movement activities in Africa. Africans began to form Youth movement groups, political groups and other freedom fighting groups to oppose colonial rule in Africa.
6. The emergence of political parties, and others. The Second World War was a revelation to the African educated elites. It gave strength to their agitations for inclusion in their native government. It most importantly opened doors for the formation of Political parties such as the United Gold Coast Convention in the Gold Coast.

Economic Impact

1. The widespread nature of the Wars led to the emergence of a weak economy. The World engaged in producing military goods instead of consumer goods, which weakened the economies of the powerful nations.
2. It led to an increase in demand for raw materials. Industries were in short supply of raw materials to produce food and other military goods. This increased the demand for these materials since there was competition for them.
3. The shortage and price hikes of consumer goods. The overproduction of military goods at the expense of consumer goods brought a lot of demand for the few consumer goods that were available. This led to a shortage in the market and an unreasonable increase in prices.
4. Production of cash crops. Many farmers shifted their attention to the production of cash crops such as cocoa in order to make more profit.
5. Spread of communist and capitalist ideas. The end of the Wars saw the emergence of America and Russia as major, powerful nations in the world. Russia believed that property and businesses should be owned by the state, while America believed that property and businesses should be owned by individuals. These two powerful nations started spreading their ideas after the Second World War.

Activity 6.18 Impact of the World Wars on political development in Africa

Turn to a colleague and together, you search on the internet or in textbooks, **the political effects of the World Wars on Africa**, such as:

- a. Rise of nationalism and independence movements.
 - i. Draw a circle at the centre of your paper and label it “the political effects of the World Wars on Africa”.
 - ii. Create four straight lines joining the outside of the circle.
- b. On each line, fill in one political impact of the World Wars you identified.
- c. Write more details about the effect in the form of branches.

Activity 6.19 Impact of World War II on the nationalist movements in Africa

Form groups of not more than five students each and use your textbooks to read on the impact of WWII on nationalist movements in Africa.

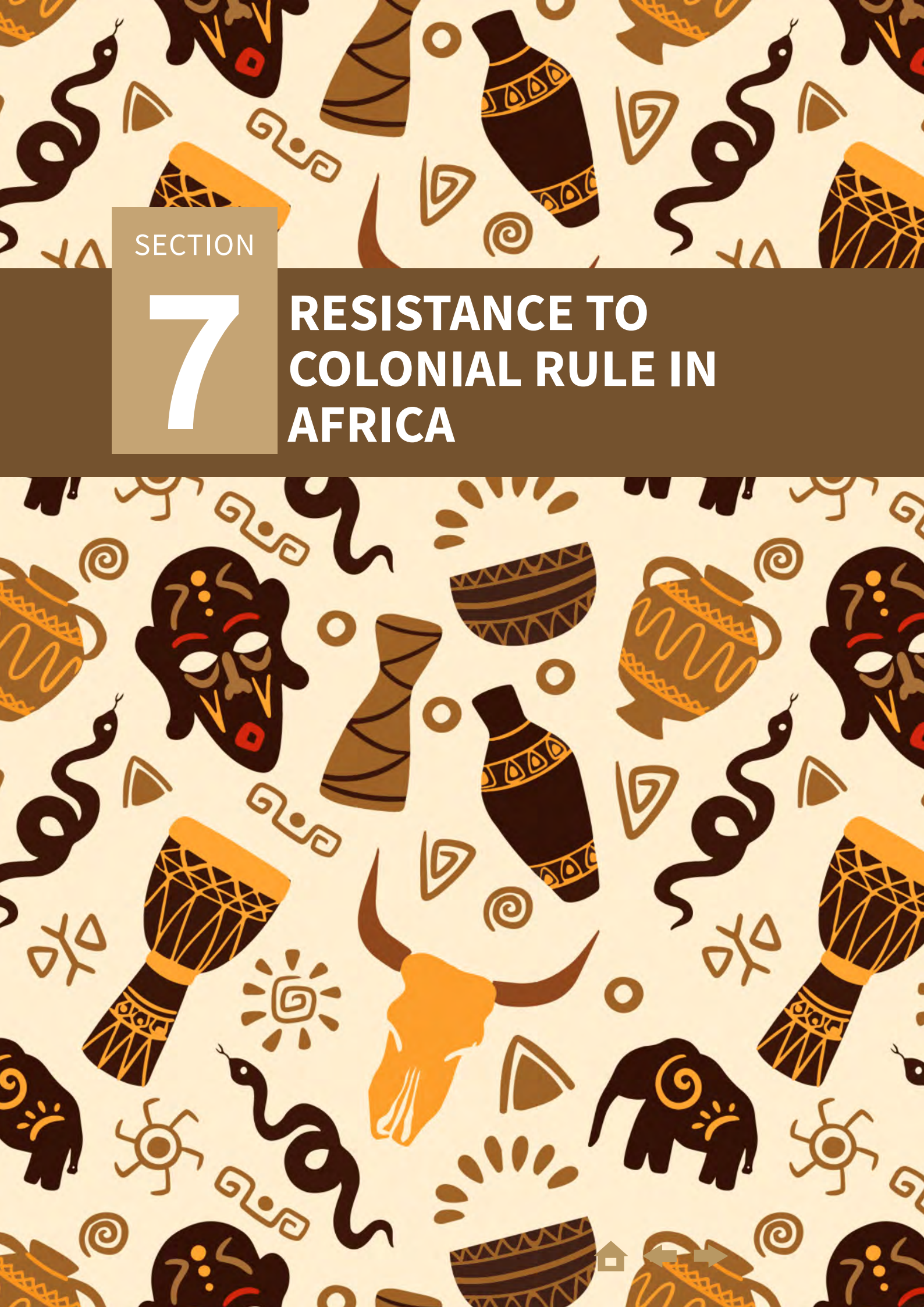
- a. Create a chart of three columns
- b. Write social impacts in the first column, economic impacts in the second column, and political impacts in column three.
- c. Discuss how these impacted nationalist movements in Africa.
- d. Present your work (3–4 min each) to the class.

Activity 6.20 Debating whether the World Wars helped or harmed Africa

1. Divide yourselves into two groups. One group representing the positive impact of the Wars on Africa. The other group representing the negative impact of the Wars on Africa.
 - a. Use textbooks, the library, the internet or any other useful materials to search for:
 - i. Information from primary sources
 - ii. Information from secondary sources
 - b. Jot down your main points.
2. Join together with someone from the other group and discuss the impact of the Second World War on Africa. Make sure you discuss:
 - a. Political impacts such as the rise of Nationalist Movements in Africa, including breaking the myth of the ‘superiority’ of Europeans;
 - b. Economic effects
 - c. Social effects
3. Note your discussions down.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. State **two** main reasons for organising the Berlin Conference of 1884–1885.
2. What is meant by the “Principle of Effective Occupation”?
3. Identify **three** economic motives for the scramble and partition of Africa.
4. State **two** reasons why Britain adopted Indirect Rule in West Africa.
5. Give **two** reasons why France adopted Direct Rule in West Africa.
6. Give **two** reasons why the educated elites opposed the Indirect Rule system.
7. State the immediate cause of World War I.
8. Give **two** reasons why World War II broke out.
9. State **two** contributions of African women to the World Wars.



SECTION

7

RESISTANCE TO COLONIAL RULE IN AFRICA

RESPONSE TO COLONIAL RULE

INTRODUCTION

In this section, we will explore how Africans fought against colonial domination and achieved independence. We will examine the various ways African societies resisted European rule and eventually gained freedom.

By the end of this section, we will understand the factors that sparked African resistance movements. We will analyse how colonial social and economic policies created widespread opposition. We shall be investigating the vital role of African-owned newspapers, religious groups, and nationalist leaders in organising resistance. Through detailed case studies of Nigeria, Algeria, Kenya, and South Africa, we will compare different paths to independence. We will examine how Pan-Africanists abroad and local African nationalists contributed to liberation movements across the continent.

This knowledge helps us to appreciate Africans efforts in challenging colonial oppression. It demonstrates how ordinary people and leaders worked together to regain their freedom. Understanding these resistance movements shows how Africans shaped their own destiny rather than being passive victims of colonialism.

The sections further enhance our knowledge gained in Year 2 about the rise of radical nationalism after World War II in the Gold Coast as illustrated in the chart below.

KEY IDEAS

- **Apartheid** was a formal system of racial segregation and discrimination that existed in South Africa from 1948 to the early 1990s.
- **Assimilation** was a French colonial policy aimed at making colonial subjects adopt French culture, language, and values, treating them as French citizens if they met certain conditions. Portugal also used the same policy where assimilated Africans were referred to as *assimilados*
- Colonial Rule is a political system where one country controls and governs another territory, often exploiting its resources.
- **Indirect rule** was a colonial governance method where the British ruled through existing local chiefs and traditional leaders rather than directly replacing them with British officials.

- Nationalism is a strong sense of pride in and loyalty to one's nation, often with a desire for self-rule or independence.
- Racial Segregation is the separation of people into different areas, services, or institutions based on race.

FACTORS LEADING TO AFRICAN RESISTANCE TO COLONIAL RULE

The struggle for African independence did not happen suddenly. It was as a result of years of harsh colonial policies that affected every part of Africans' daily lives. When European powers colonised Africa, they introduced new systems of government, economic, and social policies that completely changed how Africans lived, worked, and related to one another. These changes created conditions that eventually led to widespread resistance movements across the continent.

Social Policies of the Colonial Governments and how they led to African Resistance

1. **Segregation in Housing:** Colonial authorities forced Africans and Europeans to live in separate areas. Europeans lived in the best parts of towns with proper facilities, whilst Africans were pushed into poor areas with no clean water or good roads. This unfair housing system made Africans feel like second-class citizens in their own countries and motivated them to fight for equal treatment.
2. **Low Remuneration to African Civil Servants:** African civil servants received much lower salaries than Europeans who were doing the same jobs. Even highly educated Africans earned less money than Europeans with basic education. This unfair pay system frustrated educated Africans and pushed them to join independence movements to demand fair wages and equal opportunities.
3. **Discrimination:** Colonial governments treated Africans as inferior to Europeans in all areas of life. Africans could not enter certain shops or public facilities reserved for Europeans only. They faced harsher punishments for the same crimes. In some African countries like South Africa, the indigenous people were forced to carry identity documents, whilst Europeans moved

freely. This systematic discrimination made Africans angry and determined to fight for their dignity and equal rights.

4. **Limited Opportunities for Higher Education:** Colonial authorities deliberately restricted African access to universities and professional training. Very few Africans could become doctors, lawyers, or engineers because these opportunities were mainly reserved for Europeans. This educational discrimination prevented Africans from taking leadership roles in their own countries and created resentment among educated Africans who demanded better educational opportunities.
5. **Promotion of Christianity:** European colonial powers actively supported Christian missionary activities. Churches were often given land and protection to convert Africans. Traditional African religion was suppressed or labelled as “pagan” or “backward.” Sacred sites were defiled or taken over while indigenous spiritual leaders were disempowered. This sparked spiritual and cultural resistance.
6. **Suppression of Islam:** In some regions, colonial authorities viewed Islam with suspicion due to its organised structure and potential to mobilise political resistance. Muslim leaders were monitored or replaced, and Islamic education systems were sidelined in favour of Christian missionary schools. This led to Islamic-led revolts or passive resistance through the preservation of Quranic schools and rejection of colonial authority.

Economic Policies of the Colonial Governments and How They Increased African Resistance

1. **Exploitation of Resources:** Colonial governments took control of Africa’s valuable natural resources like gold, diamonds, and timber. These resources were exported to Europe whilst African communities remained poor despite living on top of valuable wealth. This exploitation made Africans realise they needed independence to control their own resources and benefit from their countries’ wealth.
2. **Forced Labour:** Colonial authorities forced Africans to work on European-owned mines and plantations under harsh conditions for very low wages. Many Africans had no choice but to leave their families to work for Europeans. This forced labour system disrupted African families and communities. It created deep resentment and motivated people to resist colonial rule.
3. **Cash Crop Production Issues:** Colonial governments forced African farmers to grow crops like cocoa and cotton for export instead of food crops

for household consumption. This system led to food shortages and hunger in many communities, leading to resistance movements.

4. **European Monopoly on Trade and Businesses:** European companies were given exclusive rights to trade in African colonies, controlling all major business activities. Africans were forced to buy expensive European goods and could not develop their own successful businesses.
5. **Foreign Domination of the Economy:** All major economic decisions in African colonies were made by Europeans, and not Africans. Important industries, banks, and trading companies were owned and controlled by Europeans. This foreign control prevented African economic development and made Africans determined to gain independence so they could make their own economic decisions.
6. **High Taxation:** Colonial governments imposed heavy taxes on Africans, including hut taxes and poll taxes. These taxes forced Africans to work for Europeans to earn cash to pay the government. Many Africans struggled to pay these taxes, which funded the colonial administration that benefited Europeans. This unfair taxation system angered Africans and motivated them to resist colonial rule.

Activity 7.1 Understanding how colonial social policies sparked Africans' resistance

1. Get into groups of three to five students. Choose someone to be your group leader, and choose another person to be the writer (to put down key points). As a group, read and discuss the examples of colonial social policies below.

Colonial Social Policy	Description
Segregation in Housing	Africans were given poor housing areas; Europeans had better living conditions.
Low Pay for African Workers	African civil servants were paid much less than Europeans for the same job.
Discrimination	Africans were treated unfairly in workplaces, hospitals, and schools.
Limited Education	Only a few Africans had access to higher education.

2. As a group, choose two or three policies from the table above. Talk about how these policies might make people feel and why they will resist. Now, create a good historical question for each policy you chose.
Hint: A good historical question should ask “why” or “how” something happened. For example: ‘*Why did African workers earn less than Europeans, and how did they react?*’
3. Each group takes a turn to read their questions aloud, and then you, as a class, should discuss the answers to the questions.
4. Record your answers to the questions in your notebook.

Activity 7.2 Colonial economic policies and African resistance

1. Form a group of no more than five of your classmates. Read and discuss these colonial economic policies in the table below.

Economic Policy	Explanation
Exploitation of resources	Colonial powers took African raw materials to feed their own industries in Europe.
Forced labour	Africans were forced to work on plantations, roads, railways, etc.
Cash crops production issues	Africans had to grow cash crops (like cocoa, cotton, coffee) instead of food crops.
European monopoly	Only European businesses were allowed to trade or operate in some key sectors like mining.
Foreign domination of the economy	Africans had little control over their own economy.

2. Each group member should then choose one policy to focus on and take notes:
 - a. What was this policy about?
 - b. How did it affect African people?
 - c. How did it lead to resistance or nationalism?
3. Arrange yourselves in two circles:
 - a. **Inner Circle:** Sit facing outwards.

- b. Outer Circle:** Sit facing a partner in the inner circle.
4. Share your thoughts on the policy you studied
 5. Ask each other:
 - a. What was the impact of this policy?
 - b. Why would Africans resist it?
 - c. Do you know any movements, leaders or people who opposed it?
 6. After 3 minutes, the outer circle rotates clockwise (one seat), forming new pairs.
- Hint:** Repeat this 3 times, so each of you discusses with three different people.
7. Return to your original group. Together, discuss:
 - a. Which policy do you think caused the strongest resistance or nationalism?
 - b. Choose one policy your group agrees on as the most significant.
 8. Write down:
 - a. The policy chosen.
 - b. Two or three reasons why your group chose it.
 - c. Real examples of resistance movements, leaders, or effects.
 9. Write your conclusion on A4 or chart paper and post it on the wall.

Activity 7.3 Role-playing African resistance to colonial rule

1. Create teams of seven to ten students.
 - a. As a team, choose one African country during colonial rule. Examples:
 - i. Gold Coast-cocoa hold-ups, ex-servicemen riots (1948 riots)
 - ii. Kenya-Mau Mau uprising
 - iii. Nigeria-anti-tax protests, strikes
 - iv. Algeria-war of independence
 - b. From the social (**activity 7.1**) and economic (**activity 7.2**) lists, choose the ones that will be the focus of your drama. Examples:

- i. Forced labour + Europeans monopoly.
- ii. Discrimination in jobs + exploitation of resources.
- c. Work together to outline your drama:
 - i. **Scene 1- Setting the Stage:** Show life before or at the start of colonial rule.
 - ii. **Scene 2- Policy Introduced:** Show how the policy is put in place.
 - iii. **Scene 3- Impact:** Show the suffering, unfair treatment, or anger it caused.
 - iv. **Scene 4-Nationalistic Response:** Show protests, meetings, speeches, strikes, or uprisings.
 - v. **Scene 5-Conclusion:** Show the policy being challenged or inspiring hope for independence.
- 2. Perform in front of your classmates. While watching others, note down:
 - a. The policy is being shown.
 - b. How it led to nationalist feelings.
 - c. Key characters or events.
- 3. After all performances, return to your teams and discuss:
 - a. Which policy in your story had the greatest impact on nationalism?
 - b. Was your story realistic and historically accurate?
 - c. What would you change if you did the drama again?
- 4. Write a short paragraph in your individual notebook about the most important thing you learned about colonial policies and African nationalism from your drama project.

NATURE OF AFRICAN RESISTANCE AGAINST COLONIAL RULE IN AFRICA

African resistance to colonial rule took various forms, ranging from armed uprisings to intellectual, religious, and political uprisings. As colonial structures gained ground, Africans developed more organised and strategic forms of resistance. This was to assert their independence and right to self-rule.

Avenues Used by Africans to Resist Colonial Rule

1. **Use of African-owned press and newspapers:** These newspapers played crucial roles in exposing colonial injustices, shaping public opinion, and amplifying nationalist ideas that inspired collective action.
2. **Religious reformist groups:** These groups challenged both the spiritual and political authority of European missionaries and administrations, often promoting indigenous identity and self-determination.
3. **The rise of an elite group of nationalists:** The African elites served as key figures who played crucial roles by mobilising the masses, forming political parties, and negotiating constitutional reforms. At the continental level, Pan-Africanists such as Kwame Nkrumah and W.E.B. Du Bois connected African struggles to global movements, promoting unity among people of African descent and calling for the total liberation of the continent.

Together, these forces shaped a broad and multi-dimensional resistance that laid the foundation for independence across Africa.

African Nationalist Newspapers and Press

The following were African-owned press and newspapers used by African nationalists to fight colonialism in Africa.

- a. The West African Pilot (Nigeria)
- b. The Gold Coast Daily Mail (Ghana)
- c. The African Morning Post (Ghana)
- d. The Lagos Daily News (Nigeria)
- e. The Accra Evening News (Ghana)

The Role of African-owned Presses and Newspapers in the Struggle for Independence across Africa

1. African-owned presses and newspapers were used in creating political awareness by educating the masses about their rights and the injustices of colonial rule.
2. The nationalists used them to challenge colonial narratives that sought to portray African societies as inferior and incapable of self-rule by celebrating African cultures, leaders, and histories.
3. They used them as a tool for mobilising and organising resistance movements by informing readers about protests, strikes, and nationalist meetings.

4. They served as communication channels for emerging political parties and independence movements.
5. African presses promoted the spread of Pan-African ideas, helping to link independence struggles across the African continent.
6. These newspapers served as training grounds for political leaders since many future nationalist leaders were journalists or newspaper founders.

The Role of Religious Reformist Groups in the Struggle for Independence across Africa

1. They encouraged the break from European churches and the formation of new, independent West African churches. They did this by promoting an African-centred interpretation of religion that emphasised dignity, equality, and freedom.
2. They demanded that church control be vested in West Africans or clerical leaders.
3. They encouraged the incorporation of aspects of West African ideas of worship into Christian rites, showing more tolerance for West African social institutions like polygamy.
4. The African Church and prophetic movements represented a nationalist reaction against white domination in the religious sphere. They rather encouraged Africans to adopt African names at baptism and translate the bible and prayer books into West African languages.
5. They encouraged Africans to embrace Islam as a form of protest against colonialism because it offered a wider worldview devoid of the indignity of assimilation to the colonial master's culture, most notably in French West Africa.
6. Many religious reformist groups established schools that taught not only religious values but also literacy and political consciousness.
7. They inspired anti-colonial sentiment through calls for religious and political reform.
8. Churches and mosques were used as meeting places where ideas of liberation and self-governance were discussed.

The Role of African Nationalists in the Struggle for Independence across Africa

The African nationalists made a significant contribution to the struggle for independence in Africa by carrying out the following activities.

- a. Petitions to the secretary of state for the colonies
- b. Formation of political parties
- c. Demonstrations against the colonial policies
- d. Newspaper publications
- e. Boycott of European goods
- f. Widespread rioting and looting
- g. Promotion of Pan-Africanist ideals by encouraging solidarity not just within countries, but also across the continent and the diaspora.

The Role of Pan-Africanists Living Abroad in the Struggle for Independence across Africa

People of African descent living outside Africa contributed in the following ways to the struggle for independence across Africa.

- a. Advocacy and Awareness through writing books, articles, and speeches that exposed colonial oppression and argued for self-determination.
- b. Organisation of Pan-African Conferences that united African and Diasporic intellectuals to discuss strategies for ending colonial rule and promoting African unity.
- c. Building Networks and Alliances that connected African nationalist leaders with sympathetic political groups, trade unions, and anti-colonial activists worldwide.
- d. Training and educating followers by influencing them with Pan-Africanist ideas, critical for acquiring new political knowledge and skills to become leaders and activists in their own countries' struggles.
- e. Application of political pressure on colonial powers through lobbying and public campaigns in Western countries.

Activity 7.4 African resistance against colonial rule

1. Form pairs with your classmates. Discuss what is meant by “forms of African resistance” and review the examples below:
 - a. Armed resistance (example, Samori Ture of Guinea)
 - b. Diplomatic negotiations
 - c. Role of press/media (Example, African-owned newspapers)
 - d. Religious reformist movements (for example, Ethiopianism)

2. Use textbooks, internet sources, or teacher-provided resources to gather information on two or three forms of resistance using the guiding questions below.
 - a. What type of resistance was it?
 - b. What were the aims and outcomes of the resistance?
 - c. Who were the key individuals or groups involved in the resistance?
 - d. What challenges did they face?
3. On a large sheet/cardboard, create a chart to visually organise your findings.
 - a. Present your chart to the class.
 - b. Write a short explanation in your individual notebooks:
 - i. What did you learn about African resistance?
 - ii. What surprised you the most and why?

Activity 7.5 Charting the role of African nationalists abroad

1. Form groups of not more than five students.
 - a. Select three individuals from the following list or as assigned by your teacher:
 - i. Marcus Garvey
 - ii. W.E.B. Du Bois
 - iii. George Padmore
 - iv. C.L.R. James
 - v. Henry Sylvester-Williams
 - vi. Kwame Nkrumah (during his time abroad)
 - vii. Jomo Kenyatta (during his time in the UK)
 - b. Using internet sources and textbooks, or teacher-provided resources, search each nationalist you selected and gather the following biographical data on them.
 - c. Biographical Data to Include:
 - i. Full Name and Nationality
 - ii. Date and Place of Birth
 - iii. Major Ideologies/Beliefs
 - iv. Key Activities While Abroad

- v. Organisations/Movements Involved In
 - vi. Connection to African Independence (who did they influence?)
 - vii. Legacy or Historical Impact
2. Fill in a biographical chart using a table or mind map format.
 3. On A3 paper, create a History-Makers Chart.
Hint: Include sections for each nationalist with a photo/sketch (optional) and record the information that you have found.
 4. Write a short paragraph on how one African nationalist abroad inspired a specific leader or movement in Africa (example, how Marcus Garvey inspired Kwame Nkrumah).

Activity 7.6 Exploring the role of African nationalists through documentaries

1. Your teacher will guide you with documentaries on the following nationalists.
 - a. Dr Kwame Nkrumah (Ghana)
 - b. Jomo Kenyatta (Kenya)
 - c. Nelson Mandela (South Africa)
 - d. Ahmed Ben Bella (Algeria)
 - e. Julius Nyerere (Tanzania)
 - f. Patrice Lumumba (Congo)
2. Choose one nationalist leader to focus on from the above list.
3. Watch the documentary/video clip.
4. As you watch, jot down key points based on the following template as a guide:

Category	Details
Name of Nationalist	[Write the name in full]
Country of Origin	[e.g., Ghana]
Form of Resistance Used	[e.g., civil disobedience]
Key Contribution	[e.g., Led C.P.P to win independence]
Challenges Faced	[e.g., suffered arrest]

Answer the following in your notebook:

- a. What did you admire most about the nationalist you chose?
- b. What lessons can young Africans today learn from these leaders?

CASE STUDIES OF INDEPENDENCE STRUGGLE IN AFRICA (NIGERIA IN 1960 AND ALGERIA IN 1962)

Independence Struggle In Nigeria (1960)

The Nigerian anti-colonial movement was a nonviolent movement, which reflects responses and resistance to British rule in Nigeria through:

1. strike actions,
2. newspaper, press and propaganda,
3. trade unionism,
4. boycott, and
5. mass rural-urban migration.

These actions succeeded in causing a great obstruction to the colonial administration and forcing Britain to hand over political authority to Nigerians on 1st October 1960.

Leading Figures in Nigeria's Struggle for Independence

The following nationalists spearheaded the struggle for political freedom in Nigeria.

- a. Nnamdi Azikiwe
- b. Obafemi Awolowo
- c. Ahmadu Bello
- d. Herbert Macaulay
- e. Tafawa Balewa
- f. Margaret Ekpo

Nature of the Independence Struggle in Nigeria

The struggle was characterised by the following key features:

1. **Non-violent:** The nature of the independence struggle in Nigeria was largely peaceful political activism and constitutional means rather than violent or revolutionary.
2. **Constitutional Reforms:** The struggle for independence in Nigeria was largely through constitutional reforms and political negotiation between Nigerian nationalists and the British colonial authorities. Key constitutions enacted and adopted through the efforts of the nationalists included:
 - a. Richards Constitution (1946)
 - b. Macpherson Constitution (1951)
 - c. Lyttleton Constitution (1954)

These constitutions brought reforms that increased Nigerians participation in governance and laid the groundwork for self-rule.

1. **Role of Political Parties and Nationalist Movements:** Political parties played a key role in mobilising the people and negotiating independence
 - a. National Council of Nigeria and the Cameroons (NCNC) – led by Nnamdi Azikiwe
 - b. Action Group (AG) – led by Obafemi Awolowo
 - c. Northern People's Congress (NPC) – led by Ahmadu Bello

These parties represented different regions and ethnic groups, which sometimes led to ethno-regional rivalries, but also helped build pressure for independence.

2. **Intellectual and Media Influence:** Educated elites and the press were instrumental in shaping nationalist consciousness.
 - a. Newspapers like *West African Pilot* (founded by Nnamdi Azikiwe) spread anti-colonial ideas.
 - b. The educated elites in Nigeria used their education to argue for self-determination.
3. **General Strike Actions:** Strike actions such as the great strike of 1945, which lasted for 45 days. It was led by labour leaders to demand cost-of-living allowances and better wages due to inflation after World War II. The

strike later became a nationwide movement that exposed colonial neglect and became a symbol of national unity against British rule.

4. **Mass Revolts (Egba Women's Revolt):** It was organised by the Abeokuta Women's Union in the late 1940s against the imposition of unfair taxation by the Nigerian colonial government. This revolt encouraged other people to join the fight for independence.

Why Nigeria's Colonial Resistance Remained Peaceful

- a. Many educated people pushed for change using logic and law.
- b. Each major region had a say, which eased tension.
- c. The British, after WWII, did not want another drawn-out war.
- d. Unlike Algeria, Nigeria did not have many British settlers trying to hold onto the land.
- e. Leaders were patient and willing to work through official channels.

Nature of Independence Struggle in Algeria (1962)

Algeria was colonised by the French. Algeria was made an integral part of France (not just a colony), but an extension of France. Large numbers of French settlers (known as *colons* or *pied-noirs*) occupied Algerian land. They enjoyed both political and economic dominance over the indigenes. The colonial government denied the indigenous people (mostly Muslim Arabs and Berbers) their political rights and subjected them to racial and economic discrimination.

The Algerian independence struggle from 1954 to 1962 was a brutal, complex, and protracted one. Here is the breakdown of the nature of the Algerian independence struggle.

1. **Emergence of Nationalist movements:** Algerian nationalism grew in the 20th century, especially after World War II. Movements like the National Liberation Front (FLN) were formed to demand independence.
2. **Use of Demonstrations:** Algerians organised numerous demonstrations against French colonial rule throughout the colonial period (1830–1962). These demonstrations included;
 - a. The Sétif and Guelma Massacre (May 8, 1945).
 - b. May Day demonstration (May 1, 1950s).
 - c. Demonstrations in France (October 17, 1961).

3. **Emergence of Algerian revolutionary groups:** Example of such movements included;
 - a. Front de Libération Nationale (National Liberation Front).
 - b. Movement for the Triumph of Democratic Liberties (MTLD).
 - c. Organisation Spéciale (Special Organisation).
4. **Algerian War of Independence:** The FLN launched an armed revolt in 1954 on the colonial government. They used guerrilla tactics, propaganda, sabotage, and urban warfare, notably in the Battle of Algiers. The French army responded with mass arrests, torture, and collective punishment, often targeting civilians.
5. **Support for independence by foreign nations:** The war attracted international attention during the Cold War. The FLN received support from Arab and socialist countries. The United Nations criticised French actions and supported the Algerians' right to self-determination.
6. **End of the Conflict:** The war officially ended with the **Evian Accords** in March 1962. A referendum held in July 1962 confirmed Algeria's independence. Over 1 million French settlers fled or were expelled. Finally, Algeria entered into a period of reconstruction and political consolidation.

Leading Figures in Algeria's Struggle for Independence

1. Ahmed Ben Bella
2. Houari Boumédiène
3. Larbi Ben M'hidi
4. Ferhat Abbas
5. Djamila Bouhired

Why Algeria's Colonial Resistance was Violent

The Algerian colonial resistance was violent primarily due to the following reasons.

1. **Violent Nature of French Colonisation (1830–1962):** France invaded Algeria in 1830, and the initial conquest involved mass killings, destruction of villages, and land seizure. Algerians lost vast amounts of land to European settlers (*colons* or *pied-noirs*), causing widespread poverty and resentment.
2. **Racism and Unequal Treatment:** Indigenous Algerians were denied full citizenship and rights in their own land under colonialism. The French

attempted to erase Algerian identity, suppressing Arabic and Berber languages, Islamic institutions, and native customs.

3. **French Responds to Early Resistance.** Early Algerian resistance was crushed with violence. This reinforced the idea that peaceful resistance was futile.
4. **Failed Reforms and Broken Promises:** After Algerians fought for France in WWII, hopes for reform and independence grew.
5. **Formation of the FLN and Guerrilla Warfare.** The FLN was formed in 1st November 1954 by a group of young nationalists from the MTLN, known as the “Group of 22”, to unite all Algerian nationalist groups under one revolutionary organisation. They adopted guerrilla warfare as a core strategy to fight the French, who had a vastly superior military force.
6. **Global Cold War Pressures and International Attention:** The United Nations criticised French actions and supported the Algerians’ right to self-determination. Arab nations also supported Algerians’ desire to be free from colonial domination.

Activity 7.7 Comparing Nigeria and Algeria’s struggle for independence

1. You should work in groups to create timelines of events moving towards the independence of Nigeria and Algeria.
2. Using the internet, textbooks, library, or resources provided by your teacher:
 - a. Search for information from primary sources such as speeches/quotes, images, videos, colonial records, and newspaper articles about the independence struggle of Nigeria and Algeria.
 - b. Then, search for information from secondary sources like textbooks, summaries, journal articles, documentaries and others.
3. From your search about each country, look for:
 - a. Colonial background (Who colonised the country and when?)
 - b. Nationalist movements (Political parties, protests, groups)
 - c. Key leaders and their roles (e.g., Nnamdi Azikiwe, Houari Boumédiène)
 - d. Major events (e.g., formation of political parties, uprisings, riots, negotiations)
 - e. Date of Independence

Tip: Divide the tasks among yourselves in the group— some working on Nigeria, others on Algeria, then come together to complete the timelines.

4. From your search, select the 3-4 most important events that show how each country moved from colonial rule to independence.

Examples for Nigeria

- a. 1922: Clifford Constitution
- b. 1944: NCNC founded
- c. 1954: Federal Constitution
- d. 1960: Independence

Examples for Algeria

- a. 1945: Sétif Massacre
- b. 1954: FLN begins armed resistance
- c. 1956: Battle of Algiers
- d. 1962: Independence from France

5. Create a horizontal timeline for each country, and at each important date, add:
 - a. A short description of the event
 - b. An icon or symbol (e.g., flag, protest sign, handshake)
 - c. If possible, a quote from a primary source
6. In your individual notebooks, answer the following questions:
 - a. What similarities do you notice in the way Nigeria and Algeria gained their independence?
 - b. What are the key differences (e.g., use of violence, negotiation)?
 - c. Which country's struggle do you think was more difficult, and why?
7. Comparing key figures and forms of resistance against colonial rule in Nigeria and Algeria. Find one classmate to partner with and draw a table with two columns and a title at the top:

Comparison of Leading Figures in the Independence Movements of Nigeria and Algeria	
Nigeria – Leading Figures	Algeria – Leading Figures

- a. Use your textbooks or any available resources to search for information to complete the chart above. Focus your search on:
 - i. Names of key figures
 - ii. Their roles and strategies
 - iii. Organisations they were part of
 - iv. Any speeches, writings, or actions they are known for
 - b. With your partner:
 - i. Discuss similarities and differences in leadership roles.
 - ii. Were their approaches more political, military, or diplomatic?
8. Creating a mind map to explain why colonial resistance in Algeria was more violent than in Nigeria.
 - a. Form a group of 4–5 learners by joining with other pairs.
 - b. On a clean sheet, write the title in the centre and label it:

Why Was Colonial Resistance in Algeria Violent but Mostly Nonviolent in Nigeria?
 - c. Create a mind map with branches, each of which should answer one of these questions:
 - i. How did colonial rule differ in both countries?
 - ii. What were the goals of the nationalist movements?
 - iii. What were the methods of resistance?
 - iv. What role did the colonial powers (Britain and France) play in shaping the resistance?
 - v. How did the people respond in each country?
 - d. Under each branch, add bullet points, images, or short notes from your search and discussion.
 - e. Answer these three questions in your individual notebook:
 - i. What is one thing you learned about Nigeria's independence struggle?
 - ii. What surprised you about Algeria's use of violence?
9. **Individual Assignment:** Essay on why Nigeria's path to independence was mostly peaceful while Algeria's struggle turned violent.
 - a. Go through the mind map your group created during the lesson.
 - b. Re-read the comparison chart of Algeria and Nigeria's nationalist leaders.

- c. On a blank page, draw a quick mini mind map with this central question: Why was Nigeria's path to independence mostly peaceful while Algeria's was violent?
- d. Write down 2–3 key points under each branch using what you already know.

Write the following essay

What are the main reasons for the difference between Nigeria's and Algeria's paths to independence?	

CASE STUDIES OF INDEPENDENCE STRUGGLE IN AFRICA (KENYA IN 1963 AND SOUTH AFRICA IN 1994)

Nature of Independence Struggle in Kenya (1963)

British colonisation of Kenya began officially in 1895 (as the British East Africa Protectorate) and later became a colony in 1920. The British seized large tracts of fertile land, especially in the central highlands, and designated them as the “*White Highlands*”, displacing local communities, including the Kikuyu.

Several factors influenced the nature of the independence struggle in Kenya. These included:

1. **Armed Resistance:** For example, the Mau Mau Uprising (1952-1960) was formed out of frustrations with peaceful negotiations for land and rights. Though the armed resistance failed militarily, it succeeded in undermining colonial authority and drawing international attention to Kenyan grievances.
2. **The Formation of Political Parties:** Political parties, such as the Kenya African National Union (KANU), Kenya African Democratic Union

(KADU), and Nairobi People's Convention Party (NPC), were formed to push the struggle for independence.

3. **Cultural and Religious Resistance:** The British promoted English and discouraged local languages. They often would impose Christianity and label traditional religions as “pagan” or “violent.” In deviance, Kenyans maintained their culture through the use and teaching of their customs and religions.
4. **Role of Educated Elites.** The educated elite were often invited to negotiate with the British on constitutional reforms. For example, Jomo Kenyatta represented Kenyan interests at the Lancaster House Conferences in London.
5. **Mass involvement of people:** There were mass mobilisations and protests through public meetings, rallies, and media outlets such as newspapers.

Leading Figures in Kenya's Struggle for Independence

The following were the leading nationalists for the struggle for independence in Kenya.

- a. Jomo Kenyatta
- b. Dedan Kimathi
- c. Tom Mboya
- d. Oginga Odinga
- e. Harry Thuku
- f. Meiktili wa Menza

Nature of Independence Struggle in South Africa (1994)

South Africa was ruled by various colonial powers, mainly the Dutch (1652-1795) and later the British (Cape Colony in 1806, entire South African territory from 1902-1910) and finally European settlers (1910-1994). Before European arrival, South Africa was inhabited by various indigenous peoples: San and Khoikhoi (Khoisan) and the Bantu-speaking groups who migrated from central Africa (for example, the Zulu, Xhosa, Tswana, Sotho).

The independence struggle in South Africa was a complex and multifaceted process, deeply rooted in the fight against colonialism, racial segregation, and apartheid. It spanned decades and involved various forms of resistance, from peaceful protests to armed struggle. Here is an overview of its nature.

1. **Peaceful resistance and political mobilisation:** Early nationalist movement, including;
 - a. **African National Congress (ANC):** This was formed to unite the South African people and used legal and constitutional channels to seek reforms.
 - b. **Natal Indian Congress (NIC)** represented Indian merchants and professionals against discriminatory laws.
2. **Mass protests and civil disobedience:** For example, the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) mobilised workers to support mass strikes when Nelson Mandela was imprisoned. The Defiance Campaign (1952), Freedom Charter (1955) and others organised civil disobedience to fight colonialism.
3. **Armed struggle:** After the Sharpeville Massacre (1960), where 69 unarmed protesters were killed by police, many activists lost faith in non-violent methods. Coupled with this, the apartheid state banned liberation movements and imprisoned or exiled leaders. The result was the formation of armed liberation movements. Thus, South West Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO), Azanian People's Liberation Army (APLA) and Umkhonto we Sizwe (MK).
4. **International solidarity and pressure:** The diplomatic allies, including the Soviet Union, Cuba, China, and independent African countries, offered solidarity and support to South Africa. The United Nations also condemned the apartheid system and supported sanctions and arms embargoes.
5. **Youth and grassroots movements (Soweto uprising of 1976):** This uprising was a series of demonstrations and protests led by Black schoolchildren in South Africa against the introduction of Afrikaans, the coloniser's language, as the language of instruction in Black schools.
6. **The African National Congress (ANC), Pan Africanist Congress (PAC),** and other liberation movements were key forces fighting against apartheid, both domestically and in exile. **Nelson Mandela**, a key ANC leader, was imprisoned in 1962, becoming the global face of the anti-apartheid struggle.
7. **Negotiations for the transition of power to black South Africans:** There was a Joint negotiation between the apartheid government and various political groups in South Africa. The aim was to end white minority rule, establish universal suffrage and protect minority rights. These led to the official end of apartheid, the drafting of a new constitution, and the establishment of a non-racial democracy in South Africa in 1994.

Leading Figures in the Struggle Against Apartheid in South Africa

- a. Nelson Mandela
- b. Oliver Tambo
- c. Walter Sisulu
- d. Steve Biko
- e. Albertina Sisulu
- f. Desmond Tutu
- g. Chris Hani

Note

Before the anti-apartheid movement, Afrikaners fought relentlessly for the independence of South Africa from British rule for many years. Some important earlier Afrikaner leaders connected to resistance against British control and the development of Afrikaner nationalism include:

- a. *Paul Kruger: Leader of the Transvaal (South African Republic) and a central figure in resisting British imperial expansion before and during the Second Boer War.*
- b. *Marthinus Wessel Pretorius: Played a major role in establishing the Transvaal Republic and promoting Afrikaner self-government.*
- c. *Andries Pretorius: A leading Voortrekker commander associated with Afrikaner migration inland during the Great Trek and resistance to British authority in the Cape Colony.*
- d. *Piet Retief: Early Afrikaner nationalist figure and leader during the Great Trek.*
- e. *Louis Botha: Boer military commander during the Boer War who later became the first Prime Minister of the Union of South Africa in 1910.*
- f. *Jan Smuts: Boer general and later international statesman who played a key role in South African politics after the Boer Wars.*
- g. *J. B. M. Hertzog: Strong advocate for Afrikaner nationalism and greater independence from Britain; promoted South Africa's sovereignty within the British Commonwealth.*

Activity 7.8 Comparing the independence struggle in Kenya and South Africa

1. Work in a small group to gather historical information and create a presentation on colonial resistance in Kenya and South Africa.

TASK 1: Creating a Presentation on Kenyan Colonial Resistance

- a. Use your textbooks and other sources to search
 - i. British Colonial Policies in Kenya
 - Settler farming
 - Land alienation & the “White Highlands”
 - Forced labour
 - Taxes
 - Racial segregation
 - Political exclusion
 - ii. Reactions & Resistance Methods
 - Mau Mau Uprising
 - Petitions and protests
 - Political parties (e.g., Kenya African Union)
 - Role of women and youth
 - Use of armed vs non-violent resistance
 - iii. Primary Sources to Look For
 - Quotes from leaders like Jomo Kenyatta
 - Colonial proclamations or images
 - Newspaper reports or freedom movement posters
- b. Create your group presentation
- c. You can choose any of the following formats
 - i. Poster with visuals, text, and diagrams
 - ii. Slide presentation (PowerPoint, Google Slides, etc.)
 - iii. Mini drama or short video re-enacting resistance
 - iv. News-style report (scripted group reading or recording)

TASK 2: Designing a chronological timeline of South Africa's independence

1. Find at least 10 key events in the struggle for independence or freedom in South Africa from 1910 to 1994. Some examples include:
 - a. 1912: Formation of the African National Congress (ANC)
 - b. 1948: Apartheid officially starts
 - c. 1952: Defiance Campaign
 - d. 1960: Sharpeville Massacre
 - e. 1964: Mandela was imprisoned
 - f. 1976: Soweto Uprising
 - g. 1990: Mandela was released
 - h. 1994: First democratic elections
2. For each event, include:
 - a. Date
 - b. Short description (1–2 sentences) explaining why the event was important (its effect or significance).
3. In your individual notebook, answer the following:
 - a. What did you learn about how colonial policies shaped resistance?
 - b. How did resistance in Kenya and South Africa differ?
 - c. What kind of resistance do you think was more effective, and why?
4. Comparing the contributions of independence leaders in Kenya and South Africa through chart creation.
5. Pair up with one classmate.
6. From your study materials or the list below, choose one leader from Kenya and one leader from South Africa:

Leader from Kenya	Leader from South Africa
Jomo Kenyatta	Nelson Mandela
Dedan Kimathi	Albert Luthuli
Tom Moby	Oliver Tambo

- a. Use your textbook or any reliable source to find information about each leader.
- b. For each leader, find answers to:

- i. Full name and nationality
 - ii. Time period of involvement in the independence struggle
 - iii. Main form of resistance used (e.g., political, armed struggle, civil disobedience)
 - iv. Key contributions to the movement
 - v. Major challenges they faced
 - vi. Impact of their actions on independence
 - vii. Quotes (if available) or speeches that reflect their views
- c. On an A3 or A4 sheet, draw a two-column chart like this:

Category	Leader from Kenya	Leader from South Africa
Name		
Country	Kenya	South Africa
Period of Involvement		
Main Method of Resistance		
Key Contributions		
Challenges Faced		
Legacy/Impact on Independence		
Famous quote		

7. Together, think and discuss the following questions:
- a. What similarities do you see between the two leaders?
 - b. What are the key differences in their approaches or challenges?
 - c. How did the colonial context of Kenya differ from that of South Africa?
8. Write 3–5 sentences in your notebook summarising your comparison.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Discuss five roles played by the African-owned presses and newspapers in the struggle for independence in Africa.
2. Discuss the conditions that led to African resistance to colonial rule.
3. Analyse the nature of African resistance against colonial rule after World War II (WWII).
4. Examine how the socio-economic policies of colonial rule sparked nationalism in Africa.

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GLOSSARY

Abolition: Means to officially end or stop something completely.

Africanisation: The process of making something more African, such as culture, government, or names. This often meant replacing colonial ways with African practices and putting Africans in charge.

Alliance: A friendship or agreement between countries or groups to support each other.

Animism: A belief that plants, animals, rivers, trees, and other natural things have spirits or magical life.

Ancestral Veneration: Honouring and respecting elderly relatives who have passed away, believing they protect and guide living family members.

Authenticity: The quality of a source being real and original for the writing of history.

Autonomy: Being able to govern oneself without outside control (self-rule).

Berlin Conference: The meeting of European powers in 1884–1885 to formalise the partition of Africa.

Berbers: Indigenous North African people who acted as guides and traders in the Trans-Saharan network.

Capitalism: An economic system where individuals or private companies own and control businesses, land, and industries rather than the state, with the goal of making profit through free market competition.

Cash Crops: Agricultural products grown for export rather than local use.

Civilisation: Refers to an advanced stage of human society.

Colonialism: The practice of acquiring and controlling territories by a foreign power for economic gain, political dominance, or settlement.

Colony: A territory controlled and ruled by a foreign country.

Contextualisation: In history, the process of understanding a historical event by considering the specific circumstances, conditions, and perspectives that shaped the event or source.

Corroboration: In history, the act of comparing two or more sources to find out their convergence or divergence.

Descent: One's lineage or ancestry; the origin of a person's family.

Diaspora: The movement or scattering of people away from their original homeland to other parts of the world.

Diplomacy: The art of managing relations or solving problems between countries without fighting, often through talking or agreements.

Discrimination: Unfair or unequal treatment of individuals or groups based on characteristics such as race, gender, religion, or nationality.

Diviner: A person believed to have spiritual power to find hidden causes of problems like illness, bad luck, or family disagreements by speaking to spirits.

Embezzlement: When someone illegally takes money they have been trusted to look after.

Fossil: The hardened remains of a dead organism.

Ghana Empire: One of the earliest West African empires enriched by trans-Saharan trade.

History-Makers Chart: A visual representation, often a chart or timeline, used to track and understand the impact of individuals, groups, or events on history.

Mali Empire: A powerful West African empire that dominated trade routes and Islamic learning.

Mansa Musa: A wealthy emperor of Mali known for his pilgrimage to Mecca and promotion of Islamic learning.

Mithqal: A unit of weight used in trade, especially for gold.

Mitochondria: An organelle found in the cells of most eukaryotes, such as animals, plants, and fungi.

Mythology: The collection of traditional stories, often featuring deities, heroes, and supernatural events, which explain a culture's origins, natural phenomena, and fundamental beliefs.

Oases: Fertile areas in the desert where water is found and used as stopovers for caravans.

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Pan-Africanism: A movement promoting unity and solidarity among African people worldwide to work for their political and economic progress.

Primitive: Describes something as simple, basic, or not yet advanced, often unfairly used to compare cultures.

Quakers: Also known as the Religious Society of Friends, a Christian group that strongly opposed slavery and campaigned for the abolition of the slave trade in Britain and America.

Racism: The belief that some races are naturally superior or inferior to others.

Rebellion: When a group of people rise and fight against a ruler or government that they consider unfair.

Remuneration: Payment or compensation received for work or services done.

Rock-Hewn: Made by cutting or carving into solid rock to create a structure.

Sahara Desert: The vast desert in North Africa that traders crossed in caravans during the Trans-Saharan Trade.

Slavery: A system in which people are treated as property and forced to work without pay or freedom.

Songhai Empire: The largest of the three Western Sudanese empires, which controlled trade until its fall in the 16th century.

Steamships: Ships powered by steam engines instead of sails, making travel faster during the age of European expansion.

Stono Rebellion: Also known as Cato's Rebellion, a significant slave uprising that occurred on 9th September 1739 near the Stono River in South Carolina, USA.

Suez Canal: A man-made waterway in Egypt connecting the Mediterranean Sea to the Red Sea, creating a shortcut route between Europe and Asia.

Syncretism: The blending of different religions or beliefs together, such as traditional African religion mixed with Christianity or Islam.

The Middle Passage: The journey across the Atlantic Ocean from Africa to the Americas during the slave trade.

Timbuktu: A key trade and intellectual city in Mali and Songhai, known for Islamic learning and book trade.

Treaty: A formal agreement between countries made to keep peace or arrange cooperation.

Treaty of Versailles: A treaty signed in 1919 ending World War I and imposing heavy penalties on Germany.

Tuareg: A nomadic Berber group known for guiding caravans across the central Sahara.

This book is intended to be used for the Year Three History Senior High School (SHS) Curriculum. It contains information and activities to support teachers to deliver the curriculum in the classroom as well as additional exercises to support learners' selfstudy and revision. Learners can use the review questions to assess their understanding and explore concepts and additional content in their own time using the extended reading list provided.

All materials can be accessed electronically from the Ministry of Education's Curriculum Microsite.



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