



# **MARKSCHEME**

**May 1999**

**HISTORY - AFRICA**

**Higher Level**

**Paper 3**

## **Paper 3 mark bands**

The method of assessment used by the IBO is criterion-referenced and not norm-referenced. That is to say that candidates are judged by their performance in relation to the identified assessment criteria and not in relation to the rest of the population being assessed.

The mark bands concentrate on positive achievement.

### **mark band 19-20**

It is not expected that an essay in this mark band would be a 'perfect' answer but it should be directly focused and show a depth of historical understanding. There is likely to be evidence of wide reading. In addition, the candidate's answer will demonstrate **one** of the following: a highly developed awareness of historiographical issues, a high level of conceptual ability, or a successful challenge to the assumptions implied in the question.

### **mark band 17-18**

The specific question is answered in a direct and focused manner. There is likely to be evidence of reading which has been effectively used in the answer. There may be an appreciation of historiographical issues. Arguments and concepts will be well developed.

### **mark band 14-16**

The question is effectively and relevantly addressed and the answer is supported by accurate knowledge. The answer demonstrates a consistent level of analytical ability, although not all aspects of the issues have necessarily been addressed.

### **mark band 11-13**

The knowledge shown is generally accurate, relevant and adequate to support a sound answer. The candidate's analysis is not fully developed.

### **mark band 8-10**

The answer is mainly descriptive or in narrative form and has some explicit or implicit relevance, or is made relevant by its conclusion. Alternatively, there is a coherent argument based on barely sufficient material.

### **mark band 6-7**

The question is only partially addressed and there is a limited demonstration of appropriate skills. There is a limited degree of accurate and relevant knowledge.

### **mark band 4-5**

The knowledge shown is limited, often inaccurate and of marginal relevance to the question. The question is not addressed effectively and there is very little evidence of appropriate skills.

### **mark band 1-3**

There is very little relevant knowledge and little or no understanding of the question. The candidate's answer is no more than a collection of isolated facts or generalisations bearing little relation to each other or the question. There is no evidence of appropriate skills.

### **mark band 0**

If a candidate does not achieve the standard described by mark band 1-3 then 0 should be recorded.

## Notes on Individual Questions

**These notes must be read in conjunction with the current mark bands.**

### 1. Why was the slave trade largely eradicated in Africa between 1800 and 1900?

The question is open-ended but cannot be answered satisfactorily without reference to both the trans-Atlantic slave trade and the slave trade from East Africa.

The campaign for the abolition of the slave trade started in Europe partly on humanitarian grounds and was spearheaded by Britain after parliamentary debates led by William Wilberforce. The humanitarian factor was important in moving people to take steps to stop the slave trade and abolish slavery. But the success of these measures depended on economic factors. The slave trade was more important for the mercantilist British economy in the eighteenth century than for the industrial economy of the nineteenth century when Britain required the raw materials and markets of Africa more than the sugar plantations of the West Indies.

The eradication of the slave trade depended on the willingness of other European countries to make laws prohibiting the slave trade and to sign bilateral treaties so that the navies of each country had the right to search and seize the merchant ships of the other nations if they were caught in the slave trade. France agreed to stop the trade in the 1830s. In 1845 Britain signed a treaty with Portugal and Brazil, giving them the right to stop Brazilian slave-ships. The Americans abolished slavery during the Civil War (1861 to 1865) and the Spanish rulers of Cuba ended slave imports in 1866. The implementation of these measures brought an effective end to the Atlantic slave trade.

Although Britain signed agreements with Sultan Seyyid Said in 1822 and 1845 limiting the slave trade the slave trade grew in East Africa throughout his reign from 1804 to 1856. It took threats of naval blockade by the British in the 1870s to end the Zanzibar-based slave trade.

Answers which generalise about economic and humanitarian factors and anti-slavery laws without making specific reference to the slave trade in East or West Africa would not merit more than 8 marks. Answers which refer to only one region should be marked out of 12. To score 14 and above answers must show specific knowledge of when and why the slave trade was eradicated in East as well as West Africa. Answers in the top two mark bands will show an awareness that there was a slave trade within Africa which took even longer to end. The prosperity of many people in East and West Africa was based on the trade and Dahomey, for example, expanded to secure more palm-oil producing territory and more slaves to work in palm-oil plantations. It was only when colonial rule was established in the last two decades of the nineteenth century that the internal slave trade largely disappeared.

**2. Compare and contrast the appeal of Islam and Christianity to Africans between 1750 and 1920.**

The answer is open-ended but the evidence used is likely to come from West and East Africa. The best answers will look at the similarity and difference in appeal point by point, rather than write two separate sections, one on Islam and one on Christianity, and then make a token comparison/contrast.

Islam had the advantage of being a long established religion in parts of North and East Africa. Both religions could fill a vacuum and provide stability at a time of rapid change and breakdown of traditional African societies. Both Christian and Islamic religious leaders might have charismatic appeal. Islam found it easier to accommodate traditional African customs like polygamy, and was a simpler religion to understand and accept. Most Islamic missionaries were themselves Africans, though in the late nineteenth century there were also African-led Christian churches. Christian missionaries, however, often had a readier appeal because of the educational and medical skills and facilities that they had to offer. Once partition had increased in momentum, Islam had the appeal for some Africans of not having links to the colonialists.

In Buganda, the appeal of Christian missionaries was initially strengthened by their access to influential people in the Kabaka's court. Mutesa called in European Christian missionaries as a counter-weight to a perceived Muslim threat from the north. There was a conversion from above. In other parts of Africa, however, Christianity had more initial appeal to those who were marginalised in traditional societies. In part of West Africa the migration of Muslim workers influenced traditional believers (e.g. Mossi Muslim workers in the northern Gold Coast and Wolof Muslim groundnut farmers in Senegal influenced traditional workers in both areas).

Vague generalisations about the appeal of the two religions would not merit more than eight marks. Narrative accounts of the spread of the two religions which do not focus on their appeal would also be unsatisfactory. To merit 14 and above, essays should clearly compare and contrast the appeal of Islam and Christianity with supporting evidence from such areas as the Sudan, Zanzibar, the Jihadist states and Mandinka Empire in West Africa, and to the appeal of Christianity in Buganda, Malawi, the Niger Delta, Lesotho or Botswana.

**3. Assess the strengths and weaknesses as a ruler of *either* Mohammad Ali in Egypt or Tewodros II in Ethiopia.**

This is a straightforward question which is likely to be answered relevantly but in varying degrees of depth. The efforts made by either ruler to modernise his country are likely to be seen as a strength. Answers on Mohammad Ali, for example, might commend his efforts to industrialise and to develop a cash economy for agriculture, his encouragement of education and the acquisition of scientific knowledge especially in engineering and medicine, the growth of urbanisation and the modernisation of the army. Answers on Tewodros could refer to his reassertion of imperial authority, his reorganisation of the army, his efforts to unify the country, his social and economic reforms and his attempts to reduce the number of clergy and their landholding.

There is scope for interesting discussion of how far the difficulties faced by both Mohammad Ali and Tewodros in their relationship with foreign powers, difficulties which had damaging, and in Tewodros' case, ultimately disastrous consequences were of their own making or were due to external pressures they could not control. There is likely to be comment on the weakness of character of Tewodros and how badly he reacted to reverses including the death of his beloved wife. He was liable to fits of such violence and paranoia that some have considered him insane. But it is still possible to take a sympathetic view of his reign, despite its tragic end in suicide, and to recognise how his vision of a united Ethiopia under imperial rule inspired his successors.

More perceptive assessments of Mohammed Ali may be aware that his modernisation came at a price, a price paid by the women in full Muslim dress who sweltered in the new factories or the fellahin who mutilated themselves and fled to the hills or out of the country to escape conscription.

To merit 14+, essays must have a reasonable balance between strengths and weaknesses even if there is more emphasis on strengths. Answers which merely list achievements or answer a different question on modernisation would hardly reach 10 marks.

**4. Explain the changing fortunes of the Ndebele peoples under the leadership of Mzilakazi and Lobengula.**

The Ndebele state was founded by Mzilakazi, who succeeded his father in 1818 as ruler of the Khumalo chiefdom under Zwide. With the defeat of Zwide by Shaka, the Zulu leader, Mzilakazi transferred his allegiance to him. He eventually quarrelled with Shaka and fled the region with his people. He settled in an area inhabited by the Sotho people and established a rich and powerful Ndebele state into which he incorporated many Sotho communities. Mzilakazi was seriously threatened by powerful enemies and marauders, and this made him move his capital several times until he eventually settled at Bulawayo (Zimbabwe). He incorporated several other groups into his kingdom and had to fight several defensive and offensive wars until about 1850. He had opened up his state to European missionaries and traders before his death in 1868.

The Ndebele kingdom was a military state which revolved around the king who had an effective political and military organisation which helps to explain Mzilakazi's success. Under Lobengula, the Ndebele state was threatened by the ambitions of European imperialists and

concession seekers. Lobengula's aim was to save his kingdom from being violently overrun by white people. He failed both because he was not an absolute ruler and because he was deceived by Rhodes and his agents into granting the disastrous Rudd Concession in 1888. Jameson's invasion of Matabeleland incited Lobengula to armed resistance. The Ndebele were defeated but Lobengula was neither killed nor captured before his death in 1894. This low point in the fortunes of the Ndebele can be explained in terms of the determination of Rhodes, the geographical position of Matabeleland and the unwillingness of a military people like the Ndebele to surrender their independence without fighting.

The question lends itself to a narrative approach, but to score above 10 marks the answer should include comment that shows an awareness of the changing fortunes of the Ndebele. There should be a roughly equal balance between the two rulers but while marking as a whole allow for a 12:8 division where one of them is covered in greater depth. Answers meriting 14 marks and above will focus on changing fortunes and seek to analyse the reasons for them.

**5. Why did *either* Asante *or* the Sokoto Caliphate become one of the leading powers in West Africa by 1850 ?**

The Asante empire which was founded in the eighteenth century with its nucleus around Kumasi evolved a highly integrated political system whose political and spiritual unity was symbolised by the institution of the Golden Stool. At the centre of the empire were the groups associated with the Oyoko clan of Kumasi who evolved a centralised monarchical system. Neighbouring Akan kingdoms as well as northern kingdoms such as Geriya and Dagomba were incorporated into the empire. As Asantehene the king of Kumasi exercised authority over the whole empire. The calibre of the rulers was a factor in the rise of the empire. Asantehene Osei Bonsu (1801-24) led a vigorous push to the coast to consolidate control of the economy against the resistance of the coastal regions.

The empire came to wield tremendous economic and political power over the dependent kingdoms of the north and the autonomous Fante chiefdoms and other states on the coast. At the heart of the empire the central Asante chiefdoms were united under the authority of the Asantehene by the same language and culture, a network of kinship ties, a century of common military activities and pride in their achievements.

The Sokoto caliphate with its many emirates was created as a result of the jihad of Usman dan Fodio. When he died in 1817, there was no other popular government that could rival the new administration. The task was to extend the administration of the caliphate to rural areas. The source of authority in the state was Islamic law, and administrators were accountable to the Muslim community. In 1817 the lands of the caliphate were divided. Usman's son Muhammad Bello became the new caliph and centre of political authority, and controlled the rich eastern emirates on whose revenues the caliphate depended.

The Sokoto caliphate's greatness depended above all on the unity of purpose of its Muslim rulers and administrators and not on a centralised system of government. The other emirs were former fellow students of the caliph and related to him as equals with a considerable degree of autonomy. The caliph depended on the emirs for revenue provided in the form of gifts, taxes and tributes. In carrying out his duties the caliph depended on his immediate relatives, household staff, former fellow Jihadists, the leaders of the local Fulbe clans and the families of his father's old community who formed the scholar class.

The caliphate did not maintain a standing army. The army was recruited on an ad hoc basis and armed with spears, bows, and swords, with some soldiers mounted on horses and camels. Diplomacy was an important aspect of policy and correspondence was exchanged with Morocco, Tripoli and Britain. Apart from diplomacy and warfare, the commonest tool in inter-state relations were economic policies such as trade embargoes, and these in fact proved more effective than warfare.

A profound religious unity kept the caliphate together and made it one of the leading powers in West Africa in the first half of the nineteenth century. The caliph depended on the goodwill of the emirates, especially Kano and Zaria which were indispensable to his finances and not on military coercion.

Narrative answers which cover the main events in the caliphate or the Asante empire could score up to 10 marks or up to 13 if some comment and analysis is included. Answers meriting 14 and above will focus directly on the political, economic, religious and social factors which contributed to the strength of either the Asante empire or the caliphate.

**6. Account for the widespread movement of peoples in South Africa before 1850.**

Some candidates may treat this question as a chance to write only on the Great Trek and their answers would be unlikely to score 8 marks. Others may limit themselves to the Mfecane and omit any reference to the Great Trek. Such answers, unless they are exceptionally well documented, will not reach the 11-13 mark band. The words 'widespread movement of peoples' clearly invite a more extensive treatment with reference to the Voortrekker movement as well as the Mfecane. There should, therefore, be an explanation of the grievances which prompted the Great Trek and an analysis of the long and short term causes of tension between the Boers and British administrators and missionaries in the Cape.

The causes of the Mfecane included the pressures of population growth and soil exhaustion, leading to competition for land. The introduction by Dingiswayo of military reform which were continued and perfected by Shaka made the whole movement more intense. Recent research, however, insists that there were other causes, and in particular rivalry and competition over the growing opportunities for valuable trade at the coast. The causes should be analysed with reference to specific peoples who moved in this period but note that the question is limited to South Africa and reference to the movement of peoples as far as Zimbabwe and Tanzania would be irrelevant. To reach the top band candidates should be aware of the historical debate over the origins of the Mfecane.

**7. What part did rivalry between the European powers play in the partition of Africa?**

The key word is rivalry which must be the focus of essays awarded 14+. Answers which give a general explanation for the partition of Africa should be awarded a maximum of 8 to 9 marks.

National prestige was a powerful factor in European imperialism. France and Britain were established colonial powers and nationalists in the new nation-states of Germany and Italy felt that their own countries could increase their status and influence in international affairs by acquiring colonies in Africa.

King Leopold's activities in the Congo, De Brazza's treaty with Makoko, Gladstone's occupation of Egypt and Bismarck's sudden declaration of German protectorates all contributed to a flare-up of international rivalry in Africa. The best candidates will show knowledge of the debate over the impact of the British occupation of Egypt. Some historians have contended that it was the trigger that began an unintended chain reaction that resulted in the partition of Africa among the European great powers. Other historians point out that the French decision to advance in West Africa was made ahead of the British invasion of Egypt. French and Italian rivalries in North Africa, for example over Tunisia, and new German ambitions cannot be related to it. In southern Africa developments were too complex to be linked solely to the route to India.

Candidates who are familiar with this debate and are ready to challenge the assumption of the question and downplay the significance of European rivalry could reach the top mark band.

Reference should be made to the Berlin West Africa conference summoned by Bismarck partly out of concern that rivalry over Africa might lead to a European war. The treaty produced by the conference stated that powers had to prove 'effective occupation' and inform their rivals before annexing territory. This doctrine was a powerful stimulus to actual European invasion on the ground to make good the claims of spheres of influence on maps.

**8. Explain the origins, and assess the impact, of the African Independent Church movement before 1930.**

This is a two-part question. There is likely to be more coverage of the origins than of the impact, but some assessment of the latter is necessary for 14+ marks.

It is an open-ended question which does not specify the number of independent churches to be referred to, but answers which generalise about origins and impact would hardly score ten marks.

Independent churches often originated from a desire to escape western domination. The first generation of converts were often in close contact with missionaries but the second generation was not. They expected to be the teachers and church leaders who would Christianise their society, but European missionaries were reluctant to Africanise the priesthood, let alone the episcopate. Missionaries socialised less and less with their flocks and were generally reluctant to voice African grievances against colonial rule. In the view of some African Christians, there was no difference between a missionary and a settler or a colonial official in their attitude to African aspirations.

The issue of leadership was the major cause of the earliest schisms from the missions. Candidates should, however, be aware of the variety of specific reasons which motivated people to set up independent churches in so many parts of Africa, whether in Nigeria, Liberia or Cameroon, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Mozambique, the Congo or South Africa. In Malawi, the growth of independent churches was fuelled by typical grievances, land alienation, hut tax and forced labour, as well as slow African involvement in European-dominated churches.

It is more difficult to assess the impact of the independent churches than to explain their origins. Some churches, like that of John Chilembwe, aroused nationalist feelings and had a political impact. Some depended on one charismatic leader and hardly survived his death. Several, like the African Baptist Church in Nigeria, placed great emphasis on African education. Some churches attracted few adherents whereas the Liberian evangelist, Wade Harris, who went to the Ivory Coast soon made over 60,000 converts.

Answers which merely list independent churches and their leaders would not score more than 8 marks. Answers which are thin on impact but have specific, accurate explanations of the origins of several independent churches could reach 12 marks. Go up from 14 marks for those who cover both parts depending on the depth of coverage.

**9. What part was played by traders, missionaries and explorers in the spread of European influence and rule in *either East or West or Central Africa* ?**

It is not necessary to treat the three activities separately as missionaries might be explorers and even traders. The question limits the candidate to one region of Africa. Narrative accounts of exploration or the establishment of missions would not be satisfactory. To score 12 and above, answers must clearly link the activity of traders and missionaries to the spread of European influence and rule in the region chosen.

European traders in Africa like Goldie and McKinnon exerted pressure on their governments to colonise, as did explorers like the German Karl Peters and the British Harry Johnston who wrote enthusiastically about the opportunities for white settlement in the healthy uplands of East Africa. Rhodes' commercial enterprises gave him a passionate interest in the extension of British rule.

The missions were very important in propagating imperial ideas. European mission societies became convinced of their divine mission to convert the world. Notable missionaries became heroes, and books by them or about them became best sellers as did those of explorers. Missionaries usually encouraged the establishment of European rule in Africa. They wanted their governments to facilitate evangelization by stopping wars between African states, ending the slave trade in the interior, destroying the authority of traditionalist rulers like Jaja and Nana and protecting them from attacks by Muslims in places like Malawi and Uganda.

Because the question is limited to one region, the question could prove difficult. Credit generously those who make specific reference to explorers, traders and missionaries and link them to the spread of European influence and rule.

**10. Explain the success or failure of the attempts by any *one* of the peoples of North or East Africa to resist threats to their independence before 1914.**

Only one attempt to resist is required and it must be analysed in depth. Menelik's victory at Adowa could be a popular choice, but there must be a clear explanation of the factors which contributed to his remarkable success and the defeat of the Italians. Reference should be made to the diplomatic initiatives after Adowa which secured recognition of Ethiopian independence.

The activities of Colonel Urabi in Egypt (1880 to 1882), the resistance to the British in the Sudan of Khalifa Abdullah, the Maji Maji and Hehe risings, the resistance of the Banyoro and the Nandi in East Africa are all relevant examples.

Narrative answers are unlikely to reach 10 marks. Essays in the top two mark bands will have a more subtle analysis of success or failure. Almost all African attempts at resistance could not match superior European weaponry but some of them can be seen as successful in their prolonged challenge to colonial rule. No more than six thousand Nandi armed only with spears resisted the British empire for eleven years.

**11. How and why did most of West Africa fall under colonial rule by 1906?**

This question is about West Africa and a general explanation of the factors which contributed to the partition of Africa would not be satisfactory. Answers must focus on the particular reasons for the extension of European-controlled territory in West Africa.

Before the partition, the role of men on the spot, administrators of various forts and colonies in West Africa, was important. They often argued with colonial offices in London and Paris that extensions of territory would make small colonies more sufficient and that extending territory into the hinterland would lead to the suppression of strife and the freeing of trade routes. European administrators also became involved in supporting traditional rulers. Traders, governors and administrators also reacted aggressively if they thought a rival power might threaten their commercial interests by establishing a neighbouring sphere of influence.

These pressures were building up in the decades before the Scramble and led to several extensions of territory. In the 1870s, after the humiliation of the Franco-Prussian War and the loss of Alsace Lorraine, a colonial party developed in France which encouraged the notion of a vast West African empire linking Algeria to the western Sudan. Meanwhile the British businessman George Goldie succeeded in uniting all British interests in the Niger into the United Africa Company. It became the main vehicle of British imperialism in the Niger region through its acquisition in 1886 of a charter to trade and govern there. In 1883 the French proclaimed a protectorate over Porto Novo. An unexpected element was added to the Franco-British rivalry when the German explorer Nachtigal began collecting treaties in West Africa and German protectorates were declared over Togo and the Cameroons.

Bismarck called a conference in Berlin in 1884 which had the effect of accelerating the process of African treaty-making at an even faster pace. The British declared a protectorate in the hinterland. France expanded from Senegal and established herself on the Ivory Coast and in Dahomey. In a rapid sequence of developments, commercial coastal spheres were turned into inland colonies, African states were conquered, and boundary negotiations effected.

Candidates are likely to treat the 'how' and 'why' of the partition process together, but should be aware of the role of the treaty-makers, chartered companies, local administrators and of the factors including the Berlin West Africa Conference which accelerated the extension of administration in West Africa. Candidates who ignore the 'how' but explain why with sustained analysis could score up to 13 marks. Award 14+ for essays which cover both parts of the question and contain consistent analysis supported by relevant and accurate knowledge.

**12. How important was the Chilembwe Rising of 1915 as ‘a protest against an increasing disregard of African values’?**

The question provides good candidates with an opportunity to challenge the judgement of the quotation. Chilembwe, a Yao from Chiradzulu in Malawi, was a student at the Blantyre Mission of the Church of Scotland and then became a member of the Baptist church. He was taken to America for theological studies and returned as an ordained minister in 1900. He developed his own independent Baptist mission station and put into practice contemporary black American ideas of black improvement. He built a church and schools, developed a farm and introduced a strict hygiene programme. He banned alcohol and made European clothing compulsory. His revolt against the Nayasaland administration in 1915 was the first example in black Africa of secondary resistance led by a member of the western-educated elite rather than by traditional authorities. John Chilembwe was increasingly aware of the major abuses involved in the colonial economic system in Malawi. Wages for portage for government and trading companies were paid in calico, and there was child labour and a lack of night shelter. There was some compulsory recruitment of Malawian men for the Rand mines. Africans who had leased land to European coffee planters became serfs on their own land and were made to work in the plantations at the very time when village farms growing food crops needed most attention. Government taxes were collected with increasing rigour.

Chilembwe regarded these practices as un-Christian and was outraged by the lack of action by either government or settlers to alleviate the distress caused by the famine of 1913. The last straw for him was the recruitment of Africans into the British army. He campaigned against it, seeing no reason why Africans should die in a white man’s war. The government attempted to arrest him and he and his followers at the mission station rose in response.

Chilembwe hoped not to restore traditional African communities, but to build an inter-ethnic modern African state with the help of Europeans prepared to accept African leadership. His risings attracted little support and he was shot while attempting to escape.

The quotation is unsatisfactory as an explanation of the rising in that it suggests that Chilembwe was a traditional leader. It would be more accurate if the word ‘rights’ was substituted for ‘values’ but that would still not do full justice to the nature of the rising. An answer which largely consists of a discussion of African grievances could, if sufficiently detailed, reach the 11-13 mark band. To merit 14+ marks, essays must relate these grievances to Chilembwe’s own forward looking ideas. Answers which confidently challenge the quotation could reach the top mark band.

13. **With what success did Zulu rulers defend their peoples' interests between 1840 and 1906?**

The question refers to three Zulu rulers, Mpande, Cetshwayo and Dinizulu. Answers which deal with only one ruler would hardly score more than 8 marks and answers which dealt with only two would earn a maximum of 13 marks. Narrative answers which outline the main events of the three reigns would not merit more than 10 marks. To merit 14+, essays must relate an assessment of the three rulers' policies to a judgement of the peoples' interest, a judgement that needs to be supported by convincing arguments.

There is scope for interesting arguments as to whether the policies of the diplomatic, pacific Mpande provided a better defence of the peoples' interests than those of the more assertive Cetshwayo. In judging the different rulers' policies, the best answers will weigh up how far their relative success or failure was due to external factors. The end point of the question is the Zulu rising of 1906, for which Dinizulu was not responsible.

14. **Explain the reasons for, and effects of segregation policies in South Africa *either before or after 1948.***

There are likely to be more answers on the period after 1948 which is better documented. Racialism was already at the base of South Africa's political system, but the highly structured policy of apartheid with its rigid racial segregations came into being after the victory of Dr. Malau's nationalist party in 1948. Candidates who answer on the period after 1948 should be familiar with the major apartheid acts such as the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act, the Immorality Act, the Group Areas Act and the laws relating to the establishment of the so-called Bantu homelands and their effects on the African population. There is scope for a discussion of the failure of the Bantusans which amounted to hardly more than local government under overall white authority.

The question has two parts. It requires an explanation of the reasons for as well as the effects of segregation policies before or after 1948. The first half of the question is more difficult and may be ignored by some candidates. It requires an analysis of the motivation behind the policies of the Herzog governments in the 1920s and 1930s, or those of the Nationalist party governments after 1948. Answers dealing with policies after 1948 could discuss how the 1948 victory of the Nationalist party was a triumph for the Afrikaner nationalism and a reaction against the relatively liberal policies of Smuts and his Minister of Native Affairs who had tried to respond positively to the growing black African militancy of the wartime and post-war periods.

Answers which simply describe segregation policies would reach only 10 marks. Answers with some comment and analysis could reach 13 marks, but to merit 14 marks and above there should be some explanation of the reasons for segregation policies which goes beyond vague generalisations about the protection of white interests.

**15. What were the main features of the colonial economies before 1945?**

This is an open-ended question and the merit of the answer will depend on the range of examples given and the quality of the analysis of the impact of the colonial economies on both Africans and Europeans. Candidates would not be penalised for selecting just two examples if they treat them in sufficient depth.

No generalisation could be satisfactorily used to cover all the colonial economies. Dahomey was subject to rigid state control of production and there was little room for African initiative as producers or entrepreneurs, whereas the economies of Ivory Coast and Nigeria grew in the same pattern of agricultural expansion based on innovation by peasant producers. The Gold Coast economy was a success story for African peasant producers, but also provides a model example of colonial economic exploitation. Senegal's economic history illustrates the danger of a one-crop economy and the limitations of small-scale industrialisation. There are similarities between the Portuguese colonial economies in Angola and Mozambique and striking differences between the British colonial economies in Kenya and Uganda. The mining economies of Liberia, the Congo and Zambia are different again, and provide spectacular examples of the increased economic dependence of African countries on the west and of the heavy exploitation of Africa's resources. The South African economy had no real parallel with any other colonial economy.

The development of African crop farming illustrates how difficult it is to generalise about the colonial economy for Africa as a whole. The cultivation of cotton in Uganda was a success story in contrast to the disastrous programme in German East Africa which led to the Maji Maji Rising. In contrast to other examples of cash crop farming like Nigeria and Senegal, its success depended on careful central government planning rather than independent African initiative.

Vague generalisations about colonial economies would not reach 8 marks. An accurate description of one economy could get up to 10 marks, or of two economies up to 13 marks. Answers meriting 14 marks and above will use a variety of examples to highlight the diversity of features of African economies.

**16. With reference to specific examples, show how and why African nationalist movements were affected by the *two* World Wars.**

The question requires reference to both World Wars but do not expect them to receive equal treatment. By 1914 nationalist movements were beginning to emerge in some parts of Africa which involved the advocacy of political reform and greater racial equality by emergent western educated elites. The hopes raised by the war that these elites would be given greater opportunities socially, politically and economically, were soon frustrated and this led to greater resentment of and agitation against the colonial regimes. This was more evident in West Africa where the earlier spread of education helps to explain why modern types of nationalist organisation developed before they did in east or central Africa.

The Second World War marked the beginning of the end of colonialism in Africa and was a great turning point in the history of the continent. The war brought about a revolution in global politics reducing the two major colonial powers in Africa to the second rank of world powers. The new superpowers, the USA and USSR, had an anti-colonial tradition and put pressure especially through the new United Nations Organisation on the colonial powers to decolonise. They also encouraged African nationalist movements. The war enhanced political consciousness in Africa and made nationalist movements much more militant. It brought thousands of Africans like Bildad Kaggia, who would later be a leader of the Mau Mau in Kenya, into contact with Europeans of all classes including many who did not support colonialism. Returning ex-servicemen were embittered by the slow political advance of colonial territories in the late 1940s, by unemployment after demobilisation, by the drop in their standard of living, and by a feeling that their service had not been rewarded. In Kenya in the late 1940s, ex-soldiers formed a militant organisation out of which grew the Land Freedom Army or Mau Mau.

Vague generalisations about nationalism not related to wars would not reach 8 marks. Valid generalisations related to the war could reach 13 marks, but to merit 14 marks and above essays must refer to both wars and be supported by examples from at least two countries.

**17. To what extent did British policy respond to nationalist demands in any *one* country in North or East Africa before independence ?**

The question offers the candidate a wide selection of British-ruled colonies from which a choice of only one is required. Kenya, Uganda and Tanganyika are the most likely choices, though Egypt and the Sudan are also possible. Britain assumed responsibility for the former Italian colonies of Eritrea and Libya, but rapidly handed over the administration of Eritrea to Ethiopia and with UN approval Libya became independent in 1951. Somalia would be a relevant but unlikely choice.

The nature of the nationalist demands varied in each country, and so did the British response. The decolonization of Tanganyika was more straightforward than that of Kenya, for example, where Britain was subject to different pressures. The situation in Egypt was complex and could prompt an interesting discussion of the meaning of independence. In 1922 Britain felt that its strategic hold on the Middle East was secure enough to end the protectorate over Egypt but independence was on restricted terms. The British High Commissioner retained authority for foreign affairs, defence, the security of the Suez Canal and the protection of the million foreign residents.

In Egypt, Kenya and elsewhere, decolonization was granted in carefully controlled stages, and the British response to nationalist demands varied at different stages in the struggle for independence. One can compare and contrast British responses in Kenya, for example, over a period of more than thirty years.

Essays which narrate the key stages on the path to independence could, with sufficient accurate detail, reach 13 marks. Narratives which make no linkage with nationalist demands might not reach 10 marks. Essays which explain the differing nature of nationalist demands at different stages of the struggle for independence and the changing, gradual nature of the British response would merit 14 marks and above depending on the depth of coverage.

**18. In what ways, and to what extent, did ethnic and regional rivalries in Nigeria hamper progress towards independence?**

This question has two parts, both of which must be addressed for essays to score 14 and above. There must be a clear explanation of the ethnic and regional rivalries and a discussion of the ways in which and the extent to which they hampered progress towards independence. Some answers which may deserve up to 13 marks will tend to ignore the second half of the question and assume that the rivalries must have hampered progress towards independence.

Nigeria contained almost a quarter of Africa's population. The population was large and growing and very diverse. Governing it proved difficult not only for the colonizing British administrations of 1900 but also for the decolonizing Nigerian politicians of 1960. The British had encouraged the spread of Christian education among the Yorubas of the Western Region and Ibos of the Eastern Region. In the north, through a system of indirect rule, the Muslim Hausa emirates had retained their supremacy. British overlordship was exercised by three different sets of officials in the east, west and north. In preparing constitutions for independence, the structure of three regions was retained but a major difficulty concerned the number of seats to give to each of the three regions in a central parliament when no one had been able to conduct a population census that was accepted by all as free and fair. Eventually, a compromise was achieved that gave considerable powers to the prime ministers of the three regions and somewhat limited power to a federal government. The first federal government was a coalition of north and east. The Ibo Azikiwe led the NCNC, strongest in the Eastern Region, and became Governor-General at independence in 1960 and President when the country became a Republic in 1963. His party was in a coalition with the Northern People's Congress led by Balewa and Ahmadu Bello, the Sardauna of Sokoto. The Northern Region had a built-in advantage in having been allocated 174 seats in a House of 320 which was resented in the south.

Nigeria became independent in 1960, only three years later than Ghana and earlier than any British colony or protectorate in east, central or southern Africa. It is, therefore, quite possible to argue that regional and ethnic rivalries, acute as they were, did not considerably delay the achievement of independence.

A perceptive candidate who argued that the rivalries were relatively unimportant in delaying independence but vitally important in post-colonial Nigeria which collapsed in 1966 from its internal stresses, would deserve a mark in the top mark band.

**19. Why was it so difficult to resolve conflicts in Algeria during the period 1954 to 1962?**

The relatively rapid decolonization of Morocco and Tunisia, which became independent in 1956, may have encouraged Algerians to presume that they too could become independent. Algeria however, was constitutionally very different from other countries in Africa. It was administered as though it were three departments of metropolitan France. Economically, the scale of French trade and investment in Algeria matched the economic commitments of France in all its other colonies put together. French financiers and their political associates in Paris were very reluctant to transfer political power in Algeria. There were almost as many French settlers in Algeria as there were British settlers in South Africa and these settlers, known as the  *pieds-noirs*, were mainly small farmers as strongly attached to their adopted homeland as the Afrikaners in South Africa and as fiercely determined to hold on to what they had won.

The Algerian nationalists, previously divided, came together in 1954 to form the National Liberation Front and called on their fellow Algerians to rise. The Algerians were cautious and there was no immediate mass rising, but the French were never able to extinguish the FLN which attracted increasing support from other Arab countries, especially Nasser's Egypt. Before the Algerian war ended, half a million French troops had been committed there. Senior French officers did not want to see a repeat of the humiliation they had suffered at the hands of the Indochinese at Dien-Bien-Phu in 1954. But their failure to solve the Algerian problem was a major factor in bringing down the Fourth Republic in 1958.

The white settlers thought that the new French leader, Général De Gaulle, would bring them a rapid victory. But De Gaulle realised that the new interests of French industry, since the creation of the European Economic Community, outweighed the old interests of the colonial settlers. He also realised that the political influence of the families of reluctant conscripts, anxious to end the war, outweighed the aspirations of a professional army, anxious to compensate for losing Indochina. But danger loomed from the settlers and the army for De Gaulle as he began to negotiate a compromise solution with Algeria's leaders. The settlers took to the barricades in 1960 and senior officers attempted a coup in Algeria in 1961 and formed the Secret Army Organisation (OAS) to oppose any transfer of power. Despite attempts to assassinate him, De Gaulle pressed on and reached a settlement with the Algerian nationalists which was supported in a referendum by over 90% of the war-weary French.

A narrative account of the Algerian war, if sufficiently detailed and accurate, would score up to ten marks. To score 14 and above, essays must explain the unique position of Algeria within the French empire and consistently analyse the factors which prolonged the conflicts in this period.

**20. To what extent were the problems of independent African states the result of the colonial legacy?**

This is a very open question in that candidates can choose their illustrative material from any African countries. The wider the choice, the better the answer is likely to be. Answers using material from the ex-colonies of several European powers are likely to be the most persuasive but an answer confined to Anglophone countries with a sufficient range of illustrations and analysis, could reach the top two mark bands.

Answers must identify the problems facing most African countries: political problems including the suitability or otherwise of European models of democracy, the artificial boundaries left by the colonisers; economic problems such as economies dependent on one or a very few products depending on world market forces, underdevelopment and lack of industrialisation and investment capital; social problems including educational systems that may not be relevant to the needs of the country.

Candidates might be expected to argue that the legacy of colonial rule is not the full explanation. The political inadequacies of many African leaders and governments, widespread corruption, ethnic rivalry and conflict are other causes of the problems or the failure to solve them after so many years of independence.

Identification of the main problems followed by a judgement that there are usually additional explanations of the problems, supported by specific references to several countries, could earn a mark in the top mark band. Vague generalised diatribes against colonial rule would score only about 8 marks, but answers that argued that the colonial legacy was largely to blame would score up to 14 marks if supported with persuasive detailed evidence.

**21. Explain the changes in leadership in Uganda since 1962.**

A chronology of the changes:

- 1962 Milton Obote, Prime Minister. Edward Mutesa, Kabaka of Buganda. President.
- 1966 Milton Obote seizes power as President. Mutesa goes into exile.
- 1971 Obote overthrown by a military coup led by Idi Amin while he was out of the country.
- 1979 Amin defeated by a combination of Tanzanian troops and Ugandan exiles. Professor Lule becomes President but is soon replaced by Godfrey Binaisa.
- 1980 Binaisa replaced by Paulo Muwanga as head of government. He invites Obote back from exile.
- 1981 Obote President again in rigged elections.
- 1985 Obote overthrown by General Tito Okello.
- 1986 Okello's regime overthrown by the National Resistance Army of Yoweri Museveni, President to date.

Candidates are not expected to refer to every single change of government but should be aware of the crucial changes in 1966, 1971, 1979, 1981 and 1986. An answer which attempted only to list the changes or to generalise about the causes would not be satisfactory as each change of government has a different explanation. At 14 and above, answers will provide convincing explanations for at least three changes of government analysing, for example, the differences between Mutesa and Obote, the reasons why Tanzania became involved in the overthrow of Amin and the return of Obote, and the factors which contributed to the success of Museveni's protracted civil war.

**22. Examine the causes of conflict in *either* Angola *or* Mozambique before and after independence.**

Answers are required to discuss only one country but must refer to developments both before and after independence.

In 1951 the Salazar government decreed that the two colonies were henceforth "Overseas Provinces" of Portugal. During the next two decades the white settler population grew rapidly as did tension between black Africans and the white settlers. It was impossible for the Portuguese territories to remain immune from the unrest and the growing sense of nationalism which was sweeping over Africa in the 1960s. Minor reforms by the Portuguese authorities did not avert violence. The Portuguese responded ruthlessly to the first serious uprising in northern Angola in 1961 and the Angolan casualties have been estimated at between 20.000 and 60.000 dead. The rebellion spread to Mozambique. After Salazar's death in 1970 his successors continued his policy for a few more years until both the economic cost and the drain on Portugal's own human resources became intolerable. The government was overthrown by a military coup in April 1974 and Mozambique and Angola were the immediate beneficiaries, becoming independent in 1975.

It soon became apparent that many problems had begun, rather than ended, with independence. In Angola civil war, as well as the war against the Portuguese, was raging when independence came. Cuban assistance enabled the Marxist MPLA to gain control in 1976 and to form a one-party state. But the rebel movement, Unita, led by Jonah Savimbi, created a situation of civil war.

Unita enjoyed the support of the apartheid regime in South Africa. The independence of Angola and Mozambique threatened the security of South Africa with a "ring" of independent African countries and increased the danger of attack from the north. It became part of South Africa's foreign policy to destabilise Angola and Mozambique. This task was made easier by ethnic rivalries, personal ambition and the active attempts of the two sides in the Cold War to influence groups within both countries. Even after the end of the apartheid regime in South Africa, civil war has continued in Angola, as Savimbi refused to accept the outcome of elections supervised by the United Nations. In Mozambique, however, the rebel movement, Renamo, gave up its armed struggle and accepted the result of elections also supervised by the United Nations.

A detailed narrative account of the wars before and after independence in either country might score up to 13 marks with some analytical comment. To merit 14 + answers must analyse how Portuguese colonial policies led to violence and how Angola and Mozambique became pawns in Cold War politics and South African intrigue after independence.

**23. Compare and contrast the rule of *two* of the following presidents: Banda of Malawi; Kaunda of Zambia; Kenyatta of Kenya; Nyerere of Tanzania.**

Answers which deal with the two chosen presidents separately without a running comparison and contrast might reach 10 marks, depending on the depth of knowledge. Candidates who make a real effort to compare and contrast two leaders, giving balanced attention to each, can reach the top two mark bands.

The four men were charismatic leaders with the prestige of having played the leading role in the struggle for independence. They all established one-party states, but treated dissenting opinions with varying degrees of opposition. There was less democracy and recognition of human rights in the political system of Malawi than the other three.

Nyerere and Kawanda both encouraged the liberation struggle in Southern Africa whereas Banda made a commercial agreement (1967) and established diplomatic relations with South Africa. He entered into dialogue with Vorster, the South African Prime Minister, and sought to maintain good relations with his Portuguese neighbours in Mozambique. Malawi became more politically isolated when Mozambique became independent in 1975 and Zimbabwe in 1980.

A comparison may be made between the capitalist economic policies of Kenya or Malawi and Nyerere's brand of socialism set out in the Arusha Declaration of 1967. In the economic field, Tanzanian socialism's achievements were less impressive than the economic development achieved in Malawi or Kenya, but there was less corruption and a more equal distribution of available wealth. Kawanda's economic and social policies represented something of a middle way between those of Kenya and Malawi on the one hand and Tanzania on the other.

**24. Compare and contrast the policies of any *two* rulers of Ghana since independence.**

Candidates can choose two rulers from among Nkrumah, Ankrah, Busia, Acheampong and Rawlings. The regimes of Afrifa and Limann were too shortlived to be discussed in depth. There should be a reasonable balance in the coverage of the two leaders. Mark as a whole using a 12:8 division where the better known Nkrumah is treated in greater depth. Answers which deal with the two chosen rulers separately without a running comparison and contrast might reach 10 marks. Candidates who focus on the policies of the two rulers and make a real effort to compare and contrast them can reach the top two mark bands.

Comparisons may be made between the economic and foreign policies of the rulers, the degree of freedom the citizens enjoyed and the extent to which their policies promoted national unity or encouraged ethnicism. Common aims include the promotion of higher living standards, industrialisation and social services and attempts to diversify the economy. The role of the army under different rulers can be contrasted. Busia struck at the army's privileges and paid for it by being overthrown in a military coup in January 1972.

**25. Why was *either* the Central African Federation *or* the East African Community short-lived?**

The question calls for an analysis of the factors that led to the collapse only a few years after the organisation had been set up of either the Central African Federation or the East African Community.

The formation of a Central African Federation was an attempt to overcome the balkanization of Africa. The British thought in 1953 that controlled decolonization might best be achieved by creating a federation of the three countries, Nyasaland (Malawi), Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) and Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) which, while very different, complemented each other economically. It represented such an unequal partnership that it soon collapsed. It failed because it was led by and served the interests of the white settlers, which were entrenched by the 1953 and 1957 constitutions. The Africans who formed the overwhelming majority in each of the three constituent territories understandably failed to support it.

What broke the Federation, in the end, was the very slow progress towards political and social equality for Africans. The 1957 Constitution allowed them 12 members in a federal assembly of 59, 8 dependent on European choice and 4 elected through chiefs' councils. Thus no true African nationalist could be elected. The lack of political progress in the Federation led to the rise of mass nationalist African political parties in the late 1950s. Their campaigns against the Federation were brutally suppressed. But the British Prime Minister, Harold Macmillan, changed his policy, made his "wind of change" speech in South Africa and appointed as colonial secretary Ian MacLeod, who released Banda from jail and agreed to internal self-government for Nyasaland. The Monckton report brought British acceptance of the right to secede from the Federation, which Nyasaland did in 1962 and Northern Rhodesia in 1963. The Central African Federation was wound up at the end of 1963 and the independent states of Malawi and Zambia were born in 1964.

The East African Community grew out of the East African Common Services Organisation and was established in 1967 to improve trade, communications and economic development between Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania. After Amin's coup in Uganda in 1971 Tanzania refused to recognise the new regime in Kampala and the East African Authority, consisting of the three heads of states, did not meet for many years. The East African Income Tax Department ceased to exist in 1974. Considerable rivalry developed between the three countries with each feeling it was subsidising the other. By 1975 the common market was virtually a dead letter as exchange-control restrictions between the partner states became permanent. Tanzania by then was restricting road traffic between Kenya and Zambia on the pretext that Kenya's lorries were damaging Tanzanian roads. Kenya retaliated by closing some border roads and interfering with rail and steamer traffic. The Harbours Corporation split into two national services in 1975 and East African Airways broke up in 1976. The East African Community was dead by 1977, having lasted only ten years. Ideological differences played a part in its break-up, but economic nationalism and rivalry was a more important factor.

This is a comparatively straightforward question. The main reasons for the collapse of either institution are clear-cut. The quality of the answers will depend on the depth and accuracy of supporting evidence. Answers which generalise about rivalry in the Community or African frustrations with the Federation could reach 11-13 mark band. Award higher marks according to the detail and quality of the analysis.