



**O LEVEL**

**HISTORY**

**STUDY PACK**  
**SECOND EDITION**

**Publication staff**

**Publishing Director**

Sam Madzingira.

**Copy Proof Readers**

Curriculum Development Unit  
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**General Editor**

Edson Madzingira

**Contributor**

S. Madzingira

**Text Printers**

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## **PREFACE**

This book is a superior and finer text book covering the ZIMSEC and Cambridge Syllabi papers 2167 and 0470 respectively. Its simplicity of language expression and the thoroughness with which it approaches the topics makes it second to none. It also employs the

modern learning methodology of starting every topic with a set of objectives that the student must achieve after studying a particular topic. There are also typical end -of -topic examination questions for self testing at the end of each topic. The book also breaks the topic into sub-topics to make the studying easier. Content questions are included as “activities” at the end of some segments of the topic. Such an approach ensures that the student understands the chapter stage- by- stage. My discussions with different users (teachers and students) have revealed that the book emerges as one of the best texts in the subject. Using this book will assure you a distinctive success in history examinations at ‘O’ level.

### **To the teacher**

The segmentation of topics approach allows a step-by-step study of key parts of a topic. It is very easy to conduct group work or give individual assignment to your class. After reading a segment the group comes back to class for discussions. This method makes the class a single entity with a solid body of information on that particular segment of the topic.

After covering certain segments in the topic, you have “Activity” questions to test understanding of the content covered in the preceding segments. These activities can be done even as group work. This approach reinforces assimilation of information by students.

The book also allows the teacher to classify the end-of-topic questions as follows: One question for demonstration, another for group work, yet another another for individual attempt, and the last for a mock examination. If you use this approach, you mostly likely will not leave any stone unturned. I am hoping sincerely that you will realise the full benefits of using this resource. Thank you.

## **ODINARY LEVEL SYLLABUS AND EXAMINATION FEATURES**

The 'O' Level History syllabus is divided into two examinable syllabus components. These are: Paper (2167/1) which is the History of Southern Africa, and Paper (2167/2) which is International Affairs.

The two syllabus components have equal weighting in terms of marks. In each paper, candidates are expected to answer a maximum of four questions, each marked out of [25]. In both papers, a question is divided into four parts.

### **Question structure**

Each question is divided into three parts. The first part of the question is part (A). This question calls for a simple recall of facts, names and elements of historical phenomena by identifying, stating, listing and naming etc. Paper (2167/1) normally has a total mark of [6] and Paper (2167/2) has a total mark of [5].

Part (B) of the question in both papers is an enquiry requiring comprehension skills of pupils. It seeks to achieve this objective through descriptive essay questions. The questions should be answered in continuous writing. Paper (2167/1) normally has a maximum of 11 marks while paper (2167/2) normally carries 12 marks. It calls for coherence of facts in the description of historical aspects.

Part (C) is an analysis question. It requires the learner's skills of analysis and evaluation. One of the commonest skills in the answering of this question is the need for a judgement since these questions are also argumentative questions which make them multi-dimensional in terms of the arguments which can be explored by learners. What is important is to gain maximum points on a correct outline of the answer which should be balanced and complemented with a judgement. Paper 1 and Paper 2 this question have a total mark allocation of 8 marks.

As much as this study pack is essential for the 'O' level ZIMSEC syllabus so can its content be used in any other syllabus component. Information on European History can even apply to Cambridge 'O' Level History examinations. This means that the book is not restricted to those doing paper 2167 only, but to a broader spectrum of history syllabi components including those seating for International Relations, Asian and Russian History, British History and some elements of American History.

## **CHAPTER 1 AFRICAN HISTORY**

### **EARLY SOCIETIES (FROM THE LATER STONE AGE TO THE EARLY IRON AGE)**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Identify Stone Age communities in Southern Africa
- b) Outline the way of life of early communities
- c) Describe the changes from late Stone Age to early Iron Age
- d) Discuss the political, economic and social impact of the introduction of iron on communities in Southern Africa.

### **Late Stone Age in Southern Africa**

The Late Stone Age era started 50 000 years ago. It must be viewed as a transitional period from the Stone Age to the Iron Age.

As a transitional period (a period which marked the end of one episode and the beginning of another), it was expected to have some features of the old age and a few of the new age. These features included types of tools and few types of pottery. They became more refined and of small size i.e. – microliths. The microliths (small tools) were sharper than the previous ones and were used for a variety of functions which included cutting skins, meat and as razors to cut troine. Although the Middle Stone Age flakes and cleavers were still in use, it was clear that a new era (period) had started.

#### **A Hunter – gatherer economy:**

The Late Stone Age people were still hunter-gatherers. Although additional food stuffs could have been found and new methods of hunting could have been devised, the life style remained the same.

The hunter-gatherers continued to live in small groups carrying out their tasks as before. Women and girls continued to collect food from the local environment. These included the following:

- Wild fruits and berries
- Edible bulbs
- Reptiles
- Honey

Men and boys carried out the same tasks as before, that is, hunting for animals for meat.

They hunted both big and small animals and the method of hunting was determined by the size of the animal. Small animals could be hit by sticks or clubs. Different types of traps were designed for animals of different sizes. For example, snares were used to catch rabbits, mice and similar small animals. Pits were dug into the ground to catch big game such as buck, kudus, impalas and others. The hunters had to drive the animals into these traps and sometimes fire could be used to burn part of the forest. This was done after studying the direction of the wind to make sure that the fire would be burning towards the traps set.

The hunters also used spears, bows and arrows in their hunting expeditions. They could lay ambushes for animals along the animal trails and pounced on them as they went past. This brings in yet another element in hunting activities. The hunters were supposed to be swift in their movement. They developed a number of skills including the ability to extract poisons from reptiles such as snakes and from insects such as spiders and scorpions. The poison was smeared on arrow heads and when attacking big animals, the hunter could shoot an animal but it could not fall on the spot. The hunters were skilled trekkers. They followed the animal until the poison on the arrow head took effect. The attacked animal would fall after traveling a long

distance with the hunters in pursuit. The animal was skinned and the meat was taken back to the campsite for the whole group to share.

### **Primitive Communal Society:**

The hunter-gatherer society was communal. The members of a group of about 8 people shared everything they found in their environment, that is, the gathered food and the meat from the hunts. They shared ideas and the decision to move on was done by all the elders in a given group.

### **Nomads**

The hunter-gatherers were nomadic. This means they moved from place to place. The nomads studied their environment closely and understood it very well. Whenever they felt that they had overstayed in an area, they moved on to other places. Land was not a problem for the hunter-gatherers were scattered through out Southern Africa. The main reason for this nomadic life style was to conserve the resources. They had to move before resources, in the form of animals, fruits and other food stuffs were used up. Any place was given enough time to recover before it was visited again.

### **Family Planning**

It seems as if the hunter-gatherers practiced some form of family planning. This is shown by a very low birth rates among the hunter – gatherer communities. One or two children were a common feature among these nomads. The main reason for this, was the nomadic life style which required swift movement. Too many children make movement very difficult, so a family had to have few children. This explains why the groups were so small. Food was not found in abundance and it was better to cut on the number of mouths to be fed.

### **Political Organisation**

The hunter-gatherers led a very simple way of life. This also led to a very simple political organization. As nomads, they only required elders or adults in a group to address simple questions, that is, whether members of the group were well fed or not and whether to move to a new campsite or not. This also included planning hunting expeditions. All these were done by members of the whole group and all were to agree. It was rare to find serious quarrels among the hunter-gatherers. No individual member could survive on his or her own. It was dangerous considering the inter-dependency of group members on each other. Individuals who were found to be a problem and to be making the communal life style difficult were punished, and the kind of punishment was like a death sentence- that is ex- communication. To be ex-communicated was equivalent to a death sentence because one could not survive without other members. Unless such a member could join another group, he or she could die of starvation or get attacked by dangerous animals. The group was therefore the life – line of members and co-operation was a must.

### **Activity**

Outline the advantages of archeological evidence in the study of late Stone Age Communities.

### **Social Organisation**

The Late Stone Age society was characterized by equality amongst the members. There were no social classes. As already pointed out, everything was shared and there was no property ownership, unless the simple tools and weapons are regarded as property that is,

The Hand axe

The Digging stick

The Spears

The Bows and arrows

The Flakes

The Cleavers

The Microliths

There was no ruling class and subject people. There was no state.

### **The division of labour**

Although there was a division of labour, no task was regarded as more important than the other. Gathering by women and girls was as important as hunting and fishing by men and boys. These activities did not give power to any of the members.

### **Marriage**

Like any human community, the hunter-gatherers organized marriages. They were arranged, if what happened with the San (in the Kalahari) is standard. The male suitor went and stayed with the family of the bride. He was supposed to hunt for the family of the bride until they got satisfied to release their daughter to him. May-be the hunting was an early form of the brideprice/lobola. It is not clear whether the society was patrilineal or matrilineal. "Patrilineal" means that the male ancestor is more important and as such descent follows the male line and children belong to the father. "Matrilineal" means the female ancestor is more important and descent follows the female line thus making children to belong to the mother. (It is possible that rent groups.)

### **Religious Organisation**

How religious beliefs started amongst the early people is an issue which cannot be explained with simple facts. It is debatable. Only other areas of study apart from history, like social anthropology, may help us on this one aspect. According to theory of religion, it is said that, religion emerged as a result of man's general fear of the unknown. Those questions man failed to answer were then linked to the supernatural powers-an unnatural force- leading to the development of religion. If the remnant of the hunter- gatherers are to be considered, the San (Basarwa in Botswana, worshipped the new moon and took the praying mantis as the god. Ceremonies were held for the new moon where dancing, singing and feasting was done.

NB: Some of these scenes can be seen in the rock paintings left behind by these hunter-gatherers on the walls of the caves which acted as their campsites.

### **Changes from Stone Age to Iron Age**

The Late Stone Age was described as a transitional period. I defined a transitional period as that which marks a change to a new period. The changes which came with the Early Iron Age Period are many and these changes resulted in new modes of production. Iron technology came together with farming and pottery. Iron technology meant a decrease in the use of stone tools not a complete stoppage in their use. Farming meant that alternative food was now available. Hunting and gathering did not stop with the advent of farming. It only meant that hunting and gathering became part time activities. However in bad years the people of Southern Africa turned to the old systems for survival. For example in times of drought, the same wild berries, edible bulbs, honey fruits and others remained important to the people. Farming came with the introduction of the following crops.

- Rapoko
- Finger millet
- Sorghum

Farming or cow peas agriculture also meant the rearing of the following animals.

- Cattle
- Goats
- Sheep

Crop farming was made possible by the invention of iron technology or metal technology, for it was not only iron which was discovered but also copper. A new group of people emerged, specialist in iron smelting (blacksmiths). These were able to shape iron into different implements. For examples tools for agriculture like hoes and axes.

The craftsmen also manufactured weapons for self- defence which again included the axe, knives, arrows with metallic heads and spears with metallic blades. The hoe and the axe proved handy to the new farmer. It meant that the farmer could now clear large pieces of land to grow the crops. Cultivation, though hard labour, allowed high production on the land.

### **Permanent Settlements**

The people of Southern Africa were now able to establish permanent settlements. This was mainly because of the ability to get food from their small pieces of land. There was food security except in drought periods. Farming meant a balanced diet because the grain crops were supplemented with game meat. Hunting did not end with the coming of farming. The people still consumed the old types of food together with the new ones.

This brought good health to the population and a higher life expectancy which also saw an increase in population. An increase in population meant the growth of large communities. This was a new phenomenon in Southern Africa and it required new methods of doing things. Larger communities called for new political, economic, social, military, and religious organization-so a new order was born i.e. a lineage mode of production.

### **Origins of farming and iron technology**

In Southern Africa, the origins of farming are explained in different ways depending on one's school of thought. There are three schools or types of Historians:-

1. Colonial historian.



2. Nationalist or Africanist historian.
3. Modern or new historian.

### **1. Colonial Historian.**

He or she focuses on the interests of the colonialist and tries to justify colonialism.

### **2. Nationalist or Africanist Historian**

He or she focuses on Nationalist interests and tries to defend these interests in his or her interpretation of facts.

### **3. Modern or New Historian**

He or she focuses on facts in a very objective manner. The Historian tries at all costs to guard against bias – hence tries to achieve historical truth.

### **Origins for farming: (Bantu Migrations Theory: The Colonial School of thought).**

According to colonialist historians, farming came to Southern Africa as a result of the coming of a superior race of people to the region. This superior race of people, they called the Bantu. The Bantu are described as of Negroid stock, dark in complexion and tall. The Bantu are said to be sharing a common “root” “ntu” for people for example “Bantu”, “vanhu” “batho” etc.

It is suggested that the Bantu, who came from the North, West and East Africa, brought knowledge of agriculture to Southern Africa. It is suggested that the hunter- gatherers were not capable of change without outside influence. They are portrayed as less intelligent, hence inferior.

The Bantu are also said to have brought iron technology to Southern Africa. They introduced the crops, sorghum, finger millet and cow peas. Through their superior knowledge, Southern Africa was transformed and willing hunter- gatherers were absorbed by the new groups while those who resisted were forced to marginal areas, that is, deserts like Kgalagadi (Kahari) and Namib (in Namibia).

**NB:** Politicians like Ian D. Smith, the former Prime Minister of Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) seem to be belonging to the same school of thought when they argue that the Bantu displaced the San (Bushmen is their word) and the White settlers displaced the Bantu. To such historians colonization was natural and enviable.

### **Origins of farming: Diffusionist Theory: (Modern or New History)**

According to New Historians, farming in Southern Africa was a product of local experimentation. It was started by the hunter-gatherers without outside influence, implying that they were capable of change.

New Historians argue that farming was not brought as a package to Southern Africa. The hunter- gatherers observed plants and animals in their local environment. They selected some plants which they found to produce a lot of food and put them under their care on small pieces of land. The plants did well and more land was cleared to try other plant varieties resulting in the discovery of sorghum, finger millet, cow peas and others.

The same was done with animals resulting in the taming and domestication of a selected few, that is cattle, goats and sheep. Ideas about these developments were then diffused to neighbouring communities until the whole Southern African region started to take farming seriously.

Farming could not have been a success without knowledge of iron technology, so it is argued that the hunter-gatherers who had experimented with, stones, bones, and now plants and animals also experimented with rock minerals especially with fire. Iron and copper were mined and smelted. Further experimentation resulted in the forging or manufacturing of different tools and jewellery. The manufacture of tools by specialists in metals boosted agricultural production at a peasantry level. It meant that more land could be cleared and more plants cultivated.

NB: For all this to happen, the indigenous hunter-gatherers shared ideas- i.e. a few individuals who became specialists taught others within easy reach.

The New Historians argue that, during this period in History such mass migrations, as suggested by the Bantu Migrations theory were not possible. Penetrating the equatorial forest could have been impossible, so the changes which occurred could have taken place independent of outside influence. The hunter-gatherers were not necessarily inferior, and were capable of transforming their lives.

### Activity

Describe the political, socio and economic organisation of the late Stone Age communities.

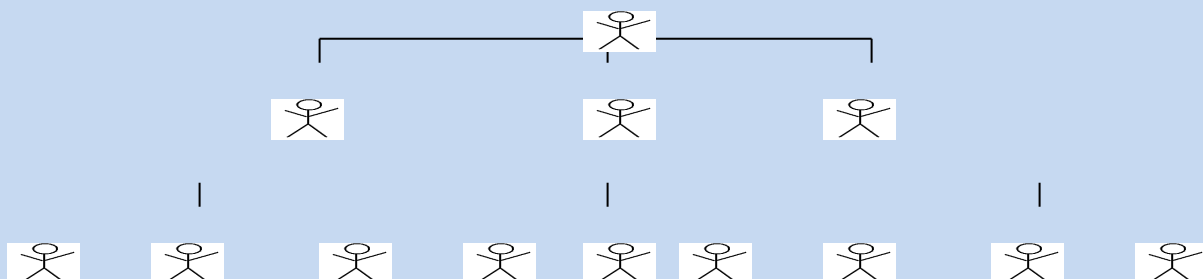
### The Lineage Mode of Production

Farming triggered population growth which called for better methods of managing society. Farming also led to the rise of skilled groups of people. Some developed skills in iron works, others in farming and yet others, in the raising of animals. There were yet some others who were able to perform well in both fields.

Some families grew more powerful than others and all this was determined by the skills mentioned above. The ability to farm and manage ownership of cattle gave power to some members of the early and later Iron Age people. A lineage system started to operate. The ownership of cattle marked the first accumulation of personal wealth. With many cattle one could have many wives and so he had more labour to cultivate the land. Also with more wives, more children were born to provide labour.

### A Lineage: defence.

A lineage is a group of people sharing a common ancestor – that means tracing origins of a group to that one ancestor or founding father.





The ability to control the means of production left some lineages with power to demand respect from the weakened ones. Such powerful lineages went on to control trade especially with outside communities. They became the ruling class and weaker lineages subject people.

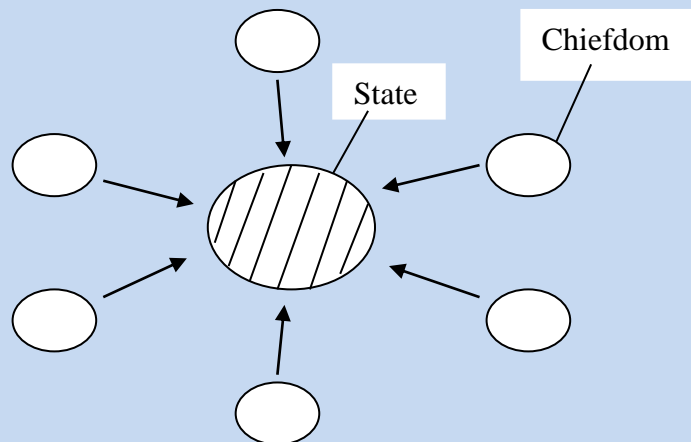
The lineage mode of production led to the development of the tributary mode of production. This meant that the first chiefdoms had developed.

***NB: A lineage comprised homesteads. A homestead consisted of a man, wife (s) and children.***

### **Tributary Mode of Production**

The powerful lineages, now operating as chiefdoms started to demand tribute or tax from the subject people and those who refused were punished through war.

Many Chiefdoms were formed and they began to compete for dominance in given regions of Southern Africa. The struggles resulted in the formation of states, that is, powerful chiefdoms which through their officials managed to trade and hold political power in a given region.



The state was capable of demanding loyalty from the subject people.

***NB: A state is an instrument of class control, and this means society was now divided into social classes.***

Social classes brought inequalities. Unlike the hunter- gatherers who were a classless society, the lineage mode of production and tributary mode of production, brought social stratification and differentiation. The powerful ruling class exploited the subject people, although they did not consider it as exploitation. This came in the form of taxes (tribute), working on the ruler's

land etc. The ruler became entitled to the most valuable items of trade, for example gold, ivory and others.

### **Division of labour and inequalities**

Like the hunter-gatherers society, the farmers also maintained a division of labour with tasks being divided between different sexes. Look at the following table:

<b>Male's tasks</b>	<b>Female's tasks</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Leading the people – as chiefs rulers or heads of homesteads</li> <li>- Fighting</li> <li>- Herding cattle (boys)</li> <li>- Hunting</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Tilling the land</li> <li>- Looking after children</li> <li>- Collecting/ gathering food</li> <li>- Pottery (old woman)</li> <li>- Fetching water (girls)</li> </ul>

The division of labour also shows exploitation of women and children by men. Whilst the women tilled the land, the land and the crops belonged to men. Whilst boys herded cattle, they all belonged to men and they had not any say in their distribution.

NB: However, the women and children did not consider themselves as exploited. What they valued was a sense of belonging and security.

### **The State**

The Iron Age resulted in state formation. The state was an institution bigger than the chiefdom. It had its own officials who included the following:

- King/ ruler
- An advisory council
- Priests (religious leaders) for example spirit mediums
- Soldiers
- Masons (Stone workers)
- Drummer
- Traditional historian

The Stone Age people were hunter-gatherers who lived in Central and Southern Africa during the period before 1000AD. These people also practiced fishing as their economic way of life.

### **The Social Organisation of the Later Stone Age People**

- They lived in caves
- They moved from one place to another (ie) they were nomadic.
- The Later Stone Age people had small families and little belongings.
- They also lived in shelter made of grass and tree branches.
- The Later Stone Age people sang and danced during their spare time.
- They observed the new moon.
- They made religious sacrifices.

### **Social Duties of the Later Stone Age people**

#### **Female Social Duties**

1. Looking after children

#### **Male Social Duties**

- Building shelter

2. Fetching water
3. Making clay pots
4. Gathering wild fruits and firewood
5. Cooking

- Making stone tools
- Skinning animals
- Making clothes from animal skins
- Making fire

### **The Early Iron Age**

The Early Iron Age period took place between 0 AD to 1000 AD in Central and Southern Africa.

### **Tools / Weapons used by the later Stone Age people**

- Digging sticks
- Hand axe
- Stone-tipped arrows
- Stone-tipped spears
- Stone hammers
- Stone scrappers
- Microliths
- Water carriers made from ostrich egg shells.
- Clubs
- Cleavers
- Bows

### **Weapons / Tools used by the Early Iron Age people**

- Knives
- Hoes
- Iron hammers
- Iron-tipped spears
- Iron-tipped arrows
- Axes

### **Diet of the Later Stone Age people**

- Wild fruits
- Game meat
- Berries
- Wild vegetables
- Edible roots/bulbs
- Birds' eggs
- Wild honey
- Caterpillars
- Rodents (rats, mice)
- Fish

### **Diet of the Early Iron Age people**

- Milk
- Meat
- Grains
- Fish

- Wild honey
- Wild vegetables
- Eggs

<b>Early Iron Age Sites Found in Zimbabwe</b>	<b>Archaeological discoveries/ Findings at these sites</b>
1. ZIWA	Pottery, hoe heads, spear heads
2. Gokowere	Pottery, hoe heads, spear heads
3. Mabveni	Decorated pottery, hoe heads

<b>Later Iron Age Sites Found in Zimbabwe</b>	<b>Archaeological Discoveries / Findings at these sites</b>
1. Great Zimbabwe	Pottery, bones of animals, plant and crop remains, soapstone dishes, beads, spearheads, glass, soapstone birds, jewelery, iron gongs, Persian bowls, sea shells etc.
2. Khami	Bones of animals, pottery, plant and crop remains, spear heads, hoe heads.
3. Naletale	Bones of animals, pottery, plant and crop remains, spearheads, hoe heads.

The Stone Age tools were inefficient and because of this, the economy of the Later Stone Age was based on hunting and gathering. With the introduction and development of Iron tools, the economy improved and more food was produced during the Early Iron Age.

**Economic Improvements and Changes during the Early Iron Age : Period Positive developments brought about by the use of iron.**

1. **Crop Cultivation**- forests could be cleared for cultivation because of strong and efficient tools. Crops grown were sorghum, millet, mealons, beans etc.
2. **Pastoralism (cattle rearing)** – the Early Iron Age people began to keep cattle, sheep, goats and this led to food security. Crop growing and cattle keeping persuaded people to live a more settled way of life and guaranteed people food security.
3. Trade – the Iron Age people began to barter trade in order to get what they did not have. They traded in baskets, cattle, grain, pottery, animals skins, gold, ivory with other societies. In return, the Iron Age people got clothing, beads, jewellery etc.
4. Tribute – people began to pay tribute to the chiefs, house heads and kings as a way of showing respect and submission. Tribute was paid in animal skins, cattle, grain, pottery works, ivory, gold, etc.
5. Hunting – improved as a result of better and efficient tools (weapons) as a result big game was killed and food became abundant.
6. Specialisation – there was specialization; blacksmiths specialized in producing tools and cultivators produced more crops. Specialization led to efficiency and increased production from people form different trades.
7. Mining – mining began to be practiced and it improved as a result of strong and efficient tools.
8. Fishing – improved and it brought about a more balanced diet.
9. Sexual Division of Labour – there was division of labour according to sex, age and skill to enhance efficiency.

NB: It is important to note that even though the use of Iron brought about positive developments in the early Iron Age societies, it also had a negative impact on these societies such as:

1. Raiding- the introduction of Iron weapons encouraged the Iron age people to raid their neighbouring societies for cattle, grain etc.
2. Increased warfare and conflicts among societies because of improvements in weapons.
3. Exploitations of women by men, who accumulated a lot of wealth through controlling the means of production such as the land and cattle, so as a result men began to exploit women because of their economic status and wealth.
4. The use of Iron tools also led to social class formation where the wealthy and the ruling classes exploited the poorer classes. This period was also characterized by the slavery mode of production.
5. Poor classes and weaker societies began to pay tribute in labour, cattle, grain to stronger and wealthy political units.

### **Social organization of the Iron Age People**

- People began to live a more settled way of life because of the availability of food.
- Division of Labour – women gathered Wild fruits, raised children, cooked etc, while their male counterparts herded cattle, built shelter, milked cows etc.
- Population growth – the population of the Iron Age people grew due to food security.
- Social class formation – lineages formed clans headed by Elders, Districts and Provinces also came into being.
- More permanent and strong housing structures were developed. For example, huts made of wood and daga rather than the simple grass structures built by the Stone Age people.

### **The benefits of the use of Iron to the Iron Age Societies**

- Population growth
- Food security
- Permanent and improved homes
- A more balanced diet through the domestication of animals and crop cultivation.
- Emergence of rulers and new laws were passed to control people.
- Trade meant that people got what they did not have. For example, people could barter trade their goods for food during times of famine.
- New mining techniques improved.
- Growth of large and complex political units.

### **Social class formation and lineages**

Classes began to form during the Iron Age period because some groups of people, e.g. traders, blacksmiths, hunters, and fishermen, began to produce a surplus and this allowed people to do one type of work and identify themselves as either traders, pastoralists or hunters.

### **Homestead**

A homestead consisted of a man, his wife and children in the Iron Age Societies.

**Lineage**-a lineage was made up of related homesteads and these lineages formed clans headed by the Elders.

As the state developed, villages were grouped together into districts which were in turn grouped to create provinces. The state was therefore made up of various provinces and was headed by a ruler.

**Lineage** - It is a group of families connected through the males who all believe they descended from the same ancestor. The senior and stronger lineage controlled the means and modes of production e.g. land, cattle, mines, trade routes etc. Other weaker lineages were given land, mining areas etc by the superior lineages and in return they became loyal and subordinate to the ruling lineages. The minor lineages also benefited because the stronger ones offered security and protection to them against enemies.

### **A State**

A State was ruled by the King who was assisted by Provincial Chiefs, District Chiefs, Village Chiefs, Village heads and Family heads. The ruling class accumulated wealth in the form of land, cattle and trade items. Cattle and land were leased to peasants in return for loyalty. The exploitation of women by men began when states formed, they were deprived of access to surplus and surplus was controlled by men. When a state formed, people began to pay tribute to the Chief and to the state rulers. Tribute was paid in agricultural produce, craft works, minerals, meat from wild animals, cattle etc. Those people who accumulated wealth began to pay lobola (bride price).

### **Political Administrative Hierarchy during the Early Iron Age Societies**

King  
Provincial Chiefs  
District Chiefs  
Village Chiefs  
Village Heads  
Family Heads

### **Religion**

The Worship of the high God began during the Early Iron Age Societies. God was worshipped through the spirit ancestors. There was a close link between the rulers and the spirit ancestors. Certain days of the year were set aside for the worship of ancestors. The worship of the high God through the ancestral spirits unified the state and made people to be loyal to the ruling king or lineage.

### **Examination type questions**

- 1a) Describe the political, social and economic organization of the late Stone Age communities.
- b) Outline the effects of the introduction of iron on early societies.
- c) Is it true that, European records cannot be relied upon as true records of Iron Age History?

2 (a) Name six crops grown by the Early Iron Age people of Southern Africa.

[6]



- (b) Describe the socio- economic changes which were brought by the coming of Iron technology in Southern Africa. [11]
- (c) How did Iron technology affect lives of the people of Southern Africa? [8]
- 3a) List benefits which came to the people of Southern Africa as a result of the introduction of Iron technology. [6]
- b) Describe the economic changes which came to Southern Africa as a result of the transition from Stone to Iron technology. [11]
- c) Was the transition beneficial to people of Southern Africa? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 2**

### **THE GREAT ZIMBABWE STATE**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Discuss the factors leading to the Rise of Great Zimbabwe
- b) Describe the social, economic and political organization of the state
- c) Discuss the origin and significance of the Great enclosure

d) Account for the Decline of Great Zimbabwe.

**Origins of Great Zimbabwe State**

It is believed that the Karanga people of the Shona tribe are the ones who built Great Zimbabwe. Archaeologists believed that the state might have been built around 1200 AD or earlier than that. It is not very clear why the state might have been built. Archaeological findings however seem to suggest that Great Zimbabwe might have been built as a religious centre. The presence of a temple seems to suggest that Great Zimbabwe might have been built as a ritual centre for religious activities. This might be so since the Shona were well connected with Mwari, the supreme divine whom they worshipped on several occasions.

Some historians suggest that it might have been built as a market centre for various economic activities such as trade, among others. Archaeological findings seem to indicate the presence of infrastructure which might have been used for purposes of trade. This includes buildings which might have been used for storage purposes. Relics and artifacts from the Far East, Middle East, China and other countries are an indication that indeed economic activities might have taken place at Great Zimbabwe thereby justifying the assumption that it might have been built as a market centre.

Some believe Great Zimbabwe might have been built as a political centre for various settlements scattered around. It is believed that it was the political residence where the king and the royal family resided. Therefore political activities such as military training and resolutions of political disputes might have been carried out at Great Zimbabwe.

Though the reasons are quite varied, it is absolutely clear that Great Zimbabwe resembles a settled community which was built when the Bantu people transformed themselves from a nomadic style of life to a settled way of life, owing to the introduction of Iron technology. By 1450, Great Zimbabwe had reached the peak of its strength. Economic, social and political problems eventually led to the abandonment of the settlement leading to its fall. The people who migrated from Great Zimbabwe established settlements else-where on the Zimbabwean Plateau. The structures of the settlement though smaller and less complex, resembled those at Great Zimbabwe. They were therefore called 'Other Madzimbabwe'. These included Mapungubwe, Naletale, Musimbira, Manekweni, Tsindi, Khami and others.

**The Great Zimbabwe State and Mapungubwe**

According to archaeologists great Zimbabwe was built around 1 200 AD by the Shona people.

**Sources**

Oral Tradition

Archaeology

Social Anthropology

Arabic records

Portuguese documents

## **Oral Tradition**

This involves listening to tradition- stories which are handed down from past generations – that are told orally (by mouth). Historians also listen to people’s memories – what they remember about their own lives. Although oral historical evidence was collected from the descendants of the people who lived during the time of the Great Zimbabwe State, (Shona) – it is not reliable because the Great Zimbabwe was too old.

## **Social Anthropology**

This is the study of mankind, especially its societies and customs. Knowledge of the Great Zimbabwe and other such early States (for especially Mapungubwe) is also obtained from their descendents-the Shona.

**Arabic Records:** There are scattered Arabic records relating to the Great Zimbabwe, and Mapungubwe from the early tenth to the beginning of the Sixteenth Century.

**Portuguese documents:** With the establishment in 1505 of the Portuguese at Sofala, in the same bay as the modern town of Beira, and later Sena and Tete, a considerable body of documentary evidence became available-though mainly focusing on the successor State Mutapa. The Great Zimbabwe City was mentioned although it was already in decline.

## **Archaeology**

Most of the information Great Zimbabwe and Mapungubwe is from archaeological findings. Compared to the rest of Sub- Saharan Africa, there is an unusual body of archaeological evidence on the Zimbabwe plateau – although much work remains to be done. Iron Age was introduced on the Zimbabwe plateau during the first millennium A.D. by people coming from the north of the Zambezi. A series of groups who came to the Great Zimbabwe and other areas on the plateau were classified by archaeologists. These included the following:

- The Gokomere people – under Period I – AD 320
- Leopard’s Kopje Culture
- Period II Culture
- Period III Culture
- Period IV Culture

It is Period III which represents the Shona or Karanga and their culture. The introduction of this culture at Great Zimbabwe as shown by radio carbon dates lasted from A.D. 1075 to 1440.

Period III culture of the Shona is a more substantial one than that of its predecessors. Archaeologists discovered that huts were larger and better built. The period marked the beginning of building in stone at Great Zimbabwe.

## **The Structure of the Great Zimbabwe Complex**

The place which is known as Great Zimbabwe is a large expanse of ground which is dominated by a rocky hill. The stone works, which now lie in ruins, stand on this impressive hill and the valley below it to the south.

Those on the hill were known (wrongly) as the Acropolis. The main ruin in the valley is called the Temple, or more accurately, the Great Enclosure. There are other smaller ruins in the valley. The names Acropolis and Temple, recalling the ancient Greek ruins, were given to the buildings at Zimbabwe by the first Europeans who saw them in the late nineteenth century, but who could not believe that they had been constructed by Africans. Indeed, the myth that the buildings at Zimbabwe were built by non-Africans was officially propagated by the illegal regime which ruled Rhodesia (Zimbabwe). The then Apartheid regime of South Africa also went to great lengths to prove the same point.

The first stone buildings at Zimbabwe were the work of the Shona people themselves. Most work on the “Acropolis” was constructed by them in Period III. The Shona also began to build in the valley during the 13<sup>th</sup> or 14<sup>th</sup> century, and the first stones of the Great Enclosure were laid at the very end of Period III.

### **State Formation: Origins and Political Set up**

1. It is likely that the Shona spread themselves over a large part of the Zimbabwe plateau.
2. Traditions indicate that there was much movement of the Shona Chiefly families through out this period.
3. This resulted in some sort of State system, in which a small group of Chiefly immigrants successfully established their rule over the most numerous Iron Age people who had preceded them into the country.
4. There is no indication that they achieved this dominance by violent means. In fact the archaeological record suggest exactly the opposite, for we have seen that at both places (Great Zimbabwe and Mapungubwe).
5. Shona culture coexisted with the earlier cultures and never completely replaces them.
6. Similarly, the Key to Shona dominance would seem not to have been superior military power although this may have been a contributing factor, but rather the possession of superior organizational skills.
7. Religion: it is likely also that the Shona commanded new, powerful religious concepts and mystic abilities, for both Zimbabwe and Mapungubwe were ritual centres of outstanding importance.
8. They were especially connected with rain- making, above all, with Mwari, the supreme divine being of the Shona who is worshipped at ethnic (tribal) level.
9. Mwari can only be approached through “tribal” spirits called “Mhondoro” – who express themselves through mediums called “Masvikiro”.
10. All evidence available indicates that the power of the Shona chiefs was based in their control of this religious apparatus, which was the unique way in which the people and the community could communicate with Mwari.
11. The Shona Chiefs’ possession of these intermediary powers was the key to the political and social integration of the State.

### **Mapungubwe and Bambandyanalo**

Mapungubwe may be taken as a provincial capital site – showing that the Shona’s efforts were apparently centres in the south.

At Mapungubwe just south of the confluence of the Limpopo and Shashi Rivers, in the Transvaal, the Shona found a place which was extraordinarily like Great Zimbabwe.

On the prominent, steep hill overlooking the valley of the Limpopo, they gradually re-created, although on a less grand scale, the pattern of Great Zimbabwe.

By the turn of the fifteenth century the Shona dominated the previous inhabitants of Mapungubwe whose culture was closely related to that of the Leopard's Kopje people.

The two populations continued to live side by side and their cultures naturally became intertwined, but the Shona were the rulers and their way of life inevitably became more prominent as time passed.

Society was probably controlled by wealthy cattle chiefs and their families which lived in the larger hilltop settlements.

The smaller hilltop villages were probably occupied by more junior headmen. Poorer people, without cattle, lived in simple, less permanent houses in the valleys. Here they tended crops and herded the cattle which were brought down from the hilltop enclosures during the day.

It seemed likely that the chiefly-controlled cattle-based culture, had an important influence on the growth of Iron Age States.

Economy: Great Zimbabwe, Bambandyanalo and Mapungubwe.

Besides cattle, another important factor in the growth of later Iron Age States was trade. Bambandyanalo and nearby Mapungubwe hill were important trading communities of the period.

Their location (near the confluence of the Limpopo and Shashe rivers) was good for the development of long-distance trade.

Elephants, plentiful in the Limpopo valley, could be hunted for their ivory. To the north and northwest were gold bearing areas of Tati and the Zimbabwe plateau. To the east were trade routes down the Limpopo and Save rivers to the coastal settlement of Sofala.

There, coastal traders were able to make contact with people all around the Indian Ocean-East Africa, Arabia, Persia, India and even China. The main African items exported from Sofala were ivory and gold. The main imports were glass and shell beads from all along the coast, brightly-coloured cotton cloths from India and fine pottery from Persia and China.

By establishing control over gold-mining, ivory hunting and long distance trade, the rulers of Bambandyanalo and Mapungubwe were able to extend their authority over a wider area.

Arabs coming from the Somali, Kengan and Tanzania coasts had been trading to the Sofala coast since the first millennium A.D. The staple item of trade was ivory for which there was still a constant and considerable demand in India.

The ivory of the Indian elephant is too brittle to be fashioned into bracelets and trinkets). The Great Zimbabwean and Northern Transvaal area is rich in valuable minerals especially copper and gold. Armed with their vital metallurgical knowledge, the Iron Age people of this region gradually began to exploit these resources, although on a small scale, well before the arrival of the Shona.

Gold and copper artifacts appear during Period II at Great Zimbabwe as well as imported glass beads from the coast. But it was under the Shona, with their wider hegemony (leadership over a confederacy) and centralized state systems that trade with the coast became organized on a large scale.

Although they did not do the actual mining themselves the Shona rulers directed the whole economic process of trade.

Their rule assured the security of movement which was so necessary to long- distance trading. As contracts with the coast were expanded, more attention was undoubtedly paid to elephant hunting and production of copper and gold.

So it was that the Shona rulers grew more powerful through their control of both the sources of wealth and coastal trade in their Kingdom.

The Great Zimbabwe, Bambandyanalo and Mapungubwe combined, were the direct ancestor of the Mutapa State and the foundation on which it was built.

## **8. Spinning and weaving**

The Great Zimbabwe people wove cloth which was used for exchange and for the payment of the bride price. The cloth which was woven from indigenous cotton was known as Machira.

### **Activity**

Describe the origins of Great Zimbabwe

### **The political organisation of Great Zimbabwe**

The King was the Head of State. The king supervised trade, and exacted tribute from his subjects. Tribute was paid by the King's subjects and vassal chiefs as a sign of submission, respect and allegiance to the King (central authority). The King of Great Zimbabwe lived on top of the hills for privacy and protection. The rulers of Great Zimbabwe were also important religious leaders who conducted all the religious ceremonies within the Kingdom. The King was the commander in Chief of the army and he was the head of the judiciary, meaning that he tried and judged all the cases that were brought to him. The Great Zimbabwe state was divided into districts and provinces which were ruled by the provincial and district chiefs.

### **Soapstone Birds**

These were important Shona religious symbols. There were seven soapstone birds at Great Zimbabwe. Some of the birds have been identified as Chapungu (Fish Eagle) or Hungwe. If this is the case, then Great Zimbabwe may have been a cultural centre of religious importance and the spiritual headquarters of the Shona people.

### **Activity**

Outline the importance of trade on the economic organization of the Great Zimbabwe State

### **Social Organisation of Great Zimbabwe**

-The King was the highest on the social ladder. The King was followed by the Provincial rulers. Provincial rulers were followed by district chiefs. Village chiefs, village Heads and family Heads followed in that order.

-People of the same totem formed a lineage. People of the dominant totem formed a ruling class

-Tribute was paid to them. Inter-marriages between people of the same totem were not allowed. People celebrated the coming of the new moon through dancing and feasting.

-The people of Great Zimbabwe worshipped God through spirit mediums. The King was feared and respected as a super natural being.

-The King consulted the Gods during times of trouble such as war and poor rains and harvests.

-In the state, there were clear lines of labour divisions. Women specialized in child bearing and caring for children and the home. Men on the other hand guarded the state as well as the home.

-During leisure times, people undertook hobbies such as hunting and other pass-time activities.

### **Economic Organisation**

#### **1. Crop Cultivation**

-Agriculture by way of crop production was one of the important economic activities. They grew a variety of crops to feed the growing population. However, the scale of crop production during this period should not be wildly over emphasized because large animal reserves and wild vegetable provided alternative dietary substitutes. They grow millet, and sorghum.

#### **2. Pastoral Economy**

-They domesticated animals such as cattle. They used them in social economic and political activities in the Great Zimbabwe state. Products such as meat, milk, skins and blood were used in the state by the people.

#### **3. Trade**

- People engaged in trade both local and long distance. In local trade they traded amongst themselves using locally available commodities. In long distance trade, they traded with foreigners such as people from the Middle East, Far East, China and many others. From long distance trade, they got items which they could not manufacture locally.

#### **4. Mining**

-They practiced small scale mining. They mined gold and silver. Mining was a specialized job practiced by men. They studied the mineral content of the soil by studying vegetation and termites. They used these minerals for tribute payment.

#### **5. Hunting**

This was a very important economic activity. It was practiced by men. They hunted animals such as elephant, rhino, buffalo and many others. Hunting supplemented Agriculture through providing meat to supplement food coming from farming. It also complemented trade because it provided them with items useful for long distance trade such as Ostrich feathers, egg shells, hides, ivory and other useful commodities for trade.

#### **6. Iron Smelting**

Being one of the early iron age states, people of Great Zimbabwe, benefited from iron technology. Smelting of iron was a highly specialized job undertaken by men. They smelted iron into useful iron implements such as war-axes, arrows and spear heads. These tools were

useful in other economic activities of the people of Great Zimbabwe such as hunting, farming and mining.

### **7. Pottery**

-Potters made clay products which were useful for storage purposes. Clay products were also useful commodities for both local and long distance trade.

### **8. Tribute**

People of Great Zimbabwe paid tribute to the king annually. Great Zimbabwe is believed to have been the collection centre because it is believed the king resided at The Great Zimbabwe. Tribute raised state revenue. However, tribute though being an economic activity, was as well a political control measure. Tribute was also paid by people who passed through the state during long distance trading. These people included the Swahili and other foreigners engaging in long distance trade with the people of Great Zimbabwe.

### **The Decline of Great Zimbabwe**

Civil Wars and succession disputes contributed most to the decline of Great Zimbabwe, but it is important to note that there were other subsidiary factors that contributed immensely to the decline of Great Zimbabwe, like:

-Shortage of salt

-Shortage of food supplies, pastures, fuels etc, which might have disrupted peoples' way of life and trade in and around Great Zimbabwe.

-Land by the 15<sup>th</sup> Century had become exhausted for cultivation.

-Great Zimbabwe lost its control of trade and therefore it lost control over vital trading items like gold and salt.

-A reduction and depletion of natural resources led to the decline of Great Zimbabwe.

-Due to the shortage of natural resources, many subject peoples and territorial chiefs broke away from Great Zimbabwe. For example Nyatsimba Mutota who abandoned Great Zimbabwe to look for better areas.

-Succession disputes at Great Zimbabwe weakened the state politically, militarily and these disputes disrupted agricultural activities. They led to civil wars which resulted in the break away of territorial chiefs and emigration of people from Great Zimbabwe.

-Shortage of land (Pressure on land and resources) caused by population growth of both human beings and cattle, impacted negatively on the survival of the Great Zimbabwe state.

-Foreign traders who used to pass through the state, in the process carrying out trading activities and at the same time paying tribute to the King began to avoid the state because they realised that it no longer offered good business.

NB: Bambandyanalo was first settled during the tenth century A.D. Judging by the style of their pottery, the people seem to have had close cultural links with the people of the Great Zimbabwe plateau to their north.

Although the rulers got much additional wealth and power from their control over trade, the settlement as a whole was an agricultural and cattle raising one.

Their houses were built around large central cattle enclosures. Bambandyanalo prospered and as it expanded, its rulers occupied the top of Mapungubwe hill. There the houses, again encircling a central cattle enclosure, were larger than those in the valley.



Their circular walls were built of solid clay which was elaborately decorated. The style of their building suggests that the people of Mapungubwe hill were much wealthier than their subjects in the valley below.

The extent of their wealth is shown by the many fine objects found in their graves. These included locally-made gold beads, copper bangles, ivory objects and iron tools and weapons as well as glass beads and shells from the East Coast of Africa.

The Mapungubwe community reached the height of its prosperity between about 1100 AD and 1300 AD. Thereafter its importance as a trading centre declined in favour of Great Zimbabwe. The later was even better situated for the development of crop cultivation, cattle raising (Pastoralism) and the control of long- distance trade.

### **Activity**

Outline the political and social organization of the Great Zimbabwe

What contributed most to the decline of Great Zimbabwe, poor leadership, depletion of salt reserves and Portuguese interference?

### **Examination type questions**

- (a) Describe the factors leading to the rise of the Mutapa Empire [6]  
 (b) Name any six other Madzimbabwe [6]  
 (c) Describe the origins of Great Zimbabwe [11]  
 (d) To what extent were economic factors responsible for the formation of Great Zimbabwe? [8]
- 2a) State any six roles of the king at Great Zimbabwe. [6]  
 b) Describe the political organisation of the Great Zimbabwe state. [11]  
 c) How important was the role of the king in the government of Great Zimbabwe? [8]
- 3(a) List six factors which led to the fall of Great Zimbabwe. [6]  
 (b) Describe the social and economic factors which led to the fall of Great Zimbabwe. [11]  
 (c) To what extent were the economic factors responsible for the fall of Great Zimbabwe? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THE MUTAPA STATE**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Account for the rise of Mutapa
- b) Examine the role of trade in the Mutapa
- c) Describe the organisation of the State
- d) Evaluate the Mutapa relationship with the Portuguese
- e) Discuss factors leading to the fall of the state.

### **Introduction**

As already noted, the Great Zimbabwe state, Bambandyanalo and Mapungubwe combined, were the direct ancestor of the Mutapa state and the foundation on which it was built. The Mutapa State was formed around 1 400 AD by Nyatumba Mutota.

### **Sources on the Mutapa state**

1. Oral tradition.
2. Archaeology
3. Social Anthology (refer to Great Zimbabwe)
4. Portuguese documents
5. Arabic records (refer to Great Zimbabwe)

### **Oral Tradition: Origins**

a) The Mutapa State is said to have emerged from an expedition which was caused by the arrival of a stranger who travelled to the Southern part of the Zimbabwe plateau – Nyakatonje who lived in the Dande region to the north. Dande was also called Mbire. Nyakatonje went to the southern region which was known as Guruuswa – taking with him some salt. Salt was not known in Guruuswa. On arrival the guest was well received by Mutota, the host killed an ox to welcome him.

The visitor, Nyakatonje added salt to his portion. Mutota saw him eating this and asked for some. Mutota found that the salt was good and asked Nyakatonje where he came from and then set out with him as guide to find the land of salt. Mutota went with his son Nebedza (Matope) and his daughter Nehanda as well as Zvimba and Mutota's friend (or brother) Chingoo.

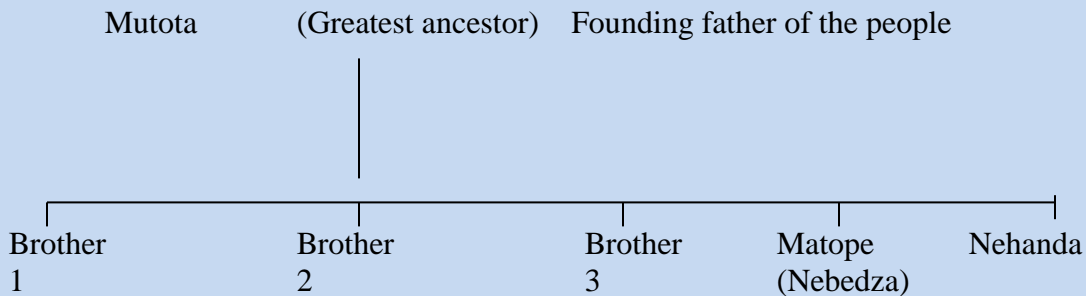
They passed through where Harare is today and into the Mazowe valley. Zvimba stopped somewhere on the way after complaining of swelling and painful legs (kuzvimba) and the place where he stopped became known as Zvimba. Chingoo and Mutota went on further north and Chingoo remained in the country of Guruve to establish his home there. Mutota travelled on to Dande.

Nyakatonje was supposed to warn Mutota before they reached the edge of the escarpment so that he could not see the Zambezi River in the valley. This was because Mutota intended to perform certain magic (Mapipi) Nyakatonje failed to warn Mutota thus enabling him see the valley before he was ready.

As a result Mutota could not continue with his journey. He had to turn back and meet him on the escarpment. When he died, the earth opened for him and he was placed inside a rock. Eight small baobab trees were placed around his grave (the trees were brought from Dande by his followers).

Before Mutota died he told his sons that if they wished to enter the valley, one of them would have to marry their sister Nehanda. All the brothers refused to perform this forbidden act. Only Nebedza, the youngest, agreed. When this was done, Nebedza succeeded his father as head of the lineage and all the sons climbed down the escarpment and made their home in Mbire, now called Dande.

NB: This sounds like a creation story and a mythology. Mutota and Guruuswa belong to a spirit world. Dande is given a real place – home of all living people – so the tradition is about two different worlds, the spiritual world (where ancestors live) and the real world of living people.



Mutota is given as the greatest ancestor. He gives rain to the people. Nyakatonje is given as a messenger from the living to the great ancestor. It was believed that only people, not spirits, ate salt – so in this tradition, salt is used to tempt Mutota from the spirit world to the land of the living.

The escarpment are the hills on the edge of Dande and the Zambezi valley. It is the place where rain always falls today. In the legend, it is the boundary between life and death. Mutota remains there, as a spirit, he cannot enter the living world. The story of Mutota is not real history about the origins of the Mutapa State – it is a beautiful story about the creation of the whole world – mythology.

b)(i)The Rise of the Mutapa State is also attributed to the decline of the Great Zimbabwe State.

(ii)Shona traditions attribute the decline and abandonment of the Great Zimbabwe State to a severe shortage of salt.

(iii)Salt must have been an important item of trade at Great Zimbabwe.

(iv)However severe the shortage, it alone could not have led to the abandonment of Great Zimbabwe.

(v)It has been suggested that the salt shortage mentioned by Shona traditions may indicate general shortage in food supplies, pastures, fuel and other resources not only at Great Zimbabwe but in the immediate neighbourhood as well.

(vi)This general shortage may have disrupted the people's way of life and trade.

(vii)At that time the ruler of the land decided to move in search of better areas.

(viii)According to Shona traditions, the man is identified as the Mbire ruler Mutota who led his people to the Dande area in the north of Great Zimbabwe.

(ix)A new Zimbabwe (even Zimbabwe's) may have been built although it never achieved Great Zimbabwe's great fame and greatness – for example;

a) The Nhunguza Ruins

b) The Ruanga Ruins

These are found in the general area to which Mutota is said to have moved and could have been built at that time. There are also smaller ruins in the area.

### **Factors influencing the choice of the capital**

The capital was at Chitako hills near Mount Fura (Darwin) in the Dande region.

(i).The Dande region in the Zambezi Valley was rich in natural resources including salt, iron and grazing/ pastures.

(ii) It was also well placed for trade as it lay in the region between Lugombe Lledde and the Swahili trade centres at Tete and Sena.

(iii)Dande stood on the edge of the Mazowe Valley, a major tributary of the Zambezi river linking the Zimbabwean goldfields and heartland with the Lower Zambezi trading settlements.

(iv)The Mutapa State (empire) established after the move to the Dande region, developed this important trade route to full capacity.

(v) The Portuguese also later established their trading posts in the areas such as Dambarare, Bocuto, Massapa and Ruwanze or Luanze on the Upper Mazowe.

c) Some historians are of the opinion that the Mutapa State was one of the Shona Chiefdoms, found north of the Great Zimbabwe, which was influenced by new ideas from north of the Zambezi.

People living north and south of the Zambezi River, east of the modern Kariba dam, had much contact with each other between 1100 and 1300 AD.

d) With the coming of the Mutapa dynasty, we enter a new phase in which oral traditions and then written documents give us a much more detailed and personal historical view.

According to traditions collected by D.P. Abraham, during the fourteenth century a new group of Bantu-speakers, led by a mythical personality called Ne- Mbire moved into Rhodesia from the north.

Abraham suggests that these people may have crossed the Zambezi in about 1325AD. Their origins were unknown, but they probably came from the Katunga region, for copper artifacts reminiscent of the Congo are found in Period IV levels of occupation.

For almost a century the characters who figure in the traditions of the Mbire people, as they are known, are impossible to identify as real historical personalities.

At the end of the 14th century, Chikura Wadyambeu appears-a historical time figure. He is presented as the great grandson of Nembire. Traditions identify Chikura Wadyambeu as the first mambo (great chief) of the Rozvi.)

A generation later, he is replaced as mambo by a man who may or may not have been his son – but who was the very first individual to bear the praise name of Mwene Mutapa-Nyatsimba Mutota.

It is claimed that Chikura Wadyambeu sent his son Nyatsimba Mutota to the north to look for salt and alternative trade posts. He was also supposed to look for ivory – and possibly to open up another capital for the Great Zimbabwe area was overpopulated. It was Nyatsimba Mutota's peculiar genius which gave rise to the empire of Mutapa. From about 1420AD to the

middle of the fifteenth century, Mutota embarked on a major military campaign to create a vast personal empire over the entire region with which we are concerned. He defeated the Tonga and Tavara and earned himself the title, Mwene Mutapa – or “Master Pillager”.

### **Portuguese Documents**

Abraham, historians, attributes the rise of the Mutapa State to foreign influences. According to early sixteenth century Portuguese document, it was learned at Sofala from the Africans who came from the interior, “that in the land of Monomotapa (sic), there are more than ten thousand Moors.” The number could have been less but there were many Muslim traders in the area.

The Muslim traders who wanted to protect their trading interests are said to have conceived and implanted in the mind of the Mutapa, a desire for empire.”

### **Problem with theory**

1. Mutota is presented as a passive character who lacked a personal vision.
2. Mutota is said to have been stirred into action by the probings of a group of foreign merchants whose activities depended in the first place, on his good will as a monarch.
3. Mutota was already ruling over a considerable Kingdom- and as an ambitious man, it can be assumed that he wanted to extend his territory.
4. Mutota was a descendant of a dynamic new royal family which may have taken over power from the previous ruling dynasty of the Kingdom- so he had the ability to build an empire.

### **Archaeology**

1. The empire or state of Mutapa is manifested in the archaeological record of Period IV (beginning about 1450AD) at Zimbabwe. Much of the material culture of the state is learnt through archaeology (Refer to the Great Zimbabwe State).
2. Archaeologists have found that new types of pottery spread from southern Congo into eastern Zambia around 1 000 and then down to Luangwa valley and across the Zambezi in the 11 00 – 1300AD period. Much of the pottery of the northern Shona was therefore of these Luangwa types after 1100 – 1300AD. This suggests that the Mutapa State was influenced by societies north of the Zambezi.

With the spread of new types of pottery from Southern Congo to northern Zimbabwe, came new ideas or Chieftainship.

Chiefs or Kings were seen as sacred people or gods. They had to live apart from other people and were never to be seen to die.

NB: Mutota died in about 1480AD. Mutapa was by then recognized as the supreme political authority from the Zambezi to the Limpopo valley and from the Kalahari to the Indian Ocean.

### **Political Organisation:**

Capital: Chiako Hills near Mount Fura (Darwin) capital, was changed from Great Zimbabwe.)

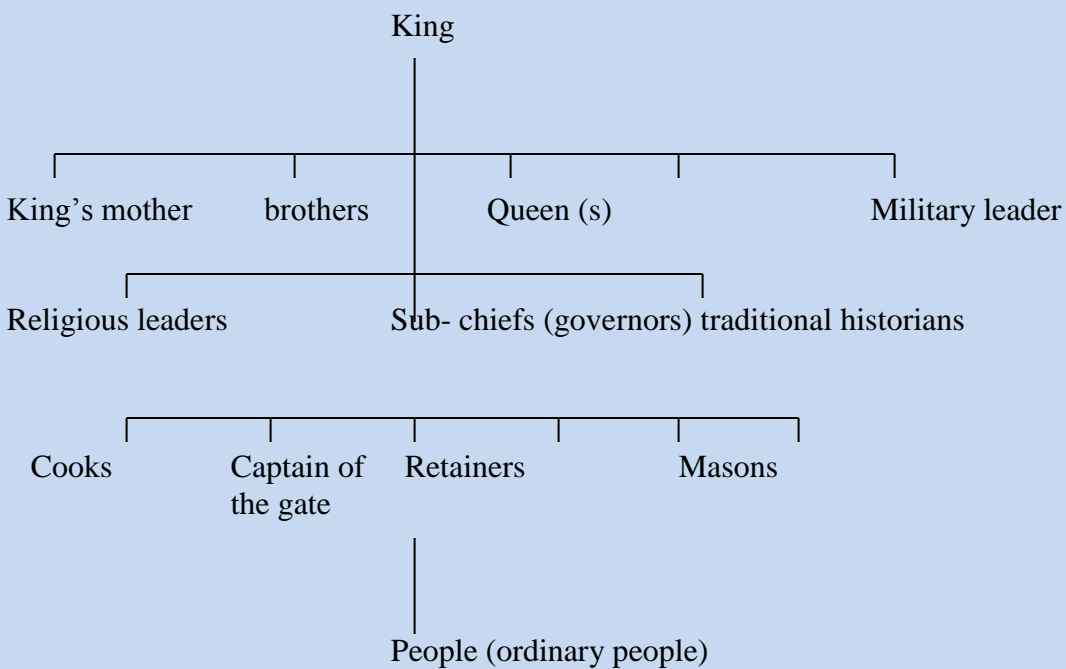
### **The Mutapa and his officials**

The Mutapa appointed provincial governors as the boundaries of the new state were extended. These governors or sub- chiefs were usually the kinsmen. Two-thirds of the Southern State was entrusted to two faithful followers.

- (i) Changa was appointed governor of Guruhuswa in the far south where the old capital was
- (ii) Togwa was made ruler of the central province of Mbire, between Guruhuswa and Dande.
- (iii) Newly-won provinces of Chidima, Manyika, Barwe, Uteve and Madenda were also parceled out among close relatives of the Mutapa.

The governors or sub- chiefs were expected to keep the subject people in their areas, loyal and collected tribute for the Mutapa.

Sometimes such chiefs refused to pay tribute and this assertion of independence frequently led to ethnic (“tribal” war) – study the diagram below.



### **The Royal Fire**

The King (Mutapa) controlled all the fires of their people. The people would stamp out the fires and take new fire from the royal fire place once a year.

### **Factfile: Chronology**

The Mutapas who ruled

Nyatsimba Mutota

Nyunhewe Matope

Nyahuma

Chikuyo Chomunyaka – 1494 to about 1530

Gatsi Rusere

Mapunzugutu  
 Nyambo Kapararidze  
 Makombwe  
 Chioko

### **Activity**

Discuss in detail the political authority of the Mutapa rulers.

### **Social Organisation of the Mutapa**

-At the peak of its power, the state was composed of various ethnic groups belonging to the Shona tribe. These included the Karanga, Korekore, Nda, Zezuru, Shangwe and many others.

-The Mutapa people spoke different dialects which could however be understood throughout the region.

-In the Mutapa state there was gender awareness in the allocation of duties and responsibilities. Many specialized in military chores such as hunting, guarding the state and engaging in military activities. On the other hand, women cared for children and also did household chores such as cooking and household maintenance.

-In the Mutapa state it was a taboo for people of the same totem to marry. People of the dominated totem controlled the means of production such as land. Tribute was therefore paid to them.

-People of the Mutapa held the dead in high esteem and respect. They believed that the dead guided and protected them as spirits. Special days were therefore set aside at household to the national level for honoring ancestors. Ancestors were consulted frequently such as during times of war, drought, poor harvest and many other occasions. Special rituals were undertaken to appease the ancestors and also to consult them on direction for future endeavours.

-People of the Mutapa state were highly religious. They believed in God whom they spoke to through spirit mediums

-Religion though a social activity, was a useful apparatus for state control since it was used in the political organisation. Claimants to chieftainship were vetted by spirit mediums to determine their suitability to kingship.

-This reduced chances of disputes during the installation of a new king. The king was even the chief religious leader in the state. He consulted spirits for guidance during times of trouble in the state.

### **The Economic Organisation of the Mutapa State**

#### **1. Crop Cultivation**

It was one of the major economic activities in the Mutapa State. The crops grown included millet, sorghum, maize etc. Agricultural products were for feeding the growing population, army and visitors. Agriculture in the Mutapa State was more valued than any other economic activity.

#### **2. Pastoralism (Cattle rearing)**

Cattle were important for feeding the population, armies of the Mutapa State and visitors. Some of the cattle were kept by provincial chiefs. The system by which these cattle were herded or looked after by other people for the Mutapa is called "Kuronzera" in Shona. Cattle also provided skins and manure to the Mutapa people.

#### **3. Trade**



The King and the ruling class dominated and controlled long distance trade along the Indian Ocean Ports. Trade was first conducted with the Arabs, Swahili and later with the Portuguese. Gold was the main export from the Mutapa State in return for cloth, beads, guns, ammunition, ornaments jewellery etc. The Ports that were used for trade by the Mutapa State along the Indian Ocean were Sofala, Sena and Tete.

#### 4. **Mining**

Silver, gold and salt were mined for trade and for the payment of tribute to the Mutapa by the vassal chiefs.

#### 5. **Tribute**

The King exacted tribute from the Swahili traders and the Portuguese who paid annual tax in the form of luxury goods such as cloth. Vassal chiefs paid tribute to show loyalty to the King. The vassal and territorial chiefs paid tribute in skins, cattle, grain, gold, ivory etc.

#### 6. **Hunting**

Wild animals were hunted for meat and ivory. Ivory was used for trade with the Portuguese. Hunting was also done as a sport in the Mutapa State.

#### 7. **Blacksmithing (Metal Working)**

The Mutapa State had small scale industries based on metal working. These industries produced iron implements such as spear heads, arrow heads, knives, razors etc.

8. Craftwork and Pottery – craftworkers and potters made clay pots, baskets etc.

9. Spinning and weaving – the Mutapa people wove cotton to make indigenous cloth known as Machira.

10. Fishing

Those who lived near rivers and lakes practiced fishing and this supplemented the diet of the Mutapa people.

11. Gathering

Women did the gathering of wild fruits and vegetables. This was also a social activity that supplemented the diet of the Mutapa people.

12. Raiding

Raiding was not common in the Mutapa State, but occasional raids were carried out against neighbouring states for the purpose of getting cattle, grain and iron tools etc.

#### **Religion**

-The Mutapa State people recognized the existence of the supreme God (MWARI). Between the Supreme Being and the living people, existed the mudzimu (spirit ancestors). The Kings activities became linked to Mwari and the spirit medium of the land.

-The main force that kept the Shona States intact was religion.

-Once the Mutapa was chosen and installed, it meant that he ruled with the blessing of the religions powers of the land. As such, the Mutapa was respected and feared and this reduced any possibility of a rebellion or uprising in the Mutapa State.

-The King consulted the spirits in any major decision such as whether to go to war or not.

-Spirit mediums were also consulted in times of national hardships like droughts, diseases, war, starvation etc.

### **Trade between the Portuguese and the Zimbabwean societies (Mutapa State) in the 16<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> Centuries**

-The Portuguese traders came in contact with the Mutapa State in 1505AD when they built Sofala.

-Initially trade was conducted through the Swahili traders or their agents Vashambadzi.

-The main trading item from the Mutapa State was gold.

-The Portuguese later on penetrated into the interior to control sources of gold.

-They established their own trading centres like Sena and Tete in the 1830's.

-Trade was controlled by the King (Mutapal) in the Mutapa kingdom.

-The Mutapa State traded in gold and ivory in return of clothing, beads and ceramics.

-Later the Mutapa people traded in salt, copper, iron, grain, cattle, pottery and basketry works in return for guns, ammunition, maize seeds, jewellery, knives, beads, cloth etc from the Portuguese.

-Trade bazaars were established where sometimes private trade took place behind the Mutapa's back.

-The bringing in of guns and ammunition by the Portuguese made the vassal chiefs to rebel against the Mutapa.

-In the 17<sup>th</sup> century the Mutapas began to be reluctant with the gold and the Portuguese resorted to force to acquire it.

#### **Activity**

-The Portuguese played a great role in the affairs of the state. How valid is this statement about Portuguese activities in the Mutapa?

### **The Prazo System**

#### **Reasons for the Portuguese penetration into the Zambezi Valley**

1. To avenge the death of Gonzalo Da Silveira.
2. To search for the "Legendary Prester John"
3. To control the Mutapa State
4. To control land in the Zambezi Valley for agricultural purposes.
5. To spread Christianity.
6. To control sources of gold in the interior.
7. To establish trading posts.
8. To control trade routes into the interior.
9. The Portuguese were invited by Gatsi Rusere.
10. To dislodge Muslims and the Swahili traders from the interior.

### **The Prazo System**

The Portuguese introduced the Prazo System in the Mutapa State. The Portuguese introduced new crops such as maize, groundnuts, cowpeas, melons, sweet potatoes, paw paws etc. The Portuguese used African labour to carry out their agricultural and mining activities. Africans as well as the Mutapa people were exploited because they were forced to pay tribute to the Portuguese Prazo holders, and then of provided cheap semi- slave labour to the Portuguese. Some Africans who lived in the Portuguese Prazos were sold to the East – African slave trade. The Portuguese forcibly took the land from the Mutapa State while some of the land was acquired through the signing of treaties between the Portuguese and the Mutapa King Gatsi Rusere. The Portuguese were living a luxurious lifestyle in the Prazos and they co-habited with African women resulting in the coloured population (the Mulatos). The Portuguese on the Prazos also controlled trade through the use of professional traders known as Vashambadzi. There were instances and cases of many deaths and casualties in the Portuguese mines and farms where African labour was used. Initially the Portuguese paid curva to the Mutapa King, but later after the Portuguese penetrated into the Mutapa State, this was reversed and the Mutapas started paying curva to the Portuguese. The Portuguese later began to be lawless, they penetrated deep into the Mutapa territory, defeated the Mutapa rivals using their own as well as hired soldiers (Chikundas). The Portuguese began to mine gold and to hunt for ivory in the Mutapa territory. Slavery was also rife in the Portuguese Prazos and mines.

**The Prazo System helped the Portuguese control the Mutapa State in many ways. Examples of such ways are:**

- The system reduced the land controlled by the Mutapa State.
- Many people now owed allegiance to the Prazeros than to the ruling Mutapas.
- Prazeros controlled gold production, trade and sources of wealth in the Mutapa State.
- The Portuguese private arrives and hired soldiers (Chikundas) were now powerful in the - Zambezi Valley and this reduced the power of the Mutapa.
- Slave trade weakened the Mutapa State as able-bodied men and women were sold to the East Africa slave traders.
- The Prazeros took over the roles of traditional and religious leaders in the Mutapa State.

**Political effects of the Portuguese activities on the Mutapa state**

- The Portuguese took control of trade during the reign of Gatsi Rusere.
- Once the Portuguese traders were allowed to enter the Mutapa state, they began to influence political decisions.
- In the Civil War of 1624, the Portuguese helped Mamvura to become the Munhu Mutapa in 1629.
- The Portuguese activities also made some subchiefs to be disloyal to the Mutapa.
- The Portuguese forced the Mutapas to pay tribute to the Portuguese governor at Sofala.
- The introduction of guns gave power to the wrong people who began to rebel against the King.
- The Portuguese created puppet rulers which led to the decline of the Mutapa state. The Portuguese warlords emerged and created states within the Mutapa state using Chikundas.
- Break away of small states from the Mutapa state occurred as a result of Portuguese interference into the interior.
- The formation of the Rozvi state created instability as the Rozvi rulers led rebellions and attacks on the Mutapa state.
- The caliber of leaders who ruled the state in the 17<sup>th</sup> century was poor, because these leaders failed to hold the state intact.

### **The Portuguese Interference**

- The Portuguese activities led to the decline of the Mutapa State to a greater extent.
- The Portuguese introduced Christianity which divided the Mutapa people along religious lines.
- The Portuguese helped rebellious vassals and interfered in succession crises.
- They removed the Mutapas and installed their own puppets.
- They created Prazos where they forced the Shona people to work.
- The Portuguese had their own private armies i.e. Chikundas (hired soldiers), which were wild and lawless. These armies seriously weakened the Mutapa State.
- The Portuguese supplied vassal and rebellious chiefs with guns and ammunition to fight the ruling Mutapas.
- They refused to pay curva or annual tribute and they forced the Mutapas to pay tribute to them. They also took over the control of trade.
- The formation of the Rozvi State led to the Ultimate decline of the Mutapa State and the Rozvi State replaced the Mutapa State.

### **The Portuguese Mercantile Capitalism**

Before the Portuguese established themselves at the Zambezi valley, the Mutapa people traded with the Muslims. After the death of the Muslim sultan at Sofala, the Portuguese merchants established various trading centers and consolidated their status and position as the main traders in the Zambezi valley.

### **Trading centres established by the Portuguese on the Mozambican Coast and in the Interior of the Mutapa State.**

1. Sofala
2. Quelimane
3. Angoche
4. Tete
5. Sena
6. Beira
7. Luanze
8. Bukutu

### **Names of the Portuguese people who visited or who got contact with the Mutapa Kingdom.**

Gonzolo Da Silveria  
 Antonio Fernandez  
 Francisco Barreto  
 Antonio Caidado  
 Vasco Homen  
 Diego Simoes Madeira  
 Dona Catarina  
 Vasco Ferraridos

### **The Portuguese Economic Activities in the Mutapa State**

The Munhumutapa became interested in establishing trade relations with the Portuguese in the Zambezi valley, the main reason being that of acquiring guns.

- The Mutapa needed guns and cannon to defeat his sub rulers who were constantly rebelling against him.
- He needed better weapons than those of many enemies surrounding him.
- Several less powerful chiefs were increasing their power by acquiring guns or asking for Portuguese assistance.

### **The Benefits of Trade to the Mutapas**

- 1.The Mutapas used cloth and beads from the Portuguese as one means of keeping their subjects loyal.
- 2.Trade enabled the Mutapas to buy more cattle and grain to increase their wealth and food security.
- 3.The military power of the inner core of the Mutapa helped them to conquer other areas and bring them under central authority.
- 4.Smaller ethnic groups joined the Mutapa kingdom because of its military strength and food security.
- 5.The Mutapas and Mutapa people got new goods and crops from the Portuguese, for example, cloth, beads, jewellery, maize seeds, sweet potatoes etc.
- 6.The Portuguese introduced new farming and mining methods to the Mutapa State.

### **Other Effects of the Portuguese activities on the Mutapa state**

- The Mutapa people were exploited during the process of trading (ie) trade was unfair to the Mutapa people.
- African cultures and traditions were disturbed and foreign cultures were imposed on Africans.
- Depletion of African resources.
- Loss of land among the Mutapa people.
- The Mutapa people were forced to work in the Portuguese mines and farms, and some of them were sold to the East African slave trade.

Abuse of African women (i.e) sexual molestation of the Mutapa women by the Portuguese.

### **The Decline (Fall of the Mutapa State)**

- Civil wars, conflicts and succession disputes contributed most to the decline of the Mutapa State. The Portuguese took advantage of these wars to interfere in the Mutapa politics.
- There were power struggles within the Mutapa State and vassal chiefs rose against the ruling Mutapa.
- These wars weakened the State politically and militarily.
- Shortage of salt and minerals led to a decline in trade in the Mutapa State.
- The State was very large and it was difficult for one king to control it.
- There were outbreaks of epidemics and plagues which killed many people in the Mutapa State.

What led to the collapse of the Mutapa Empire? Give detailed reasons for your answer.

**Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State any six factors which promoted the development of the Mutapa state. [6]  
 (b) Describe the origins and development of the Mutapa state. [11]  
 (c) How important was the role played by Nyatsimba Mutota in the formation of the Mutapa state? [8]
- 2(a) State any six uses of cattle in the Mutapa State. [6]  
 (b) Describe the economic activities of the Mutapa state. [11]  
 (c) To what extent was trade important in the economy of the Mutapa state? [8]
- 3a) Name any six Portuguese nationals who visited the Mutapa state. [6]  
 b) Describe the Mutapa – Portuguese relations. [11]  
 c) To what extent were these relations responsible for the Mutapa decline? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 4**

### **THE TORWA STATE**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Discuss the origins of the state
- b) Describe the political organisation of the state
- c) Account for the decline of the state:

#### **Origins:**

Some of the people who moved west of Great Zimbabwe founded a new State in the land called Butwa (Butua). Butwa is in the South- Western part of Zimbabwe and parts of Botswana across the Shashe River.

The name Torwa (which means “strangers”) was given to the rulers of this new state by eastern Shona in Portuguese documents.

#### **The Capital of the Torwa State:**

From about 1450 to about 1644AD, the capital was a stone- walled town of khami, just west of modern Bulawayo. Khami was smaller than Great Zimbabwe. So, like the Mutapa State, the Torwa State grew when the Great Zimbabwe state lost its power.

The ruling classes of the South-West grew even stronger. The Torwa State was wealthy enough to build many Zimbabwe all over the south- west. Like the Great Zimbabwe State no actual names of the rulers are known. The Portuguese provide part of the information on the Torwa State.

Information on the Torwa or Khami State is from archaeology and architecture (design or style of buildings).

The builders at Khami (Kame) used masonry skills developed at Great Zimbabwe. However, they did not build high, bare, stone walls like the walls at Great Zimbabwe and Chomunanga.

The houses of the ruling class were built on small hills. The builders enlarged these hills with stones and earth, to make wide platforms in place. The masons made all sorts of patterns in the walls, for example, chevrons, herring bones, checker work and lines of colored stones – a new type of architecture.

Houses surrounded by courtyards were built, separated by walls made of pole and dagga (not stone like Great Zimbabwe).

#### **Economic Organisation**

Not much is known about the society or economy of the Torwa State. Archaeologists dug out pieces of Chinese, Persian and Portuguese pottery. Laboratory tests show these were made in the 17<sup>th</sup> century. They indicate that there were some trade with Portuguese at Sena on the Zambezi. The Portuguese did not necessarily travel to the Torwa. The Mwenyi (Arab Muslims) from the east African coast brought goods to trade with the Torwa rulers.

It is clear that the Portuguese had driven the Mwenyi from the Mutapa markets. As a result, the Mwenyi moved to the South West to trade with the Torwa rulers.

The Mwenyi wanted new trade areas. They also wanted new sources of gold to buy and export. It was also necessary to avoid places where their rivals, the Portuguese were not active.

The Torwa State was known for its large herds of cattle and for its many gold mines.

## **Factfile**

### **The 1644 Civil War**

This probably occurred as a result of succession disputes. The Portuguese intervened in the civil war and Christian missionaries left a large cross on the ground at Khami—a feature which is present even today.

The victors in the war then moved the capital to Danangombe (later called Dhlodhlo) less than a hundred kilometers to the east. The old town, as was usual, when abandoning a village, was burnt down.

Danangombe and the nearby fort at Naletale were small-top towns with perhaps the most beautiful stone, had been weakened by the civil war and was probably divided between rival chiefdoms.

Like the Mutapa and Great Zimbabwe States, as well as all other Later Iron Age States of Southern Africa, the Torwa State was organized on the Maziza system of cattle ownership, sometimes called cattle feudalism.

This is because, the system was similar to those in the feudal states of Europe and Asia.

The only difference is that, the system was based on land ownership, not on cattle.

The Politics and the laws of the state were seen in terms of cattle keeping and exchange. Rulers “owned” and “lent” cattle. Husbands gave cattle to their wives’ families in order to “own” the children born to the wives.

People traded or raided for cattle, and regarded cattle as wealth. As already shown, cattle were not the only form of wealth.

It was gold and ivory, and trade goods from the Indian Ocean, which caused Later Iron Age States like Torwa to grow so big.

NB: All the Later Iron Age States flourished as long as they could control these forms of wealth and could ensure that there was enough food to feed their people.

The common people produced these forms of wealth but the rulers took this wealth from them by making them pay tribute (tax) and by making sure that only they, the rulers, traded with foreigners.

Like the Great Zimbabwe and Mutapa States, the Torwa State shows the power and ability of the rulers who organized or managed the labourers and crafts people who built the beautiful stone walls already noted.

Unlike the Great Zimbabwe and Mutapa walls which show great labour, rather than great skill, in the size and number of stone blocks piled up, the Torwa walls are often smaller, but show greater skill in the shaping and decoration of stone blocks and in the way that they were piled up.



### **Political Organisation**

The Torwa ruler lived in great privacy, above the town, that is on the hilltop. The ruler's court at Khami was surrounded by nine smaller Zimbabwe – the homes of other members of the ruling class.

The Torwa ruling class built at least 80 other Zimbabwe at the same time as Khami and scattered all over the territory of the Torwa State, although some are very small.

The ruling class lived apart from the ordinary people. Archaeologists uncovered great indicators of the wealth of the ruler, for example, part of the royal regalia found in 1947 in the ruler's secret room included the following:

- i) Seven copper spears, each of a different design.
- ii) Iron spears
- iii) Iron axes, one with a wooden handle, covered in beaten copper sheets.
- iv) Small ivory carvings of lions and leopards from the tops of ceremonial staffs.
- v) A set of carved ivory divining dice.
- vi) Drinking pots decorated with traditional red and black patterns.

The Torwa started as a powerful state. At the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> century, it was strong and ambitious enough to try and interfere in the Mutapa State. When the Mutapas were struggling to write their state, a Changamire possibly from the Torwa took control of the Mutapa State in about 1490 only to be driven out of the Mutapa territory finally in about 1547.

### **State Officials**

Like the Great Zimbabwe and Mutapa States, the following state officials must be noted.

- i) The ruler/ King
- ii) Elders/ advisory council (dare)
- iii) Priests (religions leaders) for example spirit mediums.
- iv) Soldiers- military commander
- v) Masons
- vi) Traditional historians

### **The Decline of the State**

Hundred years after 1547, Torwa suffered from its own disputes. The ruling class disagreed about who should be ruler. Torwa was also trying to stop Mwenyi traders within the state who were becoming too powerful.

A defeated Torwa ruler fled to the Portuguese feira (trading post) in 1644. He asked a Portuguese prazero. Sisimundo Sias Bayao, to help him regain his power. Bayao agreed to invade Torwa with his army and was the first Portuguese to do so. He was driven out.

It is when these disputes were going on that the capital at Khami was probably destroyed by fire, resulting in the loss of royal regalia. It also led to the relocation of the Torwa capital Danangombe where a new Zimbabwe was built – smaller than Khami.

The Stone work was even more richly decorated. The relocation of the capital possibly led to loss of control of the lands west of the Bembesi (Mbembesi) river.

**Examination type questions**

- 1) Discuss the factors that led to the establishment of the Torwa State.
- 2) Compare and contrast the civilizations of the Great Zimbabwe, Mutapa and Torwa empires
- 3) To what extent were cattle important in the Torwa communities?
- 4) Was there any link between the Torwa state and the Mutapa Empire? Give reasons for your answers

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## **CHAPTER 5**

### **THE ROZVI STATE**

#### **Chapter Objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Account for the rise and expansion of the Rozvi
- b) Describe the political, social and economic organization of the state
- c) Discuss the significance of cattle in Rozvi society
- d) Outline the factors leading to the fall of the state
- e) Analyse the role of Mfecane in the Rozvi decline.

#### **The Rozvi State**

##### **Origins**

The Rozvi State was formed as a result of a successful rebellion against the Mutapa State by Changamire Dombo, who rose to power between 1648 and 1695AD. Historians relied on the following sources on the Rozvi.

1. Portuguese documents
2. Oral tradition
3. Archaeology

##### **Portuguese Documents**

The Portuguese records first mention the Changamire Dombo in 1864. When there was a civil war, he helped one side. Dombo may have been leading the other side against the Portuguese. As a result, very little is known about Dombo's background. Possibly, he may have been the descendent of a Torwa Changamire or leader. Some Portuguese records say he was once a cow herd of a Mutapa ruler. They also present him as a wizard, or magician.

NB: Historians do not agree about the Rozvi. Some historians say that the Rozvi were outsiders who invaded the South – West. Others say they (Rozvi) were the people of Torwa, with a new name Rozvi, meaning “warriors” or “destroyers”.

Different arguments on the Rozvi:

- a) The Rozvi are believed to have been subjects of the Mutapa. Some historians believe that the Rozvi came from the area between Mutapa and Torwa. They argue that the Rozvi invaded Torwa and conquered it.

Two Portuguese documents, written in 1684 and 1696 support this explanation. Some Rozvi traditions seem to say the same thing though both sources are vague.

- b) Other historians offer a simpler explanation. They take the Rozvi and Torwa as the same people and Rozvi as just a new name for Torwa. These historians argue that there was no

invasion or conquest – implying that the old Torwa State continued but under a new name. It is however, agreed that Rozvi ruled, (invaders or not), ruled Torwa after 1680.

a) Changamire Dombo may have come from a family with special religious or military duties, or he could have become rich and powerful through ownership of cattle.

b) Changamire Dombo may have had all the above things and may have had some links with Mutapa State.

### **Oral Tradition**

1. By the end of the 15<sup>th</sup> century, the collapse of the Mutapa State was complete.
2. First, Dombo, the reigning Changamire deprived the Torwa line of its authority in Mbire (refer to the Mutapa: political organization) – its fate is unknown.
3. Following a campaign south across the Limpopo, Dombo took advantage of the weakness of the Mutapa State, the bad relations between the Mwene Mutapas and the Portuguese to respond to the call of Nyakunembire (1692- 4) to drive out the Portuguese from his country.
4. Dombo waged a ruthlessly effective campaign right up to the Zambezi Valley.
5. In the process, the Mwene Mutapa's authority, though returned to its legitimate heirs, was reduced to the status of a district chief.
6. The Mwene Mutapa became a puppet of the Portuguese living close to their valley strongholds.
7. Dombo's military successes forced the Portuguese dominant in the interior.
8. As a result of this situation, the Changamire emerged from obscurity and being named in contemporary Portuguese documents.
9. Thereafter, Dombo withdrew to Guruhuswa, away from the Portuguese whose African or mulatto trading agents reached Guruhuswa from Zumbo.
10. Oral traditions also make many claims about the special powers of the Rozvi Changamire or mambo – it is said that he could make rain, or make soldiers brave, or change the colour of cattle.

### **Archaeological**

Archaeological records show that the period, 17<sup>th</sup> to early 19<sup>th</sup> centuries was of great architectural activity in the valley at Great Zimbabwe.

Elsewhere in Guruhuswa, the stone buildings at Danangombe (Dhlodhlo) and Khame date from this period, – a prosperous time.

### **Names of kings who ruled the Rozvi State**

Changamire Dombo  
 Mambo Chirisamhuru  
 Changamire Rupanda Mananga  
 Changamire Nechasike  
 Changamire Nechagadzike

### **Towns/ Capitals established by the Rozvi on the Zimbabwean Plateau**

Khami

Naletale  
 Danangombe  
 Manyanga (Thabazika Mambo)

### **Reasons for the rise and growth of the Rozvi state**

- The Rozvi grew out of several Shona dynasties.
- The Rozvi were able to defeat the Portuguese and drive them back to their former settlements at Masekesa.
- After the defeat, the Portuguese agreed to come under the authority of the Mambo (Rozvi Ruler).
- The Rozvi defeated the Torwa and the Torwa were taken into the Rozvi leadership.
- The Chiefs who were defeated by the Rozvi started paying tribute to the Rozvi King.
- The Rozvi extended their rule over non Rozvi people through intermarriages.
- The Ndau, Zezuru and Karanga people voluntarily joined the Rozvi State for protection against the Portuguese.
- The Rozvi were able to amass wealth and power and become the dominant state in the area.
- The Rozvi were also skillful fighters, they were able to defeat and incorporate several Shona groups.
- The Rozvi also controlled long distance trade along the Zambezi valley.

### **Activity**

What led to the rise of the Rozvi State?

### **The Political Organisation of the Rozvi State**

The Rozvi rulers were known as Mambos or Changamires. The Mambo was the head of state. The title Mambo was hereditary and succession to the Rozvi throne was collateral meaning that when the founder chief died, the chieftainship went to his eldest son. The Mambo settled disputes between families. The Rozvi State was divided into provinces and districts. These were ruled by provincial and district chiefs. The King was the one with the power to install new chiefs. Chiefs Collected tribute on behalf of the King. Tribute was also paid by vassal chiefs as a sign of loyalty and allegiance to the King. Those who refused to pay tribute were punished by the Tumbare (Military leader). When a Mambo died, the Tumbare stood in his place until a new Mambo was appointed. The power of the state lay on the hands of the army and the King used the army to punish rebellious subjects and to stamp authority in his Kingdom. The King had advisers who helped in the administration of the State, like priests and military commanders. The King was the commander in chief of the army. He was the head of the Judiciary and he conducted all the religious ceremonies in the Rozvi Kingdom. The King also distributed land in the Rozvi Kingdom. Chiefs (Ishe) were in charge of chiefdoms and were appointed by the King (Mambo). Under the Chiefs were headmen (Sadunhu).

### **Military Organistaion**

The Rozvi army used bows and arrows, as well as spears and battle – axes. The military commander was known as the Tumbare, and was closely related to Mambos or Changamires. The Rozvi devised very useful military or war formations. The Rozvi soldiers often formed a half circle around their enemy – a battle formation which was later used by the Zulu leader Tshaka 100 years later.

The Rozvi soldiers also used assegais and wooden clubs. They used shields made from cow hide. The Mambos often received guns as tribute from the Portuguese and as a result, the most high – ranking Rozvi officials, had guns and knew how to use them.

### **Activity**

Describe the social and political organization of the Rozvi Empire

### **The Economic Organisation of the Rozvi State**

The backbone of the Rozvi economy was agriculture (crop cultivation) and Pastoralism.

#### **1. Pastoralism (Cattle Ranching)**

The Rozvi State built up a large herd of cattle in the 18<sup>th</sup> century.

#### **The importance of cattle to the Rozvi**

- Cattle were for feeding the growing population, army and visitors in the Rozvi State.
- Cattle were used to bring extra numbers of people to the Rozvi houses through the payment of bride price.
- Cattle provided the Rozvi people with meat, milk, skins etc.
- They were used for the payment of bride price (lobola).
- Cattle were used as drought animals.
- They were used in trade and for the payment of tribute.
- Cattle were slaughtered during ceremonies.

#### **2. Crop Cultivation**

Grain surplus was for feeding the population, army, subject peoples and for the payment of tribute. The Rozvi people cultivated finger millet, Bulrush millet and sorghum. Later, the Rozvi started cultivating crops that were introduced by the Portuguese for example maize, groundnuts, cowpeas, sweet potatoes, paw paws etc.

#### **3. Mining**

The Rozvi people mined gold, iron, and copper which was used for trade, payment of tribute and for making jewellery.

#### **4. Hunting**

Hunting in the Rozvi State was done for the purpose of getting ivory, meat and skins from wild animals. Skins were needed for the payment of annual tribute to the Mambo. Hunting was also enjoyed as a sport in the Rozvi State.

#### **5. Trade**

By the 18<sup>th</sup> Century the Rozvi had established trade links with the Portuguese on the Zambezi Valley around Zumbo. Foreign trade enabled the Rozvi to get items such as beads, seashells, cloth, chinaware, candles, brandy, jewellery, maize seeds and new crops – The Rozvi used gold, ivory, animal skins, cattle, grain, baskets and iron implements for trade.

#### **6. Tribute**

Chiefs paid tribute to the Mambo as a sign of respect, loyalty and submission to the ruling king. Tribute was paid in ivory, gold, skins, pangolins, grain, cattle, hoes etc. Those who refused to pay tribute were punished by the Rozvi army which was an important instrument for enforcing tribute payment.

### 7. **Blacksmithing**

There were small scale industries in the Rozvi State that produced knives, razors, bracelets, chains etc. These also produced tools and weapons such as spears, arrowheads, hoe heads etc.

### 8. **Spinning and weaving**

Indigenous cotton was woven to produce cloth in the Rozvi State.

### 9. **Pottery and Basketry**

Potters made claypots and baskets were also made for domestic use. Some of the claypots and baskets were used as trade items.

10. Division of labour to enhance efficiency – women did the cultivation of crops and gathering of wild fruits and berries while their male counterparts herded cattle, mined minerals, hunted wild animals etc.

### 11. **Fishing**

Those who lived near major rivers and lakes practiced fishing to supplement their diet.

### 12. **Gathering**

This was a social activity done by women to supplement the day to day diet of the Rozvi people. Men did the hunting of wild animals while women gathered wild fruits and vegetables.

### 13. **Raiding**

Raiding was not all that pronounced in the Rozvi State, but those who refused to pay tribute were attacked by the army and cattle, grain, ivory, skins etc were forcibly taken away from them.

### **Activity**

What kind of relations did the Rozvi have with other communities? Give examples to support your answer.

### **Social Organisation of the Rozvi**

The Rozvi were organized into individual homesteads. Related homesteads made up lineages. The inheritance and name of the Rozvi State was passed through male members. The duties of the lineage head in the Rozvi State was to ensure that ceremonies and offerings were conducted properly. There was also sexual division of labour within the Rozvi State.

#### **Male Social Duties**

herding cattle  
building houses  
making tools  
skinning animals

#### **Female Social Duties**

looking after children  
cooking  
gathering firewood and wild  
fruits

milking cows

fetching water  
making pottery.

Those houses that had more people especially daughters in the Rozvi State, got wealthy by demanding lobola (bride price) from the non- Rozvi lineages. Cattle were important in the Rozvi State for providing the population with food and for accumulation of wealth. Separate homesteads were related because of the Moyo totem. The Rozvi believed in Mwari and the importance of ancestors and spiritual beings. The Shona priests were an important link in the society between the living people and the spiritual world. The Rozvi believed that spirits lived in mountains, big pools of water, thick forests etc.

The King gave cattle to those who did not have any cattle to use manure, milk, - a system called Kuronzera. Those who owned many cattle and the means of production had many wives. The Rozvi sang and danced on important occasions and religious ceremonies.

The Rozvi believed in the ancestral spirits. These were praised or appeased through the spirit mediums who communicated with the ancestors on behalf of the people. It was believed that the Mambo descended from Mwari. The political authority of the Mambo was allied with religion. The territorial medium was used for solving succession crises. The Shona priests were an important link between the society and the spiritual world. Some of the Rozvi people believed that spirits lived in mountains, big pools of water and thick forests.

### **Rozvi relations with other people**

The Rozvi made local people follow Rozvi customs. This reduced any possibility of a rebellion or uprising against the Rozvi Kingdom. People who adopted the Rozvi customs were Mutema, Chikanga, Mutasa, Makoni etc.

### **Activity**

Assess the role of the Nguni invasions on the decline of the Rozvi state

### **The Decline of the Rozvi State**

The decline of the Rozvi State was due to several factors. Civil wars, conflicts and succession disputes contributed most to the decline of the Rozvi State. The Nguni incursions however sounded a death knell to a state that was already in decline. The factors that led to the decline of the Rozvi State were:

- Civil wars
  - Sporadic droughts
  - Economic decline
  - The Mambos failed to keep the state intact and as a result, many groups of people broke away from the state.
  - Diseases and Famines.
  - Succession disputes with Chikanga and Barwe chiefs.
  - Portuguese invasions, which weakened the Rozvi State politically and militarily.
  - Failure to fully incorporate some chiefdoms like the Kalanga.
  - The State had grown too big to be led by one King. It had many political divisions.
- Disruption of trade by the Portuguese.
- The Rozvi State was attacked by the Nguni groups which included Nyamazana, Nxaba, Zwangendaba etc.



-Nyamazana entered the Rozvi State, defeated the Rozvi army and killed Changamire Chirisamhuru. This left the Rozvi people leaderless and it caused a civil war.  
 -By the time the Ndebele arrived, the Rozvi State was already weak.  
 The Ndebele cast a fatal blow to the Rozvi State. The Ndebele State became the successor of the Shona speaking Changamire Rozvi State.

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) Name six Rozvi rulers. [6]  
 (b) Describe the rise and expansion of the Rozvi state. [11]  
 (c) How important was the role played by Changamire Dombo in the rise and expansion of the Rozvi state? [8]
- 2a) Name any six Rozvi capitals. [6]  
 b) Describe the political organisation of the Rozvi state. [11]  
 c) How important was the Rozvi army as an apparatus for state control? [8]
- 3(a) List any six economic activities of the Rozvi people. [6]  
 (b) Describe the Rozvi economy. [11]  
 (c) To what extent was agriculture important in the economy of the Rozvi people? [8]
- 4(a) State any six male duties in the Rozvi state. [6]  
 (b) Describe the social organisation of the Rozvi people. [11]  
 (c) How fair was the treatment given to women in the Rozvi state? [8]
- 5(a) List any six factors which led to the fall of the Rozvi state. [6]  
 (b) Describe factors which led to the fall of the Rozvi state. [11]  
 (c) To what extent was the Mfecane responsible for the decline of the Rozvi state? [8]

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## CHAPTER 6

### THE NGUNI SOCIETIES BEFORE THE MFECANE (SOUTH OF THE LIMPOPO)

#### Chapter Objectives:

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Describe the Nguni chieftaincies before Mfecane
- b) Describe the organisation of the early Nguni society
- c) Discuss the causes and impact of Mfecane on Southern Africa states

#### Origins

There is much that we still do not know about the origins of the four Bantu communities of Southern Africa:

- a) The Nguni
- b) The Sotho
- c) The Venda
- d) The Tsonga

From the excavations made at some of the sites south of the Limpopo, archaeologists believe that the Iron Age reached the area south of the Limpopo by about A.D. 1000 and perhaps earlier.

1. At Matokoma 9<sup>th</sup> century pottery fragments were found which were like pottery of the Zimbabwe Gokomere culture (whereas the Gokomere people were established in Rhodesia by the fourth century A.D.
2. There are distinct similarities between pottery discovered at Bambandyanalo and that made by potters of the Leopard's Kopje culture of Rhodesia.
3. The men who lived at Bambandyanalo, Mapungubwe and other places in the northern Transvaal were either descendants of Leopard's Kopje people or in common with them, were descended from earlier Iron Age inhabitants of Zimbabwe.

- a) The Nguni: Chieftaincies before the Mfecane: copy introduce on page 98 – study pack.

By 1800 the Nguni – speaking people of Southern Africa lived along the eastern edge of the region between St Lucia Bay and the Great Fish River.

Inland, their territory was bordered by the Drakensberg Mountains. Within the Nguni community there were many groups each one speaking a different dialect.

#### The more powerful of these groups were:

- i) Ndwandwe
- ii) Mthethwa
- iii) Zulu
- iv) Khumalo

- i) Hlubi
- ii) Zizi
- iii) Qwabe
- iv) Bhaca
- v) Mpondo
- vi) Xhosa
- vii) Thembu
- viii) Bhele

It is not yet possible to describe the origins of all these major Nguni sub- divisions but something of the general Nguni migration patterns.

The Nguni – speakers travelled from the north – west in a series of migrants. They traveled through the mountain passes probably in clan groups seeking pasture for their cattle, goats and sheep. They were farmers and hunters as well as herders but it was their cattle which they valued most highly.

### **The Political Organisation of the Nguni**

The chief among the Nguni was both a political and a spiritual leader. The duties of a chief were to allocate both agricultural and grazing land to various family homesteads. The chief also tried legal cases and settled family disputes. In administering the state (chieftaincy), the chief was assisted by a council. The chiefs' right-hand man was an Induna who told the chief what was going on within the chiefdom and reported any complaints and dissatisfaction among the people. In the absence of the chief, the Induna carried out the duties of a chief until the chief returned. Succession disputes and splits within the ruling lineages were frequent. The chief also tried legal cases and conducted national ceremonies i.e. he was the Head of Judiciary and religion.

### **Initiation Ceremonies**

The ceremonies marked a stage where youngmen and women became adults. Young men were taken from all homesteads within a chieftaincy and circumcised. This maintained close links between scattered homesteads. Young men were formed into age regiments and could be called upon to do communal work or warfare. As chiefdoms increased in size, wars also increased and the role of age regiments became more important.

-Initiation ceremonies were done to prepare the boys for their adult duties as husbands and fathers, as cattle herders, fighters and loyal citizens of the chiefdoms.

-Girls went through similar initiation ceremonies to prepare them for womanhood within the Nguni society.

-The initiation ceremonies started at the age of fourteen and fifteen.

-The boys were circumcised and they went to live in a specially built hut in the countryside. They lived there for up to six months without any contact with their families.

-They were under an instructor who taught them the customs and traditions of chiefdom.

-They were not allowed to see any woman during this period.

-The boys were severely beaten by the instructor if they broke any of the rules.

### **Age Regiments**

From the initiation ceremonies, young men formed age regiments.

This meant that they gathered together to perform public duties for the chief. These duties included cultivating the chief's fields.

- Hunting wild game for the chief.
- Going for wars.
- The regiments defended the chiefdom against enemies.
- They also raided cattle against enemies. Age regiments made youngmen to be patriotic. This created unity and strength within the Kingdom.

#### b)The Sotho:

1. By 1800AD Sotho peoples occupied most the area north – west of the Drakensberg and Maloti (Maluti) Mountains between the Orange and Limpopo Rivers.
2. Like the Nguni, they seem to have come in numbers of migrational waves and like the Nguni they were racially mixed people.
3. They came from the North West and their area if eventual settlement was decided by geography. By 1800 some of the Sotho groups were the most skilful peoples of Southern Africa.
4. They made tools, weapons and decorative items out of metal, wood and ivory and fine clothes from animal skins.

By 1800 these goods had become important items of trade parts of south – east Africa.

#### The Venda

1. The Venda is a very small population, numbering about a quarter of a million people. But in terms of language and culture, they are distinct from other South African Bantu.
2. There are very close ritual and cultural similarities between the Venda ruling clans and those of Ngonde and Nyakusa of northern Malawai.
3. Probably some Ngonde chiefs left their homeland and began moving southwards sometime in the sixteenth of seventeenth century.
4. They arrived south of the Limpopo around the end of the seventeenth century.
5. They conquered the hunter- gatherers whom they drove out or subjugated.
6. The Venda had a magic war drum which, they believed, gave them victory over their enemy.
7. The Venda's easy conquest of their predecessors can be explained by their better weapons, and better social and political organisation. They built in stone, and they introduced fire to the region.

#### The Lemba (Remba)

1. The Venda probably learned some of their skills from the Lemba. The Lemba were a small group, quite distinct from Venda but living in a symbiotic relationships with them.
2. They had been conquered or absorbed into the Venda system at an earlier stage. They were certainly more advanced culturally than their overlords, whom they called Va Senzi (Shenji) – “primitive”.
3. The Lemba were fine craftsmen in wood, clay gold, iron, copper as well as being skilled weavers. They traded these goods with the Venda and with neighbouring people.
4. Control of Lemba trade was another reason for the wealth and therefore, power of the Venda rulers.

## **The Nguni Economy**

The main pillars of the Nguni economy were:

1. Cattle rearing
2. Crop cultivation
3. Hunting
4. Raiding

### **Cattle Rearing**

The Nguni kept large herds of cattle

- Cattle were important for providing the population with meat, milk and hides.
- Cattle were used for the accumulation of wealth and for the payments of bride prices.
- Cattle were used as a mode of transport.
- They were slaughtered during traditional ceremonies.
- Skins of cattle were used for clothing.

### **2. Crop Cultivation**

The Nguni cultivated sorghum, pumpkins, calabashes, mealons, cocoyam etc. Crop cultivation was important for feeding the growing population.

### **3. Hunting**

- Hunting was done among the Nguni to get meat, ivory and skins.
- Cowhides and skins of wild animals were used for clothing.
- Hunting was also done as a sport among the Nguni. Hunting weapons included iron spears, bows, arrows, clubs, axes etc.

### **4. Trade**

The Nguni traded with the Portuguese at Delagoa Bay. They traded in ivory, baskets, cattle, skins, grain in return for iron, copper bangles, jewellery, bracelets, beads etc.

### **5. Blacksmithing**

The Nguni blacksmiths produced iron implements and tools such as iron, spearheads, hoes, axes, knives, razors etc.

### **b) Tribute**

Weaker chieftaincies and subject peoples paid tribute to the Nguni chiefs or rulers in cattle, grain, skins, ivory etc.

### **7. Pottery and basketry (craftwork)**

The Nguni practiced both pottery and craftwork to make clay pots, baskets etc.

### **8. Raiding**

Weaker states were raided by the stronger states for cattle, grain, young men, women and children.

### **9. Division of Labour**

Division of labour was done to enhance efficiency. Women cultivated crops and raised children while men herded cattle, hunted wild animals and raided neighbouring communities.

#### **Activity**

- a) Describe the organization of Nguni societies before the Mfecane
- b) Describe the causes of Mfecane in Nguni societies.

### **The Social Organisation of the Nguni**

#### **Houses and Homesteads**

The Nguni lived in bee-hive shaped houses like those of the Khoikhoi, made of grass and reeds. A number of these houses were placed around a circular cattle kraal to form a family homestead. Women were not allowed to enter into a cattle kraal. The cattle kraal was used for the trial of legal cases and for discussing important matters affecting the state. There was sexual division of labour among the Nguni. The duties of women were to raise children, fetch water, cook etc while their male counterparts built shelter, milked and herded cattle. The Nguni were also exogamous and polygamous, they only allowed marriage outside the extended family circles. This enabled the absorption of other groups of people into the Nguni families. The Nguni believed in a single supreme God.

They believed that the worship of God was through the ancestral spirits. The Nguni also believed that the chief had a direct contact with the spiritual world, so it was the chief's role to use spiritual contacts to ensure adequate rainfall, good harvest, healthy cattle etc. the Nguni also sang and danced during traditional ceremonies.

#### **The Nguni Chieftaincies before the Mfecane**

The word "Nguni" refers to a group of Bantu languages. The Nguni speaking peoples were Iron age herders and farmers. The Nguni groups lived in the South Eastern Region of Southern Africa between the Drakensburg mountains and the Indian Ocean.

The Nguni States (Chieftaincies) found between the Drakensburg mountains and the Indian Ocean were:

Ngwane	Qwabe
Ndwandwe	Bhaca
Mthethwa	Mpondo
Zulu	Xhosa
Khumalo	Thembu
Hlubi	Bhele
Zizi	

#### **The Mfecane**

Mfecane was the time of "crushing" or trouble caused by a series of wars that took place among the Northern Nguni peoples of South Eastern Africa. During the 1820's and 1830's armies and people from these wars migrated from South Eastern Africa. As they migrated, they defeated other groups of people on the way. The destruction and effects of these wars were felt in Southern and Central Africa.

## **Causes of the Mfecane**

### **1. Population growth**

As the population grew and herds of cattle increased among the Northern Nguni peoples, there was competition for grazing land and land for cultivation. The Nguni chieftaincies began to co-operate with each other to form larger political Kingdoms like the Ndwandwe, Ngwane, and Mthethwa that began fighting small chieftaincies to get grazing and land for cultivation.

### **2. Age Regiments (Development of the Age regiment system)**

Age regiments were drafted into the army and so competition for land increased. The role of the army became more important in attacking and destroying neighbouring weak states.

### **3. Hunting and Trade**

The growing demand for ivory and the desire to control long distance trade at the Delagoa Bay. Trade increased the wealth of the state, so armies were raised to control trading areas and to raid other neighbouring states for cattle that were used for trade.

### **4. Madlatule Famine (Drought 1800 – 1812)**

The famine led to competition for scarce resources as people raided each other for cattle and grain.

Amabutho were needed for hunting wild animals for meat as well as for trade.

### **5. Whitemen Influence**

Dingiswayo learnt the whitemen's methods of military organization. Dingiswayo implemented the regimental organization among the Mthethwa and these regiments began raiding and defeating smaller and weaker states.

### **Emergence of Powerful Kingdoms (Ndwandwe, Ngwane, Mthethwa)**

The Ndwandwe began attacking neighbouring states to seize livestock, and to incorporate young adults into the army. In this way Zwibe built up a powerful Kingdom – Ndwandwe.

### **7. Tshaka's Menace (The rise of the Zulu Kingdom)**

By the 1820's, the Zulu Kingdom had emerged to dominate all the states and Kingdoms in the region. Tshaka's continued raids and attacks on other groups led to the migration of the Ndebele from Nguniland as well as the Sotho and other Nguni groups.

### **Influence of the Boers from Cape**

Some historians argue that the migration of the Ndebele from Transvaal was due to continuous raids by the Boers from Cape Town.

Desire to control grazing lands and hunting grounds.

Development of advanced military tactics which promoted aggression.

## **The beginnings of the Mfecane**

In 1816 Ndwandwe's armies under Zwide attacked the Ngwane and drove Sobhuza's Ngwane Northwards from the Pongola. Sobhuza fled with his people and forces and founded the Kingdom of Swaziland (Swazi Kingdom).

In 1818 the Ndwandwe armies attacked the Mthethwa to seize hunting grounds and trade routes. Dingiswayo of the Mthethwa was however separated from his army and killed and the Mthethwa armies were scattered.

The Ndwandwe dominance was soon challenged by the Zulu Kingdom under the leadership of Tshaka.

#### **Groups that fled from Nguniland and their leaders due to the Mfecane**

<b>Group</b>	<b>Leader</b>	<b>Country of Destination</b>
Ndebele	Mzilikazi	Zimbabwe
Ngwane	Sobhuza	Swaziland
Sotho	Moshoeshoe	Lesotho
Kololo	Sebetwane	Zambia
Gaza	Soshangane	Mozambique
Jere- Ngoni	Zwangendaba	Tanzania/Malawi
Tlokwa	Manthantis	Botswana
Maseko Ngoni	Nxaba	Malawi

#### **The Effects of the Mfecane**

The rise of the Zulu Kingdom and the effects of the Mfecane were felt in Southern and Central Africa as far as Zambia, DRC, Mozambique, Zaire etc.

1. Many of the Nguni Chieftaincies South of the Tugela river were destroyed by Tshaka's armies between 1821 and 1824.
2. Cattle were raided and grain destroyed.
3. Thousands of people died of wars and starvation.
4. Some survivors fled across the Drakensburg while others sought refuge on mountains for examples the Sotho.
5. The land South of the Tugela river and west of Drakensburg became depopulated.
6. The Mfecane encouraged European settlers to come in and colonise the area as continuous wars seriously weakened the states.
7. The Wars of the Mfecane resulted in the creation of several new and powerful Kingdoms for example the Sotho under Moshoeshoe created a powerful Kingdom of Lesotho.
8. The destruction of old chiefdoms and the creation of refugees for example the Mfengu sought refuge among the Xhosa.
9. Thousands of cattle, sheep and goats were slaughtered as food for the armies.
10. Old chiefdoms were destroyed and thousands of people fled and became refugees in new areas.

#### **Effects of the Mfecane in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique, Malawi etc**

As the Mfecane groups migrated Northwards from Nguniland, they destroyed many groups of people and the survivors were incorporated into their groups and armies. Several powerful states and Kingdoms were destroyed by the Mfecane groups due to advanced military tactics and strategy. In Zimbabwe, the local Rozvi people were defeated and seriously weakened by the Ngoni. When the Ndebele arrived in Zimbabwe, they replaced the Rozvi political structures with theirs, incorporated the Rozvi people and the Rozvi began to pay tribute to them. The Rozvi social way of life was disturbed because the Rozvi adopted the Ndebele language, cultures and customs. The Rozvi were also constantly raided by the Ndebele for cattle, grain, youngmen and children. In Mozambique Soshangane also destroyed the local



Chopi and Tsonga groups and these also began to be subservient to the Gaza people. There was also the caste system which deprived the local people of their individual freedom which they had and enjoyed before the coming of the Nguni groups.

### **Activity**

- a) What were the effects of the Mfecane on Nguni societies? Give examples for your answers.
- b) How true is it to claim that the Mfecane had profound and far reaching effects on society?

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State any six factors which promoted the Mfecane in Nguniland. [6]
- (b) Describe the development of the Mfecane. [11]
- (c) To what extent can the Mfecane be regarded a force for negative change? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 7**

### **THE ZULU STATE**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Describe Tshaka's rise to power
- b) Describe the social and economic organisation of the state
- c) Outline Tshaka's military reforms and their impact on the political authority of the state
- d) Account for the decline of the Zulu state.

#### **Origins of the Zulu State**

Shaka was born in about 1787AD. He was the son of Senzangakhona and Nandi. During this time the Zulu were a minor clan. As a young boy, Tshaka joined the Mthethwa age regiment and he proved himself a brave and able soldier.

Dingiswayo put Tshaka in charge of one of his regiments because of his proven abilities as a soldier. Tshaka soon became one of Dingiswayo's military advisers. When Senzangakhona died in 1816, Tshaka with the help of Dingiswayo, took over the Zulu throne from his brother Sigujana. The Zulu Chiefdom by this time was part of the Mthethwa Kingdom. Tshaka was able to turn a small Zulu chiefdom into a very strong and powerful Kingdom in Southern Africa.

#### **The Political Organisation of the Zulu**

- Tshaka was a dictator, his word was law. Tshaka consulted councilors who lived with him, but the final decision was his.
- Tshaka was the commander-in-chief of the army.
- A sense of unity and national pride within the Zulu Kingdom was cultivated by the annual inxwala, first fruits ceremonies.
- Tshaka alone conducted the first fruits ceremonies.
- Before the army could leave for an expedition, a ceremony was held where traditional magic was used to instill discipline and morale.
- Tshaka believed that war was a continuation of politics by other means.
- The army drawn from many chiefdoms helped to destroy any tendencies towards division.
- The Zulu traditions and language were encouraged to promote national unity.
- Tshaka nominated territorial and provincial chiefs, most of whom were Tshaka's relatives and family members.
- Tshaka's foreign policy was to defeat tribe after tribe so as to expand and consolidate the Zulu empire.
- Tshaka introduced a sense of nationhood among his people through national ceremonies and symbols such as Inkatha.
- Tshaka was the most feared person in the Zulu Kingdom, his word was law. He was the Head of the judiciary system.
- Tshaka placed a female relative to be in charge of the female regime. In each town she kept the King informed about the loyalty of the Induna and his regiments.
- Homesteads were organized into chieftaincies and were expected to pay tribute to the King.
- Tshaka appointed members of his family to key military positions and he conducted all religious ceremonies within the Zulu Kingdom.

### **Problems faced by Shaka as the King of the Zulu State.**

- Shaka's continuous raid against other states created many enemies against the Zulu State.
- Tshaka brutally killed many people when his mother died. His sister suspected that Tshaka was responsible for his mother's death.
- Tshaka had jealous relatives who ultimately assassinated him, for example Dingane, Mhlangana and Mkabayi.
- The High rate of executions created enemies for Tshaka among the military forces. It should be noted that even though many people were against Tshaka's policies and cruelty, discontent was driven underground among army generals because of the fear to be killed.
- Tshaka faced continuous threats from the imperialistic Boers and the British who were bent towards taking over the Zulu Kingdom.
- The break away of other states and generals for example Mzilikazi's rebellion in 1822.
- Tshaka battled to control trade routes leading to the Delagoa Bay.
- The Shortage of land led to clashes and military confrontations between the Zulu warriors and the Europeans (Boers, British).
- The military forces were tired of continuous raids and there was lack of trust on Tshaka by his military commanders.

### **Tshaka's Military Reforms**

The Methods of fighting used by the Nguni tribes and which Dingiswayo adopted had serious deficiencies according to Tshaka. The Nguni tribes used long throwing spears and small collude shields.

- Tshaka introduced a short stabbing spear called an assegai.
- He designed long shields that covered a warrior's body from head to toe.
- Tshaka used the "cow horn" formation in battles.
- The Zulu warriors were not allowed to marry until the age of forty.
- Tshaka saw the need for his forces to be lightly armed, so they just carried an assegai and a shield to increase mobility and swiftness in battles.
- Tshaka introduced permanent military service and settlement.
- Young boys acted as baggage carriers, they carried food, mats and supplies for the army.
- Tshaka made sure that the army was well fed.
- Soldiers were to go to the battlefield barefoot for mobility and speed.
- Tshaka himself directed warriors in crucial battles, he kept time with his soldiers before the battle to raise the morale in camp and their fighting spirits.
- Tshaka introduced guerilla tactics like surprise night attacks, ambush etc.
- He used a network of spies who gathered information about the enemy for the Zulu warriors.
- Tshaka also fought for the total destruction of the enemy ie. He killed men, women and children for example in the Ndwandwe – Zulu war.
- No Zulu warrior was supposed to have a stab on the back, for this was considered as cowardice.
- Cowards were punished by death.
- Tshaka banned all circumcision ceremonies.
- There was conscription of all men under the age of 40 years into the army.
- Tshaka used mock battles as training.
- He used n'angas to treat the injured.

### **Activity**

- a)Account for the rise of Tshaka

b) What was the impact of Tshaka's Military reform on the Nguni society?

### **Names of Tshaka's generals (Military Indunas)**

Dingane  
Mhlangama  
Mgobozi  
Mdlaka  
Mzilikazi

### **The Ndwandwe - Zulu War**

The Ndwandwe was the largest and strongest Kingdom in Nguniland. In 1818, the Ndwandwe under Zwibe attacked the Mthethwa of Dingiswayo. Dingiswayo was captured and killed and the Mthethwa were scattered. After Dingiswayo's defeat, Tshaka quickly brought the Mthethwa chiefdom under his control. Zwibe then decided to fight the Zulu State which was now becoming too strong and powerful. Zwibe sent his force against the Zulu, but this force was defeated and driven off by the Zulu.

Towards the end of 1818 Zwibe sent his whole army across the Mfolozi to attack the Zulu. However Tshaka used a new method of warfare i.e. "scorched earth policy". He withdrew his people and livestock, burnt grain reserves such that when the Ndwandwe army marched into the Zulu territory they found nothing to eat and they were weary and tired. Then Tshaka launched a counter attack against the tired and starving Ndwandwe army. Tshaka also used his new methods of fighting like the "cowhorn" formation, surprise night attacks and the Ndwandwe were defeated. Tshaka followed up his victory and sacked the Ndwandwe capital. Zwibe escaped and his two generals Soshangane and Zwangendaba led the remains of their armies northwards into Mozambique and present day Zimbabwe (Gazaland, Chipinge). Other tribes fled into the Sotho – Tswana area. In the last Ndwandwe – Zulu war, Tshaka fought for total annihilation, 40 000 Ndwandwes were killed, 60 000 cattle were taken, houses and kraals were burnt. Between 1818 and 1822, Tshaka continued to attack tribe after tribe and these were incorporated into the Zulu Kingdom.

### **The social organisation of the Zulu Kingdom**

There was social sexual division of labour in the Zulu Kingdom. Women cultivated crops, raised children and cooked, while men built houses, milked and herded cattle. The female regiments in the Zulu Kingdom also cultivated crops. They took part in dances during ceremonies and festivals. The Zulu sang, danced and praised during national ceremonies like inxwala and Inkatha. Women were also expected to show submission to all men, at times. The male regiments in times of peace herded the royal herds. The Zulu believed in one God, Unkulunkulu and they believed in the worship of God through the ancestral spirits.

### **Activity**

How true is the claim that Tshaka was a ruthless dictator who showed no mercy to his subjects?

Tshaka's responsibility for his own downfall

Tshaka was an absolute ruler, his absolutism impacted negatively on his rule.

-He ignored traditional chiefs and military Indunas, thus arousing resentment from them against him.

- Tshaka failed to work with his brothers and sisters who could have assisted him in the proper administration of the Zulu State.
- Frequent raids exposed Tshaka to many enemies and he lost many soldiers through continuous raids and warfare.
- Tshakas cruelty created many enemies against him in the Zulu Kingdom.
- He failed to fully absorb and incorporate small groups and chiefdoms for example Tshaka left Mzilikazi to enjoy a high level of autonomy with his Khumalo clan. This made Mzilikazi to eventually rebel and break away from the Zulu State.
- Tshaka had jealous brothers and sisters who envied Tshakas success and they plotted his assassination.
- There were ambitious leaders in the Zulu Kingdom who wanted to rule, for example Dingane and Mhlangana.
- Tshaka was an illegitimate child. He did not recognize the approval of many people as a legitimate King of the Zulu Kingdom.
- Tshaka also faced threats from the Whites (White encroachment).

## **Economic organisation**

### **1. Cattle rearing**

- In the Zulu state, cattle rearing was a key economic activity. Cattle were a symbol of power. The whole state thrived on cattle production economically. The importance of cattle was symbolized by the situation at the cattle kraal on the centre of the settlement in each village. Cattle were important to such an extent that the king was kept informed on the national figures of herds. Cattle were used for Lobola payment, payment of fines, meat provision, as drought power, as rewards for soldiers as well as rewards for outstanding performance in social and political duties in the state.

### **2. Crop Production**

- The Zulu people grew crops such as maize, sorghum, millet and others. These were useful for feeding the growing population. Crops were also used as food for soldiers who were stationed at various regimental towns (Garrisoning System).

### **3. Trade**

- The Zulu people practiced both local and long distance trade. They traded with foreigners situated at the coastal areas of the Indian Ocean. Trade was important to such an extent that the need to control trade routes led to inter-tribal wars between Nguni societies. They got items they could not manufacture in their state such as guns and clothes.

### **4. Hunting**

- Hunting was mostly practiced by men. It supplemented other economic activities such as trade and tribute payment because it provided items for these economic activities.

### **5. Raiding**

- The Zulu state was a raiding state. Raiding helped to raise state revenue. However, it was also used as a way of punishing errant leaders who deviated from rules and laws of the system of government. Raiding supplemented agriculture because it provided food for feeding the growing population. It was also a way of demonstrating the military strengths of the Zulu because soldiers demonstrated skills of fighting and dispossessing weaker groups.

### **6. Tribute**

- Sub chiefs paid annual tribute to the King. Tribute was a way of showing respect to the King. It was paid using animal hides, ivory, minerals, and labor, among other things. However, tribute was also a way of controlling the state. Errant chiefs who failed to pay tribute were usually replaced or punished because non payment of tribute was a sign of rebelling. This

therefore shows that tribute was also a way of instilling loyalty to sub chiefs and these reduced chances of rebellions in the state.

## **7. Pottery**

- They also made pottery which they used for social activities such as beer brewing and storage purposes.
- They also used products from pottery for trade both local and long distance.

## **The Decline of the Zulu State**

Tshaka's absolute rule made him pay occasional attention to his military Indunas and ignore traditional chiefs. Who were reduced to positions by his brothers Dingane and Mhlangana. In 1828 an assassination plot was arranged by Mkabayi, Dingane and Mhlangana. An opportunity arose when the army was out for a raiding mission against Soshangane. Dingane and Mhlangana returned to the royal kraal and murdered Tshaka. Dingane had Mhlangana killed and when the army returned, Dingane was in total control.

## **Results of Tshakas Rule**

He united the Zulu nation which has remained united up to this day. He inspired loyalty to himself, to the regiments and the whole nation. He created a common culture and language among the Zulu nation.

## **Factors that led to the decline of the Zulu Kingdom**

- The rulers who ruled after Tshaka's death were unable to keep the Zulu nation intact.
- White encroachment (The coming of the Dutch). The Zulu were defeated by the Dutch at the battle of Blood River.
- After the defeat, the Zulu surrendered control of areas south of the Tugela River to the Boers.
- Division among the Zulu led to the collapse of the Zulu nation.
- Dingane and his brother Mpande were divided over the Zulu throne. Mpande allied with the Boers against Dingane and Dingane was defeated and forced to flee. He was later killed by the Swazi.
- The civil wars weakened the Zulu state politically and militarily.
- Succession disputes adversely affected the Zulu nation, hence its decline.
- Cetshwayo and Mbulazi fought over Mpande's throne.
- The coming of the British led to the ultimate collapse of the Zulu nation.
- The British insisted on the destruction and disbanding of age regiments and the breaking up of the Zulu political organization.
- In 1879 the British suffered a humiliating defeat by the Zulu at the Battle of Isandiwana in which 13 000 British forces were destroyed.
- At the battle of Ulundi, the defeat of the Zulu by the British was complete and this marked the final collapse of the Zulu nation.

## **Activity**

- a) Describe the social and economic organization of the Zulu state under Tshaka.
- b) To what extent was Tshaka responsible for his own downfall?

**Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State six military reforms introduced by Tshaka. [6]  
 (b) Describe the political organisation of the Zulu state under Tshaka. [11]  
 (c) How important was the army in the Zulu government? [8]
- 2(a) Identify any six factors which promoted the decline of the Zulu state. [6]  
 (b) Describe the socio-political factors which led to the decline of the Zulu state. [11]  
 (c) To what extent was Tshaka responsible for his own downfall? [8]
- 3(a) State any six social activities of the Zulu state under Tshaka. [6]  
 (b) Describe the social organisation of the Zulu state under Tshaka. [11]  
 (c) To what extent was the social organisation of the Zulu under Tshaka responsible for the creation of a strong state? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 8.**

### **THE GAZA STATE**

#### **Chapter objectives:**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Account for the rise of the Gaza
- b) Describe Soshangane's journey from Nguniland
- c) Describe the social, political and economic organisation of the state.
- d) Explain the impact of the rise of the Gaza on the surrounding communities
- e) Discuss the fall of the state.

#### **Origins of the gaza state**

When Zwide was defeated by Tshaka in 1819, two of his generals, Soshangane and Zwangendaba fled northwards with a group of people who became known as the Nguni. Soshangane founded the Gaza State in Southern Mozambique where he became the ruler of the Nguni people. During Soshangane's migration northwards, the Nguni absorbed the Swazi. After settling in Southern Mozambique, Soshangane absorbed the Ndaus and other Shona speaking peoples. Soshangane found it a comparatively easy task to conquer the peoples of the lowlands to the east. From his capital at Chaimiti, he dispatched soldiers to invade the Manyika, the Ndaus, Chopi and other peoples of what is now Mozambique.

#### **The political organisation of the Gaza state**

- The political centre of the Gaza State was Soshangane's court. The senior councillors and Soshangane's wives lived near the court.
- The Gaza state was divided into districts ruled by Indunas. The Induna was in charge of a regiment and his role was to collect taxes every year from his district.
- The Indunas reported directly to Soshangane.
- Soshangane was connected by kingship to his Indunas and by marriage to many sub chiefs.
- Prisoners of war as well as raided cattle were brought to the king.
- The king was the supreme judge (He was the Head of the Judiciary).
- The main instrument of political control in the Gaza State was the army.
- Able-bodied men were conscripted into the traditional Nguni age regiments.
- Soshangane was the commander-in-chief of the army.
- Existing chiefs were treated as vassal subchiefs, who had to pay tribute in cattle and grain to the king.
- These were absorbed into the Gaza political system without being deprived of their means of production.

#### **Groups of people Soshangane fought on his way to Mozambique**

Pedi	Swazi
Ndaus	Shona
Zulu	Tsonga



**Amabutho**

Soshangane's soldiers were organized along the Zulu regimental lines. The Amabutho raided local Tsonga and Chopi people for grain and cattle. They also raided Portuguese trading towns of Sena and Tete. The Portuguese trading station of Inhambane was raided by Amabutho. The Portuguese lost power and were forced to pay tribute to the Gaza King. Soshangane built up a powerful military state. His raids extended over a huge area from Delagoa Bay to the Zambezi valley. The Gaza took control of the ivory trade at Sofala, Inhambane and Maputo.

**Activity**

Describe Soshangane's military reforms and their impact on surrounding communities

**The economic organisation of the Gaza state**

1. **Hunting** - elephants and rhinos were hunted for ivory, meat and skins for trade with the Portuguese at Delagoa Bay.
2. **Raiding** - the Gaza amabutho raided the local Chopi and Tsonga people for cattle, grain, youngmen, women and children.
3. **Trade** - the Gaza traded in ivory along the Zambezi Valley. They established the trading centres at Sena and Tete as well as at Delagoa Bay. In return, the Gaza got cloth, beads, jewellery, brandy etc from the Portuguese through trade.
4. **Tribute** - the Portuguese, the Kingdoms of Uteve, Manyika, the Chopi and Tsonga people paid tribute to the Gaza state. Tribute was paid in cattle, grain, ivory, skins, gold, baskets, clay pots, iron implements etc.
5. **Pastoralism** - the Gaza state had many cattle that were important for feeding the growing population and for the payment of tribute.
6. **Crop cultivation** -the Gaza people cultivated sorghum, millet, maize etc for feeding the population and for the payment of tribute and trade.
7. **Blacksmithing** - blacksmiths produced weapons and tools such as hoes, knives, razors, axes, spearheads, arrowheads etc.
8. **Craftworks** - there were potters and basket makers in the Gaza State who specialized in making clay pots and baskets for domestic use as well as for trade with the Portuguese at the Delagoa Bay.
9. **Fishing** -those who lived near major rivers, dams and lakes practiced fishing to supplement their diet.

The region where the Shangane settled was commercially flourishing. The Rozvi and Portuguese merchants met to exchange goods at inland and riverside markets as well as at the coastal trading centres.

The Shangane did not destroy this commerce but they did dominate it. The Rozvi rulers were powerless to defend the fringes of the empire because they were in the process of being smashed by Ngoni and Ndebele marauders.

The Portuguese prazeros owners fled and their estates languished. Soshangane attacked the major Portuguese settlements and trading posts. In 1833 Lourenco Marques (Maputo) was looted. In 1834 the Captain at Inhambane tried to hit the Shangane advance.

He and most of his men were left dead on the field of battle.

In 1839 the Sofala garrison was destroyed. Sena and Tete were brought under Shangane control and forced to pay tribute.

### **Activity**

Like all Nguni States the Gaza relied on raiding as the basis of their economy. Do you agree?

### **The Social Organisation of the Gaza State**

The Gaza people were divided into three social classes.

#### **1. The Nguni (Ruling Class)**

These were the original Nguni speaking people from Zululand who formed the ruling aristocracy. These were the original Ndwandwe who controlled the regiments. This class also included the relatives of the Nguni speaking people.

#### **2. Batshangane (Shangane) Middle Class**

These were people who were absorbed into the Gaza State along the way as the Gaza migrated from Nguniland to Southern Mozambique. Some of the people who made up this class were conquered people, for example, the Ndaus.

#### **3. BaTsonga (The Lowest Class)**

These were the Tsonga and Chopi peasants who were never fully absorbed into the Gaza State. These peasants were constantly raided by the Amabutho and these also paid tribute to Soshangane.

### **The Decline of the Gaza State**

Internal factors that led to the decline of the Gaza State were:

- Death of Soshangane, The Kings who ruled after Soshangane were unable to keep the Gaza State intact.
- Civil War, there was a four year civil war after the death of Soshangane between Mawewe and Mzila in 1858. Mzila won the war of succession at high costs. The war weakened the State politically and militarily.
- After 1860, control over the regiments in the Gaza State began to decline.
- There were internal rebellions that took place during the reign of Ngungunyane (Mzila's successor).
- Many groups of people who were not fully incorporated into the Gaza State broke away from the State due to civil wars and rebellions. These groups were the Shange and Bathonga.

### **External Factors**

- The Portuguese encroachment.

-The Portuguese later got involved in Gaza Politics. Their main aim was to destroy the Gaza State.

-Ngungunyane put a spirited resistance against the Portuguese, but was finally defeated by the Portuguese in 1895.

NB: Internal revolts were a major setback to the survival of the Gaza State against colonialism. The defeat of Ngungunyane by the Portuguese marked the final collapse of the Gaza State.

### **Activity**

- a) Describe the factors that contributed to the rise of the Gaza state
- b) What led to the fall of the Gaza state?

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State six groups of people Soshangane fought on his way to Mozambique. [6]
- (b) Describe the origins of the Gaza state. [11]
- (c) To what extent was Soshangane responsible for the formation of the Gaza State?
  
- 2(a) Identify six social activities of the Gaza people. [6]
- (b) Describe the social organisation of the Gaza state. [11]
- (c) To what extent did the social organisation promote unity in the Gaza state? [8]
  
- 3(a) Name six economic activities of the Gaza people. [6]
- (b) Describe economic and political activities of the Gaza people. [11]
- (c) How important were cattle in the Gaza economy? [8]

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- 1) S. Mukanya, Dynamics of History Book 3
- 2) N. Parsons, Focus on History Book 3
- 3) H. Moyana and M. Sibanda, The African Heritage Book 3
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- 5) T. Barnes (and others) People Making History Book 3
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## **CHAPTER 9 THE KOLOLO STATE**

### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Describe the establishment of Kololo rule in Balozwe
- b) Describe the organisation of the Kololo state
- c) Account for the decline of the Kololo state

### **Origins**

The Kololo were the Sotho-speaking people from the Transorangia area. The Kololo migrated from their original place to the present day Zambia as a result of the Mfecane. The Kololo were made up of two Fokeng groups. They were attacked by the Tlokwa of MmaNtantisi and they lost a large number of cattle. The Kololo migrated northwards (after their defeat) via the present day Botswana. Between 1824 and 1826 the Kololo inflicted severe defeats on all major Tswana chiefdoms they came across on the way.

### **The Groups of people that the Kololo under Sebetwane fought against on their way to Bulozhi**

Tswana	Kgatla
Ngwato	Khoi-khoi
Hurutshe	San
Kwena	Ndebele
Ngwaketse	Herero
Tlapin	Tlokwa
Msene Ngoni	Lozi

As the Kololo moved via Botswana for 14 years, they raided cattle from the Ngwato and Khoi-khoi pastoralists. However, most of their cattle died of starvation or were captured by the San hunters. In about 1840, the Kololo crossed the Zambezi where they conquered the Tonga and the Lozi. Sebetwane settled and established his capital at Bulozhi and he built up a very powerful Kingdom based upon cattle herding and agriculture on the upper Zambezi flood plain.

### **The Establishment of the Kololo rule in Bulozhi up to 1850**

Sebetwane and the Kololo came from the Orange Free State (Transorangia). They were defeated by MmaNtantisi who led the Tlokwa during the Mfecane period. This defeat forced the Kololo to migrate northwards. They wandered through Tranvaal and Botswana before arriving in the Lozi country in the early 1840's. On their journey to Bulozhi, they defeated and incorporated several groups of Tswana people. When the Kololo arrived in the Lozi country (Zambia), they defeated the Lozi who were experiencing succession disputes and were also weakened by disunity. They defeated Lozi King Litunga of Mubukwanu who was exiled together with the royal family members while some of the royal family were absorbed into the Kololo Kingdom. After settling in Bulozhi, Sebetwane successfully repelled Ndebele attacks and Msene Ngoni attacks. The defeats of the Ndebele and Ngoni ensured peace and security in the Kololo Kingdom. Sebetwane married Lozi women as a way of encouraging national unity. He did not allow the Kololo to exploit the Lozi people.

### **Important Factors in the Establishment of Kololo rule/ Reasons why the Kololo rule was able to last for so long in Buluzi**

- Sebetwane was an able and capable leader who could lead his people in time of trouble and hardships.
- The Kololo were militarily strong with advanced military tactics.
- Sebetwane allowed local headmen to remain in their positions.
- He encouraged intermarriages between the Kololo and the local people to encourage national unity.
- Sebetwane did not exploit the Lozi after defeating them. This made Sebetwane to be liked by different types of people in his Kingdom.
- This also made any possibility of a rebellion unlikely.
- Sebetwane made the Kololo language an official language.

### **Activity**

Describe how Sebetwane established kololo rule

### **Economic Organisation of the Kololo State**

- 1. Pastoralism** – the Kololo kept large herds of cattle that were used for feeding the population and for trading with the Boers at Cape.
- 2. Crop Cultivation** – the Kololo cultivated sorghum, millet, melons etc for feeding the population and for tribute payment.
- 3. Tribute** – subject peoples of the Kololo Kingdom paid tribute to the Kololo King. The Tonga and the Lozi paid tribute in grain, hoes, ivory skins, baskets, canoes etc.
- 4. Hunting** – wild animals were hunted for meat, ivory and hides in the Kololo Kingdom.
- 5. Trade** – wagon trade was conducted with the Boers at the Cape. The Kololo traded in ivory, cattle in return for beads, jewellery, brandy etc.
- 6. Fishing** – it was done in the Zambezi river or in lakes. Fishing was done using canoes and it supplemented the diet of the Kololo people.
- 7. Raiding** – the local Lozi and Tonga people were raided for cattle and grain.
- 8. Blacksmithing** – metal and iron workers produced iron implements like spearheads, arrowheads, razors, knives etc.
- 9. Craftworks** – potters made claypots and basket makers made baskets for both domestic use and foreign trade.
10. There was also division of labour according to age, sex and skill to enhance efficiency.

### **The Political Organization of the Kololo State**

The king was the head of state. Under the king were subchiefs who controlled districts in the state. Subchiefs reported directly to the king. Councillors were chosen and they helped in the administration of the state. Original chiefs who were loyal to the Kololo king were allowed to remain in power. The king was the commander in chief of the army and the head of judiciary. The king used the members of the royal family to help supervise the provinces. The political set up included the age regiment system which helped loyalty to be built to the ruling king within the state. Sebetwane did not force the subject peoples to adopt the age regiment system. Sebetwane conducted all the religious ceremonies within the Kololo state.

### **The Social Organisation of the Kololo State**

- There was sexual division of labour in the Kololo Kingdom. Men hunted, herded cattle, cleared forests and built shelter whilst their female counterparts looked after children, fetched water cooked etc.
- Sebetwane mixed freely with his subjects, the Kololo and Lozi. This contributed towards a spirit of trust and unity in the nation.
- Sebetwane took wives from among the conquered groups to encourage national unit.
- He encouraged the mixing of tribes i.e. the Kololo, Lozi and Tonga.
- There was no tribal discrimination in the Kololo Kingdom.
- The Kololo believed in the worship of God through the spirit ancestors.

### **Activity**

- Describe the political and social organization of the Kololo state.

### **The Decline of the Kololo Kingdom**

- Sebetwane failed to establish a tight control over the state.
- Provincial chiefs were left with a high level of autonomy.
- The original political system of conquered people was not removed as the age regiment system was not forced on them.
- Sekeletu (Sebetwanes successor) ill-treated the conquered peoples who later made them to rise against the Kololo rule.
- The Kololo had very little resistance against malaria. As a result, many of them died from the disease.
- After the death of Sekeletu there were succession disputes that led to a civil war.
- The civil war tore the Kololo people apart and weakened the Kingdom.
- In 1864 the local people (Lozi, Tonga) rose against the Kololo rule and the Kololo were easily defeated.
- This marked the final downfall of the Kololo State.

### **Activity**

- a) Discuss the significance of Trade and Cattle on Kololo society.
- b) What factors led to the decline of the Kololo state?

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) Name six groups which Sebetwane fought during his northward movement to Bulozhi [6]
- (b) Describe the journey by Sebetwane and his group from Transorangia to Bulozhi. [11]
- (c) How important was this journey to the survival of the state? [8]
  
- 2(a) Identify six political duties of the Kololo king. [6]
- (b) Describe the socio-political organisation of the Kololo state. [11]
- (c) How important was the social organisation in the state survival? [8]

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- 3) N. Parsons, Focus on History Book 3
- 4) H. Moyana and M. Sibanda, The African Heritage Book 3
- 5) T.K. Muronga, 'O' Level History Practice

## **CHAPTER 10**

### **THE NDEBELE STATE**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Describe Ndebele migration from Zululand to Zimbabwe
- b) Discuss the establishment of Ndebele rule in Southern Zimbabwe
- c) Describe the organisation of the Ndebele.
- d) Discuss Ndebele Shona-relations
- e) Describe the 1892-93 Anglo-Ndebele war and its impact on the decline of the state.

#### **Origins of the Ndebele State**

Mzilikazi was Tshaka's most trusted and the most favoured induna and general. For this reason he was allowed to have his own army and full political control of his Khumalo section of the Zulu nation. As a trusted induna and general, Mzilikazi carried out raids on neighbouring areas on behalf of his King, Tshaka. Whatever booty he brought was handed to Tshaka who then rewarded Mzilikazi. In 1821 Mzilikazi raided the Sotho and got many cattle which he decided to keep for himself instead of handing them over to Tshaka. He also ill-treated messengers sent by Tshaka to plead with him to surrender booty to the king. This was however seen as an open rebellion by Tshaka. Tshaka sent a regiment to punish Mzilikazi, but the first regiment was defeated. Mzilikazi was defeated at the battle of Entumbane and in 1822 Mzilikazi was forced to flee northwards crossing the Drakensburg mountains with a Khumalo group of not more than 300 people. By 1823 the Ndebele rested at a place called Ekuphumeleni in the Nzunza area and later most of the Nzunza were absorbed into the Khumalo nation. Mzilikazi moved from Ekuphumeleni because it was near Zululand and because of droughts and attacks by the Pedi around 1826. Mzilikazi settled at Mhlahlandlela in 1826 in the Kwena land. The Sotho referred to the Khumalo as Matabele (men of long shields). That is where their name originated from. Between 1825 and 1829 Mzilikazi moved from Ekuphumeleni to central Transvaal. Between 1826 and 1830s the Ndebeles carried out raids in Central and Northern Transvaal, Botswana, Lesotho and Zimbabwe against the Tswana and Sotho for people and domestic animals. At Mhlahlandlela, Mzilikazi left Central Transvaal (Mhlahlandlela) because of attacks from the Zulu, Griquas, Boers, Kora, Khoisan and Rolong and settled around the Marico river in about 1832. In 1837 Mzilikazi's capital Mosega, was attacked by the Boers, Tswana, Griquas and Zulu.

#### **Migration across the Limpopo**

From Mosega, the Ndebeles moved in two groups. The main group consisted of the old people, women, children. Most cattle, sheep, goats left first under the leadership of Gundwane Ndiweni also known as Mkhaliphi. This group crossed the Limpopo, arrived in Western Zimbabwe and subdued the local Rozvi people in 1839. They established a capital in western Zimbabwe known as Gibixhegu.

The second group under Mzilikazi included senior Indunas like Magqekeni Sithole. They took a westward direction into the Ngwato territory and moved towards the Zambezi Valley. Mzilikazi rejoined with the main group in 1840 after the indunas of the main group had appointed Nkulumane as their new King. Mzilikazi regarded this as an act of treason and killed those responsible (for installing Nkulumane) including Gundwane Ndiweni. Mzilikazi established his capital at Inyati when the Ndebele got into Zimbabwe. They defeated the

Shona and took over the Changamire (Rozvi) State that had already been weakened by Zwangendaba, Nyamazana and other Nguni groups.

### **Groups of people that Mzilikazi fought on the way to the present day Zimbabwe**

Tswana	Boers
Sotho	Zulu
Kololo	Khoisan
Rolong	Taung
Griquas	Tawana
Pedi	Hurutshe
Kora	Venda
Ngwato	Tlokwa

### **Problems encountered by the Ndebele during their course of migration to the present day Zimbabwe**

- Long torrid and tiresome journeys from Zululand led to many deaths among the Ndebele especially the young and the elderly.
- The Ndebeles were attacked by several groups along the way, for example, the Boers, Rolong, Griquas, Kora etc and this led to loss of life.
- Hunger and starvation. The Ndebele continuously ran out of food supplies as they did not have enough time to grow crops during the course of migration.
- The Ndebele lost their cattle, sheep and goats due to external attacks from the Boers.
- Some of the captured people turned behind and ran away from the migrating group of the Ndebele people.
- The movement (migration) from one place to another disrupted the Ndebele social and economic activities.
- External threats and attacks forced the Ndebele to split into two groups.
- The appointment of Nkulumane as a king led to the execution of many Ndebele military indunas and chiefs.

### **Reasons why Mzilikazi was able to lead the Ndebele for so long**

1. Mzilikazi was an outstanding leader who had good leadership qualities.
2. Superior military tactics of the Ndebele army.
3. The Ndebele had a strong military set up that emphasized loyalty to Mzilikazi as well as having discipline.
4. Defeated groups were incorporated into the Ndebele society and regiments.
5. The Ndebele had superior weapons.
6. Mzilikazi was trusted by his people whom he had led for so long and experienced problems together.
6. Mzilikazi was an absolute ruler who did not tolerate any nonsense in his Kingdom.
7. Mzilikazi Indunas and chiefs were men of unparalleled abilities and repute.

### **Methods used by Mzilikazi to get rid of opposition and to consolidate his power in the Ndebele Kingdom.**

- Mzilikazi was an absolute ruler, his word was law.
- Intermarriages between different groups of people strengthened relations between the Ndebele and other different groups like the Shona.
- Mzilikazi and later Lobengula, used the army to stamp authority within the Ndebele Kingdom.



- The Ndebele subjects were supposed to pay tribute as a sign of respect and loyalty to the king.
- The Ndebele armies raided disloyal subjects and those who refused to pay tribute and were absorbed into the Kingdom.
- The Ndebele governors were sent to control people living in tributary areas.
- The Shona people who were taken into the Ndebele Kingdom were to take Ndebele names, surnames and practice, Ndebele cultures, language and customs.
- The Ndebele traded with their Shona subjects and this cultivated good relations between the two groups.
- The Shona were loaned Ndebele cattle in exchange for their labour.
- Mzilikazi adopted the Shona Rozvi religion, for example, the worship of Mwari.

### **Effects of the Migration from Nguniland to Zimbabwe on the Khumalo (Ndebele)**

- Trade links had been established between the Khumalo and the Portuguese at Delagoa Bay (Indian Ocean Coast) so the migration disrupted trade.
- Intermarriages and absorption of women from other groups of people swelled the Khumalo population.
- The Collective name of the state became Ndebele which was given to them by the Sotho. This fostered unity and prevented division.
- The Ndebele became aware of guns due to confrontations with the Boers, Griquas and Rolong.
- The Ndebele (Mzilikazi) established good relations with the British i.e. Robert Moffat of the London Missionary Society.
- The Ndebele adopted the cultural patterns of other people, for example, the worship of Mwari i.e. the Shona Rozvi religion.
- The Khumalo maintained their superiority i.e. the Zansi group.
- Two other groups were created, that is, the Enhla and the Hole

### **Activity**

Give an account the Ndebele migration from the time they left Nguniland to the time Mzilikazi established Mhlahlandlela.

### **The Social Organisation of the Ndebele**

The Ndebele Kingdom was divided into three social classes namely:

#### **1. The Zansi**

These were original Khumalos from Zululand who had migrated with Mzilikazi from Zululand. They made 15% of the total Ndebele population. The Zansi occupied key administrative and military posts.

#### **2. The Enhla**

These were a group of people who were incorporated into the Ndebele Kingdom on the way when the Ndebele migrated into Zimbabwe, for example, the Sotho, Tswana, Pedi, Griquas, Rolong etc. They comprised 25% of the Ndebele total population.

### **3. The Hole**

These were the people, originally living in Zimbabwe, who were absorbed into the Ndebele Kingdom. For example, the Shona, Kalanga and Leya. They made 60% of the Ndebele total population.

-A form of caste system was practiced in the Ndebele Kingdom Lower class men were prohibited from marrying upper class women.

-Intermarriages were encouraged within the Kingdom, although lower class men could not marry from upper class.

-The Ndebele society was patrilineal and polygamous.

-Cattle were important for the payment of the bride price (Lobola).

-All people in the Ndebele society were expected to follow Ndebele customs and to speak the Ndebele language.

-The Ndebele also adopted the Shona Rozvi religion, that is, the worship of Mwari.

#### **Activity**

Describe Ndebele- Shona Relations. How true is the Eurocentric view that the Ndebele were blood thirsty savages who always butchered the Shona?

### **The Political Organisation of the Ndebele Kingdom**

Mzilikazi, and after him, Lobengula, were an absolute rulers. The king had far reaching powers. The king occupied the central and most powerful position in the Ndebele State. He was the commander in chief of the army. The king was also the head of the judiciary i.e. the chief Judge. He conducted all the religious ceremonies in the Ndebele kingdom, like the inxwala (first fruits) ceremonies as well as the rain making ceremonies. The king was also the chief administrator; he made all major decisions and had the power of life and death over his subjects. The king also raised amabutho, allocated land, co-coordinated military strategy and got rid of opponents. The king administered the state with the help of two advisory councils that is Umphakathi and Izikhulu.

#### **(i) Umphakathi**

Umphakathi was made up of selected chiefs and members of the royal family. They made all important decisions on matters affecting the state.

#### **(ii) Izikhulu**

These were all other chiefs in the state including elders who were needed for their wisdom in traditional customs and history. Izikhulu discussed national issues and after the discussions they referred them to the Umphakathi and the King.

The State was divided into chiefdoms. The larger areas had sub-divisions. Within each subdivision were many chiefs, izinduna, and one main chief (Induna Enkulu).

#### **The chiefs' role included:**

-rounding up suspected criminals or rebels using his police.

-travelling to the royal capital (Bulawayo) where the chiefs formed the kings' advisory council.

### **The military organization of the Ndebele State**

The Ndebele adopted and continued with the Zulu military tactics and strategy. Initiation ceremonies were still carried out to some extent but in the name of the states national service. Young men were thoroughly drilled and trained.

- Their duties were to herd the king's cattle.
- Work in the kings fields
- They were also recruited into the Ndebele army.
- The young men were also used as police to maintain law and order.
- The Warriors in the Ndebele State lived in regimental towns where they were commanded by Induna. During the times of peace and in winter, the regiments broke up and herded the cattle. Warriors could only marry after being successful in battle. They were given wives by the king from amongst captured women. Women were also drafted into the army where they worked as cooks and prostitutes.

### **Activity**

- a) Why was Mzilikazi able to consolidate his power over western Zimbabwe?
- b) To what extent did Ndebele social organization foster a sense of belonging to all people of the Ndebele state?
- c) Discuss Mzilikazi's military reforms and their effect on his consolidation of power

### **The Economic Organisation of the Ndebele state**

Agriculture was the basis of the Ndebele economy.

#### **1. Crop Cultivation**

The Ndebele cultivated grains such as millet, rapoko and later, maize. The cultivation of crops was done by individual homesteads – for feeding the army, visitors and the growing population.

#### **2. Cattle rearing**

The Ndebele had large herds of cattle. There was the national herd which belonged to the king. The cattle were for:

- feeding the population
- the king distributed cattle to the chiefs as rewards for their service.
- payment of the bride price (lobola).
- slaughter in religious ceremonies
- giving the needy so that they could have milk, manure and meat.

#### **3. Tribute**

The Shona and the Ndebele subject peoples paid tribute to the Ndebele King in cattle, grain, skins, youngmen and women, iron implements etc. The Shona also paid tribute as a sign of loyalty to the Ndebele King.

#### **4. Trade**

At first the Ndebele traded with the Shona. They bartered cattle for corn, hoes, spears and knives. The Ndebele also indulged in long distance trade with the Portuguese. They traded in cattle and grain in return for cloth, beads and ammunition.

### 5. **Raiding**

The Ndebele raided the local Shona groups, Tswana, Ngwato for cattle, grain, iron implements as well as young men and women.

### 6. **Hunting**

The Ndebele hunted wild animals for meat, skins and ivory. Ivory was used for trade with the Portuguese, Dutch and British. Guns, ammunition, beads and brass wire were given in return.

### 7. **Blacksmithing (Metal Working)**

The Ndebele smelted iron to produce iron implements such as spearheads, axes, knives, razors, hoes, arrowheads etc.

### 8. **Mining**

The Ndebele learnt the basic mining techniques from the Shona and they began mining gold and iron which was used in long distance trade with the Portuguese.

9. **Craftwork** - craft workers made claypots and baskets which were both used for domestic use and trade purposes.

10. There was also division of labour according to sex, age and skill, in the Ndebele Kingdom to enhance efficiency.

### 11. **Fishing**

Fishing was carried out to supplement the diet of the Ndebele people, by those who lived in close proximity to lakes and major rivers.

## **Religion**

The Ndebele worshiped the highest God UNkulunkulu. The Sotho groups in the Ndebele Kingdom worshiped the Sotho God, Mlimo. Some Ndebele and Sotho began to worship Mlimo and UNkulunkulu as one and the same God. The Ndebele also adopted the worship of the Rozvi God Mwari. The Ndebele also worshiped God through the ancestral spirits. The Ndebele observed the inxwala (first fruits) ceremonies. The King conducted all the religious ceremonies within the Ndebele Kingdom. This way, the powers of God and the ancestors of the Ndebele could be reached through the King. During the times of national disasters, the Ndebele prayed to Mlimo through amadlozi.

## **The Importance of Religion to the Ndebele State**

1. Religion kept the state intact.
2. Religion was used in times of hardship and natural disasters, for example, shortage of rain.
3. Since the king was believed to be God-chosen, the Ndebele subjects feared and became loyal to the King.
4. During the First Chimurenga, religious leaders played an important role in organizing and co-coordinating the uprising, for example, Mkwati, Umlungulu and Siginyamatshe.
5. The Warriors first consulted the spirits in order to be successful in battle.

## **Downfall of the State**

The downfall of the Ndebele State is understood within the context of the scramble for Southern Africa. In short, the British imperialists and capitalists identified the area between

the Zambezi and the Limpopo as their sphere of influence. The main push factor was the bankruptcy of the British South Africa Company (B.S.A.C.) which resulted in the search for the second rand north of the Limpopo.

Failure to find gold in Mashonaland in the early 1890's made it inevitable for the Ndebele and the British to clash. Only an excuse was needed. British technology made it obvious that the Ndebele using their traditional weapons were going to be defeated.

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) Identify six places where the Ndebele rested on their way to Zimbabwe. [6]  
 (b) Describe Mzilikazi's journey between 1821 and 1838. [11]  
 (c) How important was the journey to the state survival? [8]
- 2(a) State any six economic activities of the Ndebele people [6]  
 (b) Describe the economy of the Ndebele people. [11]  
 (c) Was raiding important in the Ndebele state? Explain your answer.

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## CHAPTER 11

### THE SCRAMBLE FOR SOUTHERN AFRICA

#### Chapter objectives

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Outline the reasons for the scramble for Africa.
- b) Discuss the role of Imperialists in the colonization.
- c) Outline the competition by European powers to control Southern Africa
- d) Examine the role of Cecil John Rhodes in the occupation of Zimbabwe.
- e) Discuss the role of Christin mission in the occupation.
- f) Describe the occupation of Mashonaland and Matebeland.

The Scramble for Africa was a sudden rush for colonies in Africa by the European powers. The European countries that were actively involved in the scramble for Southern Africa were Britain, Germany, Portugal and Holland. However Holland failed to get a colony in Southern Africa.

<u>Southern African Country</u>	<u>Colonial power</u>
Zimbabwe	Britain
South Africa (RSA)	Britain
Botswana	Britain
Malawi	Britain
Lesotho	Britain
Swaziland	Britain
Zambia	Portugal
Mozambique	Germany
Namibia	Britain
Angola	Portugal

#### The British protectorates in Southern Africa and their chiefs

<u>British Protectorate</u>	<u>Name of Chief</u>
Botswana	Chief Khama
Barotseland	Lewanika
Swaziland	Chief Sobhuza
Lesotho	Chief Moshoeshoe

#### African Kingdoms colonised by Europeans in southern Africa during the 19<sup>TH</sup> century

Ndebele	Lozi
Zulu	Gaza
Swazi	Xhosa
Sotho	Tswana
Ngwato	Shona

### **Reasons for the scramble for southern Africa.**

1. Need for raw materials  
European countries like Britain, Portugal, Germany and the Dutch came to Southern Africa to obtain raw materials that were needed in Europe due to the industrial revolution in Europe. Ivory, vegetable oil, leather, minerals etc. were raw materials
2. The European countries wanted to open up new markets for their finished products and goods. They also came to Africa to invest surplus capital by opening up banks, building societies etc.
3. They needed precious minerals from Southern Africa. After the discovery of diamonds in Kimberley and gold in Witwatersrand in 1884, the British thought that the rest of Southern Africa had gold and this led to the colonisation of Southern Africa.
4. Need to control strategic economic places.  
Britain occupied the Cape largely due for economic reasons and took the Cape away from the Boers. The occupation of the Cape enabled Britain to occupy the rest of Southern Africa and it was a strategic sea route to India and Asia.
5. Political causes of the scramble  
The balance of power in Europe  
The German and Italian unification made expansion in Europe very dangerous. So the European countries decided to go to Africa to acquire colonies because it was very dangerous to expand in Europe.
6. When Britain and France got colonies in Africa, Germany was also forced to acquire colonies. Bismarck wanted to play off Britain against France, that they did not make an alliance against Germany in Africa. For this reason Germany occupied Namibia in Southern Africa and other West and Central African colonies.
7. Racist Ideology  
Europeans also occupied African countries because they regarded themselves as a superior race. They believed that they had to enlighten the Dark Continent to spread technology, Christianity, civilisation as well as the doctrine of liberty, peace and fraternity.

### **Activity**

- a) The Christian missionaries had a great role in the occupation of Zimbabwe. Do you agree?
- b) Describe the work of Christian missionaries in Zimbabwe between 1838 and 1890. To what extent did they lead to the occupation of Zimbabwe?

### **The Role of Imperialists in the colonisation of Africa**

1. Missionaries came to Africa to spread the word of God. In doing so they encouraged their home governments to colonise places where they were actively involved (e.g.) German Missionaries. Missionaries also negotiated treaties with African kings and chiefs on behalf of their home governments (e.g.) Robert Moffat, Charles Helm etc.

#### 2. Traders and Merchants

They encouraged their European governments to colonise places where they operated to protect their economic interests. They negotiated concessions with local chiefs and Kings, on behalf of their European governments (e.g.) the British South Africa Company (B.S.A.C.) was influential in the colonisation of South Africa, Zimbabwe, and Botswana etc.

3. Chartered companies built bridges, railway lines and constructed roads which made it easier for the colonial armies to move from one place to another in the colonisation of Southern

Africa (e.g.) the British South Africa Company (B.S.A.C.) and the German South West Africa Company.

#### 4. Hunters and Explorers

They took pictures which portrayed the good image of Africa and this encouraged their home governments to colonise Africa.

#### 5. Merchants

They told their European governments about the potential of African raw materials and mineral wealth. This ultimately led to the colonisation of Africa by the European countries.

### **Colonisation and resistance in Zimbabwe**

Names of British nationals who assisted in the colonisation of Zimbabwe: -

Leander Starr Jameson

Major F. Johnson

Charles Rudd

Friedrick Courtney Selous

John Smith Moffat

Colonel Edward Graham Pennefather

Rochford Maguire

Allan Wilson

Charles Helm

Major Forbes

Francis Thompson

Colenbrander

Major Heany

### **The Colonisation of Zimbabwe**

The BSAC and Cecil John Rhodes were very influential in the colonisation of Zimbabwe from the period of 1888 onwards. Earlier, there were the Portuguese, Dutch, British hunters and explorers who sought mining and hunting concessions from Lobengula. When an African ruler gave permission to the Europeans for hunting and mining, it was called a concession.

### **Rhodes' aims in colonising Zimbabwe**

1. Rhodes hoped to find another goldfield as rich as Witwaterrand in Zimbabwe (i.e.) the second Rand.
2. Rhodes believed that by taking (Rhodesia) Zimbabwe, British capitalists could become rich and at the same time bring progress and civilisation to Africa.
3. Rhode's aims were to extend the British rule from Cape Town in South Africa to Cairo in Egypt.
4. Rhodes believed in British superiority. His purpose was therefore to spread liberty, peace, and justice to other parts of the world.
- 5 Rhodes was interested in the rich fertile lands north of the Limpopo for agricultural purposes.
5. Rhodes was an imperialist by nature. He wanted to link Southern African British Colonies with those of East and North Africa.
6. Rhodes covered the large herds of Ndebele cattle.

### **Cecil John Rhodes**

Rhodes was capitalist and a politician. He was an imperialist and he was an influential figure in spearheading British imperialism in Southern Africa and in Zimbabwe in particular. Rhodes had earlier on started a gold mining company in South Africa at Witwatersrand. This enabled him to raise enough money to finance colonial wars and to raise mercenary soldiers to fight colonial wars.



### **Treaties signed between Lobengula and the Europeans before the 1890 Tati Concession.**

Lippert Concession

Baines Agreement

Grobler Treaty

Moffat Treaty

Rudd Concession

In 1885 the German government sent an agent (Lippert) to Lobengula to negotiate a mining concession. There was therefore competition between Germany and Britain over Zimbabwe. The Lippert concession was however bought by Rhodes.

#### **The Grobler Treaty July (1887)**

The Boer government in the Transvaal sent an agent (i.e.) Piet Grobler to negotiate a treaty of friendship between Lobengula and the Transvaal Republic. The Grobler Treaty created an alliance between the Boer Republic of Transvaal and the Ndebele state. The treaty committed Lobengula to provide military assistance to Transvaal if and when asked to do so. There was to be a permanent representative of Transvaal in Bulawayo. Lobengula was to protect Transvaal citizens who visited his country.

#### **The Moffat Treaty (February 1888)**

The British were greatly surprised to learn of the Boer success. Rhodes then started a campaign to discredit the Grobler Treaty. In February 1888, Rhodes sent an agent, John Smith Moffat to go and persuade Lobengula to cancel the Grobler Treaty. Moffat enjoyed a great advantage when he negotiated for a treaty with Lobengula because: -

He had worked among the Ndebele for a long time.

Lobengula trusted him as an honest man.

His father Robert Moffat was a close friend of Lobengula's father, Mzilikazi.

Under the Moffat Treaty, Lobengula agreed to be a friend of the British Queen and promised not to enter into any other agreement with any other country or group without the knowledge or approval of the British High Commissioner at the Cape. Lobengula had entered into this agreement because he regarded Moffat as an old friend while Moffat was no longer a real friend to the Ndebele because he regarded them as miserable and blood thirsty people.

#### **The Rudd Concession (October 1888)**

Rhodes and the British used the Moffat Treaty to keep the Germans, Boers and the Portuguese out of Matabeleland and Mashonaland. Rhodes then sent Charles Rudd, Francis Thompson and Rochford Maguire to persuade Lobengula to grant them a concession giving them control of all the mining and minerals in Matabeleland and Mashonaland. Rhodes' agents were able to get support from the Missionaries (e.g.) the London Missionary Society (L.M.S.). Rhodes' men were also able to bribe Lotshe and other important Ndebele Indunas into helping them sign the Rudd Concession. During the negotiations, Rudd emphasised that if granted mineral rights, Rhodes would: -

Protect Matabeleland from European colonisation.

He also said that Rhodes would put notices on newspapers notifying which people that they should keep out of Matabeleland.

Rudd also lied that no more than ten men would be brought to Matabeleland and that these would abide by the Ndebele laws after surrendering their firearms to the Ndebele King.

### **The Terms of the Rudd Concession**

1. Lobengula, his heirs and successors were to be paid a monthly sum of £100.
2. The Ndebele rulers were to be supplied with 1 000 rifles and 10 000 rounds of ammunition.
3. A gunboat that would patrol the Zambezi River.
4. Lobengula was not to grant land and mineral rights without Rhodes' consent.
5. In return, Lobengula agreed to grant Rhodes and his group complete control over metals and minerals in his kingdom.
6. Rhodes was given full power to do all things he may deem necessary to protect his and the British interests.
7. The miners were to dig one hole in their prospecting for minerals in Zimbabwe.
8. No more than 10 men would come to Matabeleland and these were to leave their weapons in the king's court.
9. The Rudd concession which did not include most of the things included during the negotiations.

### **The Unfairness of the Rudd Concession to both Lobengula and the Ndebele**

1. Lobengula considered the Rudd delegation as friends and not enemies.
2. The Rudd delegation used bribery to have the document signed.
3. Lobengula was illiterate; he did not understand the terms used and the proper meaning of the document.
4. Lobengula did not read what was signed in the Rudd concession.
5. Instead of bringing 10 men to Matabeleland, Rhodes brought the pioneer column which consisted of 200 men.
6. Lobengula was tricked because he trusted the British missionaries who no longer liked the Ndebele.

### **The Ndebele were also to blame**

- Lobengula was tricked because unlike his father Mzilikazi, he was not a statesman and a diplomat.
- The Ndebele were supposed to take military action before the white population increased.
- Lobengula restrained amajaha when they wanted to resort to military force.

### **The British South Africa Company (B.S.A.C.) 1889**

Rhodes formed the B.S.A.C. in 1889 to help in the colonisation of Zimbabwe. The British government granted a Royal Charter to the B.S.A.C. in 1889 to make treaties, raise and maintain a police force, acquire new concessions, make land grants and carry on any lawful trade, commerce or business and preserve peace in Rhodesia.

-Setting up chartered companies was a way of starting colonies. The colonial power gave the company the right to take over and rule the area.

### **Activity**

What were the terms of the Rudd concession? Can Lobengula be blamed for signing the Rudd Concession?

## **The Pioneers and the Colonisation of Mashonaland (1890)**

### **Organisation of the Pioneer column**

- Having obtained the charter for his company (B.S.A.C.), Rhodes went ahead with the recruiting of a pioneer group that was to occupy Zimbabwe.
- 200 men who represented various trades were recruited.
- The first men (white settlers) would be accompanied by a police force for protection and to crush resistance by the people of Zimbabwe.
- The police force included people from different trades (e.g.) blacksmiths, carpenters, builders, engineers, miners, farmers, traders, doctors, etc.
- The commander of the Police force was Colonel Edward Graham Pennefather.
- The guide of the pioneers was Fredrick Courtney Selous.
- The pioneer column was promised 1 200 hectares of land and 15 gold claims each on their arrival in Mashonaland.
- Each of the pioneers was armed and had been given military training.
- There was the piling of arms, ammunition, wagons, pounders, maxim guns etc.
- Goods were carried by ox wagons.

### **Movement of the Pioneer Column**

- The Pioneers grouped in Botswana to start their journey at the beginning of the year (1890).
- The Pioneers got help from Khama of Botswana who gave them auxiliary fighters.
- The Pioneer Column crossed the Motloutse River in June 1890 and Shashi river in July 1890.
- The Pioneer Column travelled quickly keeping away from the Ndebele territory in case they were attacked by the Ndebele regiments.
- They established a number of Forts along the way until they reached Salisbury on 12 September 1890 (Fort Tuli – Fort Victoria – Fort Charter – Fort Salisbury.)The Pioneer Column hoisted the Union Jack at Salisbury upon arrival.

Other Forts were Fort Melseter, Fort Umtali, Fort Hartley.

The Shona received the settlers peacefully. The Shona farmers sold them food (e.g.) grain and cattle. The Shona chiefs allowed them to mine and trade in their areas. Settlers also seized Shona land and cattle. They forced the Shona to work for them.

## **The Anglo – Ndebele War of 1893**

### **Causes of the Anglo- Ndebele war**

Rhodes and the white settlers wanted to conquer the Ndebele for the following reasons: -

- They believed that there were rich goldfields in Matabeleland.
- They coveted the good grazing land and great herds of Ndebele cattle.
- With control of this agricultural wealth the B.S.A.C. and settlers believed that they would be able to make great fortunes even if they did not find gold.
- The powerful independent Ndebele state prevented settlers from getting enough labour for their mines and farms.
- The Ndebele state was in the way of a railway line to link Mafeking and Salisbury and between communication routes between Salisbury and South Africa.
- The Ndebele were also war-like and a military threat to the B.S.A.C.
- The Ndebele were a symbol of African Independence.
- A quick victorious war over the Ndebele would make Rhodes a popular hero in Britain.

- Destroying the Ndebele state would decrease transport and import costs from South Africa to Salisbury.
- Some Shona Chiefs stopped paying tax to Lobengula after the B.S.A.C. occupation of Mashonaland.
- The Victoria incident.
- Ndebele raids disturbed labour on settler farms and mines.
- Dr. Leander Starr Jameson as an administrator wanted to destroy the Ndebele State.

### **B.S.A.C. Actions**

- The company created a boundary between Mashonaland and Matabeleland.
- Lobengula was no longer in control of tribute payment among most of the Shona people.
- Political control of Zimbabwe by the company.
- Competition between the Ndebele and the company over the control of Zimbabwe.

### **The Victoria Incident**

Following the killing of Lomagundi and Chivi in 1891, Jameson pleaded with Lobengula to keep his army under strict control, but Lobengula's position regarding the Shona remained unchanged. From the middle of 1892 onwards, a number of raids took place around Masvingo where white settlers were engaged in farming and mining and were employing a Shona labour force. The whites wanted to protect these economic activities. However in May 1893, some men under headman Gomara, between the Tuli and Fort Victoria, cut and carried away about 500 yards of telegraph wire to make snares. Gomara paid a fine using Lobengula's cattle. Thus Lobengula dispatched a raiding force under Manyawo and Mgandani to teach Gomara and Bere a lesson, in June 1893. Bere had stolen Lobengula's cattle. By July the Ndebele army was in Masvingo district. They started attacking the Shona and they were given strict instructions by Lobengula to avoid clashes with white people in carrying out their mission. By July, the Ndebele forces burnt down Shona homes, killed men and drove away women and girls from the areas of Bere, Zimuto and the surrounding areas in Fort Victoria. Mine and Farm workers were also attacked and hundreds of cattle owned by whites were driven away by the Ndebele. The raids caused desertion of the African labour force on the whitemen's farms and mines in Masvingo district. The districts' economic activities were brought to a standstill. The Ndebele leaders of the expedition demanded that all the Shona who had taken refuge in the whitemen's farms and in the small town of Fort Victoria should be handed over to them. However, Lendy refused to comply with this demand from the Ndebele and the incident resulted in a meeting between the Ndebele leaders of the Expedition (Manyawo, Mgandani) and the whites (Lendy and Starr Leander Jameson). It was agreed in the meeting that the Ndebele forces should withdraw from the Victoria district. As the Ndebele forces withdrew, there was a skirmish between the Ndebele forces and the white settler patrol forces in which Mgandani and eleven other Ndebele compatriots were killed. The Victoria incident was an immediate cause of the war between the Ndebele and white settlers. It aroused mistrust, suspicion and intrigues between the two rival groups. It is important to note that the Victoria incident was one of the major causes of the Anglo-Ndebele war of 1893.

### **The War of 1893**

The war began in 1893 October. There were about 18 000 Ndebele men on the field. The B.S.A.C. had 3 500 fighters (i.e.) 1 100 whites, 2 000 Tswana auxiliary fighters provided by Khama and 400 Shona and Cape auxiliaries. However the company forces were better equipped and organised and could move faster than the Ndebele because they had horses. The company forces also had modern fire arms (e.g.) machine guns, pounders, maxim guns and

wagons that ensured continued supply of war material. The Ndebele on the other hand used their traditional spears and shields.

The company forces advanced towards Bulawayo from Salisbury until they were halted by the Ndebele at Mbembesi River. The company forces built laager defences. The Ingubo, Imbizo and Insukamini regiments fought bravely, but the 7 pounder guns and maxim guns inflicted heavy casualties on the Ndebele. Lobengula, foreseeing defeat, set his capital on fire and fled northwards towards the Zambezi Valley. On 4 December 1893 the company forces took over the burning capital (Bulawayo) and hoisted the Union Jack, thus completing the conquest of Zimbabwe.

### **The Results of the Anglo- Ndebele War**

-The white settler volunteers in the Anglo-Ndebele war were rewarded with large areas of land in Matabeleland.

#### **-About 90 000 Ndebele cattle were looted.**

-There was the creation of the Matabeleland Order in Council of 1894 with Dr. Starr Jameson as the administrator.

-The Ndebele people were resettled in the Gwai and Shangani reserves. These areas were dry with sandy soils and were also tse-tse-fly-infested.

-Most of the Ndebeles remained on their traditional lands as squatters on white owned farms.

-The indigenous people were required to pay tax.

### **Reasons for the defeat of the Ndebele**

-The (B.S.A.C.) forces had superior weapons as compared to those used by the Ndebele. They had maxim guns, gatling guns, havitzers, cannons against the Ndebele spears, shields and clubs.

-The B.S.A.C. was also aided by the Tswana, Shona and Cape fighters.

-The company forces had better organisation and strategy as compared to the Ndebele.

-The Ndebele amabutho charged heroically against machine guns in pitched battles and on open grounds.

-The B.S.A.C. used laager defences that were difficult to penetrate.

-The B.S.A.C. had better transport (e.g.) wagons, hoses etc.

-The B.S.A.C. forces were also supplied from South Africa through the Mafeking Railway line. This made them get a steady supply of weapons, shelter and manpower.

-Britain also helped finance colonial wars and provide manpower for wars (e.g.) the British financiers like the Duke of Fife and Duke of Abecorn.

-News of Lobengula's flight demoralised the Ndebele warriors.

-The Imbizo regiment was tired, coming from a raiding mission against Lewanika, moreover the Imbizo soldiers were suffering from small pox.

-Lack of co-operation on the part of the Ndebele and Shona to fight a single enemy (i.e.) the whites.

NB: It should be noted that there was nothing the Ndebele king and people could do to stop the colonisation of Zimbabwe against a superior force with up-to-date weapons and finances for the continuation of the war.

**Activity**

Describe the occupation of Mashonaland by the Pioneer column. Why did the pioneer column encounter little resistance in occupying Mashonaland?

**The Competition to control Southern Africa by the European powers (1870 and 1890)**

There was competition among the European countries for the control of Southern Africa. These European countries were Britain, Germany, Portugal and the Boers.

**Competition between Britain and Germany**

Britain in South Africa and Germany in South West Africa (Namibia), wanted to control Botswana and the Ndebele country. Germany's efforts were frustrated when Britain attained Botswana-protectorate status. Rhodes bought the Lippert Concession signed between the German agent Lippert and Lobengula. Britain occupied Mashonaland and Matabeleland after the Rudd concession and the Anglo-Boer War.

**Competition between Britain and Portugal**

They competed for the control of Mashonaland and Manicaland. Portugal had occupied Mozambique and wanted to use her long established relationship with the Shona to control these areas. Britain, from South Africa, wanted to realise her dreams of the Cape to Cairo route. By colonising Zimbabwe, Britain frustrated the Portuguese aims of taking over Mashonaland.

**Competition between the British and the Boers**

They competed for the control of South Africa. The Boers were expelled by the British from Cape and the Boers migrated northwards and occupied the Transvaal Republic and wanted to expand northwards to take over Zimbabwe. The cancellation of the Boer Grobler Treaty signed with Lobengula, by the Moffat Treaty (1888), made the Boers fail to expand northwards into Zimbabwe. The Boers also failed to expand westwards because of the Bechuanaland protectorate. Thus Britain was able to dominate the affairs of Southern Africa. The Boers were eventually defeated by the British in the Anglo-Boer War of 1899-1901 and Britain took control of the whole of South Africa.

**Was Rhodes an important factor in the colonisation of southern Africa?**

- To a greater extent Rhodes was influential in the colonisation of Southern Africa.
- Rhodes occupied the strategic Cape province that enabled him to expand northwards.
- Rhodes was an ambitious rich individual who wanted to promote British imperialism.
- The hope to find the second Rand (gold) in the north of Limpopo.
- Rhodes personally financed and encouraged the occupation of areas north of the Limpopo river.
- Rhodes was after getting raw materials and to open up new markets in various parts of Southern Africa.
- Rhodes wanted Britain to have political control of the region.
- Rhodes financed the signing of the concession that contributed to the colonisation of - Zimbabwe (i.e.) the Moffat Treaty, Rudd Concession, Lippert Concession etc.

-Rhodes organised the colonisation process (i.e.) the formation of the BSAC, recruitment of pioneers, obtaining the Royal Charter etc.

**However:**

-It is important to note that missionaries also influenced the colonisation of Southern Africa (e.g.) German Missionaries in Namibia, Portuguese missionaries in Mozambique.

-Some of the African chiefs were willing to accept foreign rule (e.g.) Chief Khama and Lewamika of Barotseland.

-The British crown also supported the idea of colonisation and Rhodes' aims.

-Ndebele senior Indunas assisted indirectly in the colonisation of Zimbabwe (e.g.) Chief Lotshe.

**Christian Missionaries in Zimbabwe**

Names of missionaries who worked in Zimbabwe between 1850 and 1900: -

Robert Moffat	Knight Bruce
John Smith Moffat	Father Law
Charles Helm	Father Prestage
Francois Coillard	William Buys
William Sykes	Bathelomew Kroot
Thomas M. Thomas	Bernard Mizeki
Father Robert Laws	Makgato
David Carnegie	

**Aims of the Christian Missionaries in Zimbabwe**

-To convert heathens

-To spread Christianity

-To civilise the Africans

-To introduce new agricultural methods (e.g.) to turn subsistence farming into commercial farming

-To promote legitimate trade

-To promote equality of mankind

-To put an end to the slave trade

-To end African vice like human sacrifices and pagan vice

-To open up mission schools and stations as well as health centres

-To educate Africans (to teach them to read and write)

**Names of Christian churches established in Zimbabwe as well as their stations between 1850 and 1900**

<u>Name of Church</u>	<u>Station</u>
1. London Missionary Society (L.M.S.)	Hope Fountain and Inyathi Station
2. Roman Catholic Church	Empandeni
3. Anglican Church	St. Augustine
4. Jesuits	Chishawasha
5. The American Board of the Churches of Christ	Mount Selinda
6. Methodist Church	Old Mutare

### **The works of Christian Missionaries in Matebeleland and Zimbabwe**

- Mzilikazi allowed John Smith Moffat to establish a mission station at Inyathi near Bulawayo in 1859 i.e. the London Missionary Society (L.M.S.).
- Lobengula allowed the London Missionary Society (L.M.S.) to open Hope Fountain Mission in 1870.
- Inyathi and Hope Fountain missionaries taught, preached and wrote Sindebele books.
- The London Missionary Society missionaries printed Sindebele books for children. These missionaries were Thompson Sykes, Charles Helm and David Carnegie.
- Missionaries cultivated crops at their stations using African labour force.
- Missionaries helped Mzilikazi and Lobengula to repair guns, inoculate cattle, treat the sick, write the King's diplomatic letter.
- John Smith Moffat treated Lobengula of gout.
- Father Bartholomew Kroot of the Jesuit missionaries opened a mission station near Bulawayo which offered good services to the Africans, such as teaching Africans to read and write.
- Missionaries acted as interpreters and advisors to the Ndebele kings.
- The Roman Catholic church opened a mission station at Empandeni which built a school, taught people to read and write as well as basic skills like woodwork, carpentry, etc.
- The missionaries also taught Africans good hygiene.
- The Anglican church opened a school at St. Augustine.
- The missionaries converted Africans to Christianity. They built schools, hospitals and churches in Zimbabwe.
- Missionaries developed infrastructure in Zimbabwe like the building of bridges, paving roads that were linking different stations.
- They also encouraged their home governments to develop infrastructure at their places and to supply them with school books and hospital equipment and drugs.
- Those fleeing abuse at homes especially girls, took refuge at mission stations.
- Missionaries cured diseases like malaria and small pox in Zimbabwe among Africans.
- Their centres were used for the distribution of new varieties of seeds, crops etc.
- Africans were also taught new farming and mining techniques by the Christian missionaries.
- New breeds of cattle were introduced.
- The missionaries committed local languages into written documents.

### **Problems encountered by the Missionaries in Zimbabwe**

- Language barriers. The first missionaries to come into Zimbabwe faced communication problems with local people as they had to first learn indigenous languages.
- Few Africans accepted Christianity especially among the Shona. They were able to convert and baptise people like Reverend Madzima.
- They failed to get a single convert among the Ndebele up to the time of colonisation.
- Missionaries were hated by traditional leaders and spirit mediums as their works were against traditional religion and customs.
- Missionaries faced problems of diseases in some areas and they did not have enough protection, so they were vulnerable to attacks from Africans.

### **Success of Christian Missionaries in Zimbabwe**

- It is important to note that to a greater extent the missionaries' primary motives of spreading the word of God and of converting Africans to Christianity was a failure.



- Christian missionaries were successful in developing education in Zimbabwe among Africans.
- Hospitals were opened and infrastructure developed e.g. the construction of schools, roads, bridges etc.
- Missionaries brought new varieties of seeds and crops and they taught Africans new farming techniques.
- Christian missionaries cured diseases among Africans.
- They repaired guns for Lobengula and taught Africans good hygiene.

### **The Role played by Missionaries in the colonisation of Zimbabwe**

- In 1836 Mzilikazi signed the first Moffat treaty with Robert Moffat establishing long term friendship that helped the British colonialists in the 1880's.
- Through the Moffat treaty of 1888, Lobengula agreed to be a friend of the British Queen and not to enter into any other agreement without the knowledge or approval of the British High Commissioner at the Cape.
- Lobengula signed the treaty because he regarded John Smith Moffat as a trusted missionary and friend. This treaty, signed by a missionary, led to the signing of the Rudd Concession.
- Rev. Charles Helm played a leading role in persuading Lobengula to sign the Rudd Concession.
- Missionaries spoke local languages and they acted as interpreters in the signing of treaties and concessions.
- The establishment of mission stations like Inyathi and Empandeni, helped those Europeans who visited Zimbabwe to find a place to stay.
- The failure of Christian missionaries to get a single Ndebele convert resulted in some missionaries e.g. John Smith Moffat, to hate the Ndebeles and the Ndebele state.
- John Smith Moffat regarded the Ndebele as "miserable blood thirsty people". He said "It will be a blessing to the world if the Ndebele were broken up".
- This in a way encouraged the BSAC forces to use force to destroy the Ndebele state in order to loosen their grip on potential converts.
- Colonialists used missionary roads to colonise the country.
- Missionary traders exaggerated the wealth of Zimbabwe thereby attracting more white groups leading to the colonisation of the country.

### **Importance of Missionaries in the colonisation of Zimbabwe**

- Missionaries gave Africans a false sense of security.
- Helped in the signing of treaties.
- Played a link between Rhodes and Lobengula.
- Christian Missionaries acted as interpreters between colonial/ imperialist agents and the African rulers.
- Missionaries had valuable knowledge of African culture of the local people and they established missions which brought literacy.

### **Activity**

- a) What was Rhodes Role in the occupation of Zimbabwe?
- b) Describe the Victoria incident and its impact on the Anglo Ndebele war of 1892-93

**Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State any six political causes of the scramble for Southern Africa. [6]  
 (b) Describe the socio-economic factors for the scramble for Southern Africa. [11]  
 (c) To what extent was the mineral revolution in South Africa responsible for the scramble for Southern Africa? [8]
- 2(a) Name any six missionary societies which operated. [6]  
 (b) Describe the national activities in Zimbabwe. [11]  
 (c) To what extent should missionaries be regarded as agents of European Imperialism? [8]
- 3(a) State any six treaties signed between the Europeans and Lobengula. [6]  
 (b) Describe the verbal and non-verbal terms of the Rudd Concession. [11]  
 (c) How fair is it to blame Lobengula for accepting the Rudd Concession? [8]
- 4(a) State, six factors, which led to the defeat, of the Ndebele, in the 1893 war. [6]  
 (b) Describe the course of the Anglo- Ndebele war of 1893. [11]  
 (c) To what extent was the non involvement of the Shona, responsible for the defeat of the Ndebele? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 12. THE FIRST CHIMURENGA 1896**

### **Chapter objectives:**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Outline the long term causes of the uprisings.
- b) Show the contributions of the Victoria incident to the uprising.
- c) Describe the nature of the revolts in Matabeleland and Mashonaland.
- d) Explain the results of the uprisings.

In 1896, the British South Africa Company (BSAC) was faced with a widespread rising of both the Shona and Ndebele peoples against the white rule and their agents in Southern Rhodesia.

### **Causes of the Ndebele Rising**

#### 1. Loss of national independence

The Ndebele had lost their political independence and foreign capital structures were imposed on them after the 1893-94 war.

#### 2. Loss of land

The Ndebele had lost their land after the 1893-94 war. Most of the Ndebele people were resettled and were crowded in the dry impoverished and unhealthy Gwai-Shangani reserves. Many Ndebele families were also forced to squat on white farms providing cheap semi-slave labour in exchange for permission to remain on white farms. The Ndebele did not like this and this was cause for unrest.

#### 3. Loss of cattle

Before the 1893-94 war, the Ndebele had 250 000 cattle. After the fall of the Ndebele state, most of the cattle were taken by the BSAC. Some were given to volunteers, police, as rations to soldiers and police and others were taken to the company administration to South Africa. Only about 40 930 were left at the hands of the Ndebele. This was a great insult to the Ndebele as cattle were highly valued in the Ndebele kingdom and it was the cause of unrest.

#### 4. Forced labour

The BSAC forced chiefs to supply young men as labourers to work in mines, building roads and railways. This was deeply resented by the Ndebele people.

#### 5. Oppressive administration

There was no economic and political freedom for Africans. Africans were harshly treated and sjamboked at their work places.

#### 6. Natural disasters

The outbreak of the rinderpest epidemic which killed many cattle in Zimbabwe and also a plague of locusts which devoured crops, were blamed on the presence of the whites. The spirit mediums told people that Mwari was unhappy with the presence of the whites, so the whites had to be forced off the Zimbabwean soil.

7. The Ndebele lost their national independence which meant the destruction of the age regiment system and the ending of the raiding system.

8. The Ndebele indunas had lost their powers and importance among the people and this made them unhappy.

9. The Ndebele felt insulted about the use of Shona policemen in their areas.

#### 10. Disappearance of the King

The Ndebele were cowed by the disappearance of their King after the 1893-94 Anglo-Ndebele war. They blamed this on the presence of the whites.

#### 11. Police Brutality

The police seized cattle and goats during the process of collecting tax. They ill-treated and sjamboked people during the process of tax collection.

### **Causes of the Shona Rising**

#### 1. Hut tax

The Shona resented the collection of Hut Tax and the recruitment of cheap labour for the mines, settler farms and public works. The company officials seized cattle, goats and gain from the people who failed to pay tax and sentenced them to long term in jail with forced labour.

#### 2. Forced labour

The Shona resented forced labour in mines, farms and public works.

#### 3. Natural disasters

In 1895-96 a severe drought occurred, killing most of the crops and those that survived were devoured by swarms of locusts. The rinderpest disease also killed most of the cattle. Natural disasters meant one thing to the Shona people, "It was an expression of the god or Mwari's anger". The traditional and religious leaders blamed the whites for Mwari's anger.

#### 4. Loss of cattle

The Shona resented the loss of the cattle to the white settlers.

#### 5. Loss of Land

Land was taken away from the Shona by the settlers for farming purposes and the Shona were very bitter about the loss of their traditional land.

6. The colonial occupation had seriously undermined the Shona way of life (e.g.) traditional way of life, religion etc.

7. The Shona rose against the whites because the white occupation had brought to an end trade relations between the Shona and the Portuguese to the East and in the Zambezi Valley.

#### 8. Abuse of Shona Women

The Shona were angry because of the sexual molestation of Shona women by the white settlers.

#### 9. Police Brutality

Police brutality and beating up of the people during the collection of taxes by the company police was greatly resented by the people.

#### **African Leaders involved in the 1896 uprising**

- |                  |               |
|------------------|---------------|
| 1. Mbuya Nehanda | 8. Chikwaba   |
| 2. Sekuru Kaguvi | 9. Sikhambo   |
| 3. Mashayamambe  | 10. Chaminuka |
| 4. Mkwati        | 11. Zhanda    |
| 5. Umlugulu      | 12. Mapandera |
| 6. Siginyamatshe | 13. Makoni    |
| 7. Gumboreshumba | 14. Mangwende |

#### **The cause of the first Chimurenga**

The Ndebele-Shona uprising of 1896 took the settlers by surprise. The Ndebele and Shona took advantage of the Johnson raid fiasco (i.e.) many of the BSAC police and soldiers had gone to South Africa to fight the Boers but unfortunately they were defeated and captured by the Boers.

There were not enough police to protect the whites in Zimbabwe. The Ndebele soldiers attacked white farmers and traders in Matabeleland. 130 whites were killed during the first week of the uprising. Those who escaped were surrounded in Bulawayo by Amabutho. The Ndebele were later joined by the Shona, the Shona joined the Ndebele because they hated the colonial rule so much. Within three months, many of the important Shona Chiefdoms from all parts of Mashonaland had also risen against the colonialists. Whites were attacked and survivors fled to laagers in Harare and Mutare.

#### **The role of the spirit mediums and religious leaders in the first Chimurenga**

-In south West and Central Zimbabwe the Mwari and Mlimo cult was worshiped. Here religious leaders like Umlugulu and Mkwati played an important role in preparing and mobilising people for war.

-The spirit mediums of Nehanda, Kaguvi and Chaminuka inspired people to fight in the north and north east.

-The spirit mediums co-ordinated e.g. Gumboreshumba, Chikwaka and Mashayamombe.

-The religious leaders gave medicine to the fighters.

-They co-ordinated military strategy.

-The religious leaders encouraged people to go ahead with the uprising.

-They helped in organising as well as in providing the logistics needed during the uprising.

-They treated and healed the wounded and the sick.

#### **Indaba (Rhodes' negotiation with the Ndebele)**

The Settlers asked the British government to quell the uprising. The British government sent a reinforcement of 1 000 soldiers to Southern Rhodesia. The whites were able to attack the

Ndebele amabutho one by one. The Ndebele amabutho withdrew to the Matopo hills where they were able to defend themselves. The settler patrols destroyed the villages and burned all the crops and grain stores of the Ndebele people to force the Ndebele to surrender, but the Ndebele forces were safe in the hills.

### **Activity**

- a) What were the Long term causes of the rebellions of 1897 in Mashonaland?
- b) Describe the course of the rebellion in Mashonaland and Matabeleland
- c) Spirit mediums played a great role in the rebellions of 1896-87. Do you agree?

### **Reasons why Rhodes Negotiated with the Ndebele**

- The Ndebele were brave and were known to be good fighters and warlike, so to continue fighting the Ndebele would take a long time.
- The fighting was costly to the BSAC in terms of money.
- The mines and farms were not working during the uprising and the BSAC was losing profits.
- The British government was unwilling to bear the cost of sending troops to crush the uprising.
- There were growing demands in the British parliament to withdraw the BSAC charter to rule the territory and this drove Rhodes to make talks with the Ndebele.
- The guerrilla tactics used by the Ndebele were difficult to deal with.
- The white settlers were losing both in terms of manpower and material resources.

During the negotiations with the Ndebele senior Indunas, Rhodes used bribery to get the indunas to negotiate for peace. He promised Indunas jobs in the BSAC; pensions, and the indunas to retain their regional power. The Ndebele senior indunas made peace with Rhodes in October 1896 at Matopos.

### **The defeat of the Shona**

After the Ndebele had made peace, the British soldiers were able to send most of their forces against the Shona. Rhodes rejected talks with the Shona arguing that the Shona were divided and leaderless. The settlers also felt that they were betrayed by the Shona whom they labelled as rebels. The Shona carried out their resistance and withdrew into caves. The Europeans used a policy of terrorism, scorched earth policy (crop burning, destruction of water sources, villages etc) using maxim guns, gathing guns, artillery, dynamites etc. In 1897, the Shona were dynamited in caves and Makoni surrendered as a prisoner of war. However most chiefs who led the uprising were captured and killed. The British were able to stamp down the First Chimurenga and establish law and order.

### **Activity**

- a) How did Rhodes and the BSAC deal with the rebellions in Mashonaland and Matabeleland?.
- b) Why did Rhodes employ dialogue in Matabeleland and military force in Mashonaland?

### **Reasons for the defeat of the Shona**

- The Shona had inferior weapons, they used spears, shields, clubs and arrows against guns, artillery, and canons used by the whites.
- The Shona were not united, some of the Shona groups were against the uprising.
- The Shona did **not** have an army and a single leader to co-ordinate all the Shona.
- The whites had superior weapons (e.g.) guns, artillery and canons.
- The whites used a lot of brutality that frightened the Shona (e.g.) the use of dynamites.
- The whites used a policy of terrorism and scorched earth policy.
- The whites got help from Britain, they got a reinforcement of 1 000 soldiers from Britain.
- Some of the Shona were starved into submission.
- The spirit mediums misled people by telling them that bullets would not work against them.

### **Activity**

It is true that the First Chimurenga rebellions were a total failure by Africans to resist colonial rule? Give reasons for your answers.

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State three reasons for the Ndebele uprising and three reasons for the Shona uprising of 1896 [6]
- (b) Describe the course of the Ndebele Shona uprising of 1896 [11]
- (c) How important was the role played by the spirit mediums in the war? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 13**

### **COLONIAL GOVERNMENT**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Describe the nature of colonial administration in Southern Rhodesia
- b) Outline the living conditions of Africans under colonial rule
- c) Show the impact of colonial policies of the political and socio-economic organization of the Africa people.
- d) Explain attempts by Africa to resist colonial administration during this period

When Zimbabwe was a colony, it was called Southern Rhodesia. From 1890-1923 Southern Rhodesia was ruled by the British South Africa Company (BSAC). The BSAC had the British government's permission to rule in the Royal Charter of 1889. As the number of whites grew, they were given the right to elect more representatives in the government of the colony. In 1923 the company rule was ended and the responsible government took over.

The constitution of the responsible government entailed that: -

- (i) Only a few rich and educated Africans were allowed to vote
- (ii) The constitution said that voters had to be British citizens earning more than £200 per year.

#### **The growth of peasant farming**

In Southern Rhodesia more and more Africans began to grow food crops for sale. In the early years peasants were successful. The settlers had taken huge areas of land in the 1890's but most of them were more interested in mining than in farming. Peasants in white-owned farms were forced to give some of their crops or cattle to the white land owners as rent. Some peasants had to give half of what they produced to the white landlords. They were allowed to use the other half themselves or sell it for money.

- The new colony depended entirely on crops grown by Africans.
- A group of prosperous African peasant farmers emerged (e.g.) those who owned many cattle and controlled the means of production like land and labour.
- The poorer peasants and those further away from the markets were still forced to go and work for short periods on the mines.

#### **Crops grown in colonial Zimbabwe before 1923**

Maize	Cowpeas
Tobacco	Pumpkins
Sorghum	Groundnuts/ roundnuts
Cotton	Melons
Rapoko	Millet



## **Methods used by the BSAC to deprive Africans off their land and to promote white settler agriculture before 1923**

### Settler capitalist agriculture (Farming)

After 1910, it was clear that there were no goldfields as rich as the Rand in Southern Rhodesia. The BSAC then encouraged many whiter farmers to turn to commercial farming instead of mining. They were encouraged to grow crops such as tobacco, maize and to breed cattle to supply the mines and for export to South Africa and Britain.

The settler farmers faced many difficulties, the main one being that the peasants produced crops more cheaply and efficiently than the settlers could.

The government, however, began to take measures to promote white settler agriculture through the following measures: -

- The government set up a land bank to lend money to white commercial farmers.
- The money lent to the farmers was for buying agricultural inputs such as fertilisers, seeds, chemicals, as well as farm machinery.
- Africans were taxed to raise the money to finance white settler agriculture.
- The BSAC also provided services such as advisers to advise the new white farmers on how to grow tobacco, maize and to breed cattle.
- Cattle dipping, marketing and transport facilities were provided to the white commercial farmers.
- Transport facilities were for transporting crops, cattle etc.
- Settlers with farms made Africans living there pay higher rents and new dipping fees.
- Africans living on settler farms were stopped from farming for themselves and forced to work for white settler farmers for low wages.
- The BSAC took land from Africans which it later sold to the white farmer
- New breeds of cattle were imported from South Africa to improve the breeds of cattle in Southern Rhodesia (e.g.) Afrikaner, Guensey, Arbedeen Angus etc.
- An agricultural scientist was invited from the Cape to carry out research on crops and animals among the whites.
- Africans were forced into reserves (e.g.) the Gwai-Shangani reserves in 1893.
- Africans were also deprived of their land through many land Acts that were passed (e.g.) the Matabeleland Order in Council of 1898 and the land commission of 1914.

It should however be noted that no agricultural research and experiment was carried out among the Africans.

### **Land acts signed in Rhodesia between 1912 and 1970**

The Land Commission or Land Act of 1914

The Land Apportionment Act 1930

The Land Husbandry Act 1951

The Land Tenure Act of 1969

### **The Destruction of the African Peasant Farming in Rhodesia**

#### 1. The Land Commission 1914

In 1914 a commission set up by the BSAC took away half a million hectares of the best land near towns and main transport routes. This was done to give white farmers access to transport routes and nearness to market places to transport and market their products like tobacco, maize, milk, cattle etc. The government sold the land near towns and transport

routes to the white farmers. During the 1920's both the white farmers and miners began to call on the government to take away more land from African peasant farmers.

- The capitalist farmers wanted to end competition from peasants.
- The white settlers wanted more land and more people to work for wages.

## 2. The Land Apportionment Act (1930)

- The act divided land into black and white areas.
- It gave more than half of the country's land to the whites (i.e.) all fertile and best land was given to the whites.
- Between 1930 and 1950 most peasants were forced off the fertile lands in the country.
- Peasants were expelled from fertile areas which the whites did not own. This land was reserved for future white generations.
- A few African peasants were later allowed to buy land in what were called African Purchase Areas.
- African peasants faced many difficulties because of the Land Apportionment Act.
- The land in the reserves was poor.
- It became unfertile due to overcrowding and overgrazing. These also caused soil erosion.
- Most of the reserves were far from towns and market places and this made it difficult for peasants to transport crops to markets.
- Peasants were no longer able to earn enough money from farming due to the Land Apportionment Act. Many peasants were therefore forced to become waged workers.

## 3. The Native Land Husbandry Act (NLHA) of 1951

- Common grazing land was divided into individual private plots. The family then had to register this land as their own. This Act, was passed to make space in the already over-crowded reserves for the thousands of people evicted from white commercial farms.
- The Land Husbandry Act was passed to introduce new scientific methods of agriculture in overcrowded reserves.
- There was to be compulsory destocking for Africans. Africans were not allowed to have more than five cattle per family.
- The amount of land for Africans was reduced from 8 to 5 hectares. Those Africans who failed to get land were forced to go and work in towns for wages.
- The Act impoverished Africans as the Africans depended on cattle and farming for their livelihood.
- The Native Land Husbandry Act (NLHA) failed to achieve its primary objective of introducing new scientific farming methods to Africans in reserves.
- There was land degradation, soil erosion, overgrazing and creation of galleys in many reserves which resulted in rural urban migration among many men in search of wage employment.

## 4. The Land Tenure Act (1969)

- The Act tightened the terms of the Land Apportionment Act.
- The Land Tenure Act divided social and economic facilities into black and white.

- Blacks were not allowed into towns after 7:00pm (i.e.) there was a curfew for the blacks after 7pm in towns.
- There were particular places designated for whites and Africans were not supposed to be seen near these areas.
- Africans dwelt in locations or townships where they were overcrowded and did not have basic amenities.
- Those Africans who were wage labourers were paid very low wages as compared to their white counterparts.
- There was the job colour bar in Southern Rhodesia brought about by the Land Tenure Act. Africans were not allowed to do white collar jobs.
- Africans were ill-treated and beaten up at work places.
- White education was also promoted and prioritised as compared to African Education (i.e.) there was also Education Colour Bar

## 5. Mine Labour

The mines in Southern Rhodesia were never very high in ore. They were usually small and the ore was poor. Conditions in mines were poor and dangerous. Most Ndebele and Shona peasant farmers were able to live quite comfortably without having to go and work on mines.

### Activity

- Outline the factors that promoted the growth of manufacturing industry in Southern Rhodesia.
- How and to what extent did the colonial government exploit African society between 1900 and 1930?

### Minerals mined in colonial Zimbabwe before 1923

Gold  
 Chrome  
 Asbestos  
 Iron  
 Copper  
 Lead  
 Coal

### Methods used by the Rhodesian mine owners to force Africans to work in mines

Introducing a tax system  
 Introducing a system of contracts  
 Pass laws  
 Forced labour (chibaro)  
 The formation of the Rhodesian Chamber of Mines

### African working conditions in mines in colonial Zimbabwe during the period 1894-1932

- The working conditions for African mine workers were appalling
- They lived in, overcrowded badly built compounds
- African mine workers were paid very low wages
- They suffered from malnutrition as they were given bad food
- There was no system of medical treatment for mine workers

- African mine workers worked without protective clothing, so accidents, deaths and casualties were common in mines
- They were forced to work under the supervision of the police force (chibaro)
- There was no compensation for injuries
- Workers were sjamboked by their supervisors
- They were heavily taxed
- There were no pension schemes for workers
- There was no representation or any union that could bargain for workers
- The workers were forced to work for long contracts and they were poorly paid.

**Methods used by the African mine workers to resist exploitation by European settlers between 1894 and 1932**

- African workers fled from work places.
- Some people resisted going to work in mines because they could raise the money for taxes through selling their crops and cattle
- Some people fled and left their homes to resist direct forced labour (chibaro). Some people fled to Mozambique to hide there.
- Absenteeism from duty.
- Agents sent to look for labourers were sometimes killed.
- The workers resorted to machine breaking, sabotaging equipment as a way of showing their discontent and resentment.
- They resorted to go-slows, strikes, demonstrations and sit-ins.
- Workers refused to pay tax.
- The mine workers “accidentally” injured their bosses.
- Some of the mine workers fled to South Africa to go and work at the Rand mines.
- The workers also burnt their work passes.
- They also faked injuries and illness.

It is however important to note that even though the African mine workers used all the above methods to resist exploitation by the European Capitalist settlers, they failed to achieve their objectives due to the following reasons: -

1. Africans were forced to pay many taxes and as a result, they were forced to go and work in mines in an effort to raise the finances to pay taxes.
2. The settler government assisted the mine employers to force Africans to go and work in mines.
3. Mine workers had the support of the police force.
4. The use of passes forced African mine workers to work.
5. Mine workers were not united.
6. Africans had lost their land and cattle so they were forced to work either in mines, factories and industries as a means of survival.
7. Fear on the part of the Africans.

**Activity**

- a) What was the Land Apportionment Act, and what effect did it have on Land tenure in Southern Rhodesia?
- b) Show the various ways by which Africans resisted colonial administration between 1900 and 1950.

**12.1 Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State any six Acts signed by the British to deprive Africans of their land. [6]  
 (b) Describe measures taken by settlers to promote settler Agriculture. [11]  
 (c) To what extent were Africans disadvantaged by settler Agriculture? [8]
- 2(a) State any six minerals mined in Zimbabwe before 1930. [6]  
 (b) Describe working conditions faced by Africans between 1894- 1932. [11]  
 (c) To what extent did Zimbabwe benefit from the colonial economy? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 14**

### **THE FEDERATION OF RHODESIA AND NYASALAND**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Outline the factors promoting the establishment of the federation
  - b) Describe the administrating economic and social functions of the federation
  - c) Show the failure/success of the federation
  - d) Explain African re-action to the establishment of a federation
  - e) Explain the break-up of the federation
- In a Federation each member state keeps some power over others. Individual states still keep their territorial governments, but they report to the central government.
  - In 1953 Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland formed the federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland.
  - The capital city of the federation was Salisbury in Southern Rhodesia.
  - The federal parliament would control the finances, trade, communication, industry and defence while the territories would control the local government, African education, land, agriculture and health, while higher education was controlled by the federation.

#### **Reasons for the Federation**

- To cut administration costs.
- To boost the confidence of whites in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland who were few in numbers by joining them with the more numerous whites who were in southern Rhodesia.
- It was hoped that this would block African demands in the region for power.
- It would form a strong British Colony to be able to compete with South Africa.
- The settlers wanted to protect interests of English settlers from the racist Afrikaners in South Africa.
- The arrangement would maximise exploitation of the region and if black demands for independence became too strong, all the whites could concentrate in Southern Rhodesia.
- The settlers in Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) also wanted to make more use of the Malawian and Zambian labour.
- To improve transport and communication.
- To improve availability of resources in the territories.
- As a federal state it would attract more capital.
- Politically, the settlers argued that they were spearheading English Style Liberalism as opposed to the racist doctrines of the Afrikaaners.

#### **Leaders who were involved in the formation of the Federation**

1. Roy Welensky
2. Godfrey Huggins
3. J.H. Thomas Creeche Jones
4. Oliver Lyttleton
5. John Moffat
6. Reverend E.H. Nightingale

### **Steps taken by the settlers and the British government to bring about the federation**

Representatives of Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland met at Victoria Falls in 1949 to consider a proposal of a federation. There was unanimous agreement on the proposal. The British foreign minister visited the territories to hold informal talks on the idea of the federation. However the leaders of the three countries failed to convince the British Colonial Secretary who viewed the Federation as not being beneficial to the Africans. A few Africans were also invited to attend this meeting following the Victoria Falls conference. Another conference was held in London in 1951 by the British government and governments of the three territories. Here a draft constitution for a federal government was drawn up. No Africans were invited to the London conference of 1951. Further conferences were held in London in 1952 and 1953 to look at the outstanding issues concerning the Federation. Federal proposals were then submitted to the governments of Britain, Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. The parliaments of Britain, Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland accepted the idea of establishing the Federation. In Southern Rhodesia, the proposal was put to a referendum in April 1953 in which the majority accepted the idea. The orders in council brought into being the Federation in October 1953.

### **The Constitution of the Federation**

- There were 36 members of parliament, 18 from Southern Rhodesia, 11 from Northern Rhodesia and 7 from Nyasaland. Six places were reserved for the Africans. There would also be three members of parliament to look after African Affairs. The whites had decided that Africans needed a white man to speak for them.
- The 3 white members of parliament or spokesmen and 3 African members of parliament would sit in the so called “African Affairs Board” whose job was to examine legislation that might be unfair to Africans. It could theoretically veto such legislation, but since its veto could be set aside by the Governor General or the British Government, it was not of much use.
- The British government/ governor general could still change the decision (i.e.) override it.
- The Federal parliament would control finance, trade, communication industry and defence. The territories could control local government, African education, land, agriculture and health.
- Sixty percent (60%) of the income tax would go to Southern Rhodesia, 17% to Northern Rhodesia and 17% to Nyasaland.
- The Federal capital was Salisbury in Southern Rhodesia.
- Only six out of 36 members of parliament were Africans. The whites responsible for African affairs were Sir John Moffat, and Rev. E.H. Nightingale.

### **Activity**

- a) Why did colonial settlers in Southern Rhodesia want the establishment of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland?
- b) Outline the administrative structure and duties of government of the federation?

### **The Federal Policies**

- Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland were less developed than Southern Rhodesia which was the rider while Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland were horses.

- The education of the three territories was a triangle, Black people did not proceed further in terms of education, hence academic education was unequal.
- Blacks learnt only just to understand basics and simple rules unlike whites who really had good education up to tertiary level.
- The University of the Federation was constructed in Salisbury, it catered mostly for the white tertiary education.
- Wages continued to be unequal between whites and blacks.
- The white settlers gained more from the federation than the blacks. They had access to good and high paying jobs, good education as well as economic empowerment.
- The social and economic standards of the blacks continued to deteriorate even after the federation.
- Dreams of other settlers like John Moffat of representing the affairs of the Africans died a natural death.

### **Activity**

Describe the economic and social benefits of the federation on southern Rhodesia?

### **Economic Resources of the Federation**

#### Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe)

Gold  
Tin  
Nickel  
Chrome  
Coal  
Asbestos  
Iron  
Tobacco

#### Northern Rhodesia (Zambia)

Copper  
Zinc  
Lead  
Maize

#### Nyasaland (Malawi)

Tin  
Limestone  
Rice  
Fish  
Labourers

### **Who did the federation Benefit most and how?**

- Southern Rhodesia benefited the most from the Federation. The Kariba dam was constructed Southern Rhodesia during the Federation in and it provided hydro electric power to Zimbabwe, Zambia and Malawi.
- Southern Rhodesia also benefited from the construction of the University of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. There was also the building of schools and hospitals from the funds of the Federation in Southern Rhodesia.
- Profits from the copper mines were channelled towards the building of schools, hospitals and manufacturing industries in Southern Rhodesia.
- Southern Rhodesia benefited in terms of cheap migrant labourers from Malawi and Northern Rhodesia to work in mines farms, industries and factories. These provided cheap semi-slave labour to Southern Rhodesia and industrialists and manufacturers made large profits.



- The Federal funds were also used to finance large agricultural and industrial projects in Southern Rhodesia.
- Lake Kyle dam and a number of dams in the dry low veld were constructed to irrigate sugar cane and citrus on the Hippo Valley and Triangle estates.
- In 1959 itself, crops in the Federation produced by all races totalled £43 million and these funds were used for the development of Southern Rhodesia.
- The development of secondary industries during the federation period was centred in Southern Rhodesia. Southern Rhodesia was also the leading producer of manufactured goods.
- Bulawayo became the centre for transport and communication with a good railway and transport network.
- There were big blocks of flats, offices and big departmental stores that were constructed in Salisbury and Bulawayo from the Federal funds.
- Wankie coal mine was expanded during the federation and the thermal power project was started during this period.
- The Fishing industry was stimulated in Southern Rhodesia through the construction of the Kariba dam and other major dams in the country.
- Wheat and cotton were grown in Southern Rhodesia in the Sabi Valley.
- In Salisbury, excellent libraries, museums and concert halls, cinemas, art galleries, archives, and theatres were built.
- Hundreds of bridges were built in Southern Rhodesia and roads were tarred. Improved rural roads helped these areas to develop and enabled people to get their crops to market places more easily.
- On the other hand the federation failed to create better living standards for the Africans. Rather the Europeans developed things for themselves only.
- The three member states of the federation did not benefit equally from the federation and the amalgamation of the states into one power was a failure.
- In Zambia agricultural schemes were developed on the Kafue Valley. A project was begun to control the wide flood plain and wheat and rice were grown there.
- The draining of marshlands in Zambia in the lower Shire valley was carried out.

### **Social Achievements of the Federation**

- Cities and towns were improved.
- Houses were built in the towns of the federation, multi-storied blocks of flats and offices were also constructed.
- Construction of schools, hospitals etc.
- Establishment of polytechnic colleges, teacher's colleges, hospitals and health facilities etc.

### **Benefits to Northern Rhodesia**

- Towns were built
- Roads and railways constructed
- Electricity from Kariba for the Copperbelt and other places in Zambia
- Improved health facilities

### **African political parties opposed to the federation**

Zambia African National Congress  
 National Democratic Party (NDP)  
 Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU)  
 Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU)  
 Malawi African Congress  
 African National Congress (ANC)  
 United National Independence Party (UNIP)  
 Malawi Congress Party (MCP)

### **Individuals opposed to the federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland**

Kamuzu Banda  
 Hary Nkumbula  
 Kenneth Kaunda  
 Joshua Nkomo  
 Robert Mugabe

### **The Collapse of the Federation**

- Not all the settlers wanted the Federation (e.g.) Colonel Steward Gore Brown, a settler in Zambia, said that Zambia should remain under the British government which had at least taken responsibility in looking after African interests which the settlers had not.
- The settlers in Eastern Zambia who exported their tobacco through Malawi were more interested in co-operating with Malawi than Zimbabwe.
- The Hilton young commission said that if Zambia joined with anybody it should be Malawi not Zimbabwe and that both Zambia and Malawi should co-operate with the British colonies in East Africa. This terrified the settlers in Zimbabwe. They were filled with dread at the thought of co-operation between “black” colonies to the North of them. Africans in Zambia were opposed to the Federation because they knew that if amalgamation took place, Zimbabwe would be the leading partner and the settlers idea of racial segregation would be extended to Zambia.
- Many Africans who had fought in the wars in India, Burma, Ethiopia, and Madagascar were opposed to the federation. They had come home with a broader outlook, an awareness of the role of education, a greater unity or military discipline. They would no longer put up with the rule of colonial government.
- The British Labour Government set out a trade union leader called Comrie, to advise Africans. This led to the formation of the Copperbelt Shop Assistants Union and the African Mine Workers Union which under the leadership of Lawrence Katingulu, staged a long strike that brought copper production to a standstill as a way of protest against the federation.
- In Zambia, a group of young men of Ndola, formed an Anti-Federation Committee. The committee campaigned against the Federation through publications, newsletters etc.
- Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia felt that they were cheated since southern Rhodesia benefited from all the income generated by all member states, so they opposed the federation.
- The Federal Electoral Bill and Constitution Amendment Bill, introduced by Godfrey Huggins, aroused more opposition to the federation.

- The aim of these Bills was to solidify white supremacy and prevent Africans from ever getting power over whites. The Bills increased white membership in the Federal Parliament to 45 compared to the African membership of 12 and created new voting arrangements which were unfavourable to Africans.
- The passing of the two Bills aroused African Nationalism.
- Trade unionists and workers organisations in Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland opposed the Federation.
- Political unionists and Nyasaland opposed the Federation.
- The Federation finally broke up in 1963 after 10 years of existence.

### **The nationalist activities in Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) against the Federation**

- In 1954 the African National Congress (ANC) organised demonstrations against the government's failure to end racism.
- In 1955 urban demonstrations were organised by the ANC to force the government to cancel colour bars in shops and post offices.
- Harry Nkumbula of the ANC rejected proposals to change the Northern Rhodesia Legislative. He showed his rejection by burning the white newspaper with the proposals.
- Harry Nkumbula agreed to participate in the 1956 elections. This move led to the split of the ANC because some leaders regarded Nkumbula's actions as a sellout.
- In 1958 a new political party was formed, the Zambian African National Congress led by Kenneth Kaunda.
- In 1959 leaders of the Zambian African National Congress (ZANC) including Kenneth Kaunda were arrested as a way of stopping violence during elections. This party was banned.
- New political parties were formed to continue the fight against the Federation. The parties later merged to form the United National Independence Party (UNIP) and Kenneth Kaunda became its leader after being released from prison.
- The UNIP preached the use of non-violent methods against the Federation (e.g.) negotiations, petitions, etc.
- The UNIP led by Kaunda attended a meeting in London at Lancaster House to review the Federal Constitution. A new constitution came up for Northern Rhodesia to lead to majority rule but revised before implementation.
- The revision of the constitution led to violence in Zambia organised by UNIP against the Federal government. Bridges, railway lines and buildings were blown up, schools were burnt and this forced the British government to hold new talks at Lancaster where an agreement was reached on holding elections.
- The elections that followed went in favour of the UNIP with Kenneth Kaunda as the president and this marked the end of the Federation.

### **The Manufacturing Industries in Southern Rhodesia**

#### **Reasons Leading to the Rise of Manufacturing Industries**

1. The Great depression of the 1930's encouraged Southern Rhodesia to produce her own goods because imported goods were now scarce.
2. The second world war also encouraged Southern Rhodesia to manufacture its own goods because the countries which supplied the goods were also affected by war.
3. Availability of minerals in Southern Rhodesia (e.g.) chrome, coal, asbestos etc.

4. The post war immigration from 1946-1951, created a ready market for the Southern Rhodesia products.
5. The natural growth of local white population expanded domestic markets particularly for the construction industry.
6. The increase in the size of African labour due to a natural growth of African population as well as the rural urban migration of Africans in search of employment opportunities. This meant that there was adequate labour supply in the manufacturing sector.
7. The growth of an African labour force also meant that there was a large African market which could be supplied with manufactured goods such as the textile products.
8. The output of Southern Rhodesia into the Central African Confederation in 1953 expanded the size of the market and also gave Southern Rhodesia access to a share of the revenue of the Northern Rhodesia copper belt.
9. The Second World War also led to an industrial take off in Southern Rhodesia as spare parts were needed for aircraft and military trucks etc.

### **Laws passed by the Rhodesian Government which disadvantaged African Labourers**

1. The Industrial Conciliation Act (1934)
2. The Native Registration Act (1936)
3. The Native Urban Areas Accommodation Act (1946)
4. The Industrial Conciliation Act (1959)
5. The Law and Order Maintenance Act (LOMA) 1960

### **The Industrial Conciliation Act (1934)**

The Industrial Conciliation Act was supposed to govern labour relations. This law specifically stopped Africans from forming trade unions until 1959. So while Africans were deprived of their lands by the Land Apportionment Act, they were also denied the opportunity of competing in the labour market.

- The passing of the Industrial Conciliation Act was (I.C.A.) due to the 1929 world economic depression when cotton, beef, tobacco and mineral industries were crumbling. The Industrial Conciliation Act was therefore meant to safeguard and protect the whites and maintain peace and harmony in industry.
- The Industrial Conciliation Act (I.C.A.) aimed at providing apprenticeship for whites and maintaining white standards of living.
- The I.C.A. sought to safeguard state interest in the labour process and white employees in industries.
- The existence of similar Acts in South Africa played a crucial role in the passing of the I.C.A. in Southern Rhodesia. Prior to the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934, the existing pieces of Labour Relations Legislation such as the Industrial Dispute Act of 1920, were not effective in resolving industrial disputes.
- Employees under the Industrial Conciliation Act (I.C.A.) lost the right to strike and to form trade unions.
- In 1934 the National Railways had discharged 1530 white workers and many from various fields. Whites were not willing to work for wages less than the standard wages, thus the I.C.A. enacted a minimum wage Act for whites to protect them.

- The I.C.A. aimed at improving white men's standards of living as it gave preferential treatment to whites.
- There was African discrimination, Africans were subjected to low menial jobs despite their skills and level of qualification whilst professional occupations were reserved for whites (Industrial Colour Bar).
- The apprenticeship of whites was thus protected.
- Africans were supposed to work in professional occupations which had been neglected by the whites as inferior.
- The Industrial Conciliation Act enabled the whites to give Africans meagre wages as they had no representation in the council debates.
- Africans in urban areas were given bachelor accommodation while their white counterparts were given housing allowances to improve their standards of living.
- The Act protected the white workers from African competition.
- The Industrial Conciliation Act advanced the interests of the whites at the expense of Africans reducing them to second class citizens.
- In the definition of an employee according to the I.C.A. "shall not include a native", meant there was industrial colour bar even for the same job, where whites got more pay.

### **The Native Registration Act (1936)**

This law was the revision of the Registration of Labourers Act of 1895 whereby records of fingerprints were kept and details of each workers village, tribe etc recorded. The Native Registration Act (1936) and the Native Passes Act (1937) controlled the movement of Africans and forced them to carry their passes wherever they went. Africans were not allowed to be in European areas without permission.

### **The Maize Control Act (1931) and Cattle Levy Act (1934)**

The Maize Control Act protected the Whites from competition from Africans in the selling of maize. The Act created better marketing opportunities and higher maize prices for European maize. African maize was rejected as inferior grade (B) maize and it was bought at very low prices.

The Cattle Levy Act made it possible for Europeans to sell their cattle for better prices.

### **The Law and Order Maintenance Act 1960**

The Law and Order Maintenance Act (LOMA) replaced the Preventive Detention Act. The LOMA controlled processions, gatherings, and political meetings from the African National Congress (ANC), National Democratic Party (NDP), ZAPU, ZANU and people council. Many publications and books against the government were banned because of the Law and Order Maintenance Act (LOMA). The Act said that if three or more people behaved in public in such a way that a police officer believed that a breach of peace was likely to occur, they could be told to disperse. If they refused to disperse, they could be considered to be an unlawful gathering. For this they could be arrested and sentenced to twelve months in prison. The LOMA included the "hanging clause". The clause said that a person who was found guilty of having arms of war like grenades, rifles, bombs, could be hanged. Under this clause, hundreds of Africans were hanged for fighting for their rights. The LOMA came to be an injustice of colonial rule. It created anger, resentment and the growing of political ideology among the Africans.

### **Early protest movements**

After the first Chimurenga, protest movements by Africans in Zimbabwe were formed in different parts of the country and these dealt with grievances against white settler rule in different parts of the country. The protest movements grew and by 1953 these were led by the blacks' elites such as teachers, ministers of religion, trade unionists and those in salaried jobs.

### **Leaders of the early protest movements in Southern Rhodesia**

Abraham Thwala  
 Aaron Jacha  
 Charles Mzingeli  
 Masotsha Ndlovu  
 Benjamin Burombo

### **The protest organisations up to 1953**

- The Rhodesian Bantu Voters Association
- The African National Congress
- The Reformed Industrial and Commercial Workers Union
- The British Africa Voice Association

### **African grievances against the Settler Government**

- Racial Discrimination
- Segregation in education, economy and social amenities
- Low wages
- Poor working conditions
- Industrial colour bar and job colour bar
- Ill-treatment, harassment and torture of Africans by the white minority.
- Lack of Parliamentary representation on the part of Africans.

It is important to note that the protest movements did not deal with the main issue (i.e.) ending minority rule and creating a democratic independent society in which every person had the right to vote. They also failed to create equality in sex, colour, religion or tribe. All persons over the age of 18 years were deprived of practising their democratic rights to vote, by the white settler government in Southern Rhodesia.

### **Repression and control of the early protest movements**

Africans had no say in the government over their land. They were subject to strict controls. The contract system, the pass laws and the migrant labour system controlled the movement of black workers. The white capitalists made it possible to keep the wages low. If a worker caused any trouble he/ she was simply dismissed and sent back to the reserves. This system made many workers feel very insecure. Many were afraid of demanding higher wages or better working conditions.

### **The Compound System**

The system was first developed in South Africa and it was copied in Southern Rhodesia. Compounds increased the profits of the mine owners because compounds were cheaply built.

- Working conditions in compounds were very poor
- The food provided to African workers was very poor
- Early compounds were badly built unhealthy shacks, slums and huts
- There was no privacy in compounds
- The toiletry system was poor
- The lighting system in the compounds that were built later was poor
- African workers were whipped and sjamboked by their white superiors
- Some mine workers were killed by police brutality
- A force of black compound police usually sjamboked the workers
- The courts gave lighter sentences to those white compound managers who killed black workers.
- If workers organised protests, they could be locked inside and the organisers arrested.
- Long working hours were common in compounds.

### **Colonial Education**

The colonial education was unequal and based on racial discrimination and segregation. There was an education colour bar in Southern Rhodesia.

- Africans were denied academic and tertiary education
- They were taught that European cultures were the best in the world and that there was nothing of value in the African culture.
- The Missionaries were the first to bring European Education to Africa. They emphasised European values and culture.
- As industries developed in the 1940's many skilled workers were needed and it became necessary for settlers to educate Africans.
- The First African government school to be built in southern Rhodesia was Goromonzi High School
- Africans were taught practical subjects and how to operate machinery, they were taught sporting activities like athletics.
- The settlers did not want workers educated enough to demand better pay or a share in the running of factories.
- Colonial education was racist. Whites were always given the best education to prepare them for leadership in colonial society.
- Education for all was one of the main demands of the nationalists in Southern Rhodesia and it was one of the causes of the liberation war.

However, some mission schools provided a full education for their African students. Some educated Africans began to question why they were not treated as equals by whites. This was however the beginning of African nationalism.

### **The Rhodesian Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (RICU)**

The Rhodesian Industrial and Commercial Workers Union's (RICU) main aim was to challenge the capitalists. It also helped unite workers in towns with the peasants in the countryside. RICU failed to achieve its primary objective of addressing and bringing improvements in the lives of the African workers.

### **Reasons for the failure of the RICU**

- The RICU was not allowed into the mine compounds and into commercial farms to organise workers' strikes.
- The RICU was not based at work places.
- The colonial government arrested and imprisoned RICU leaders.
- Peaceful negotiations by the RICU members proved futile.
- African workers were mostly unskilled. They could easily be replaced by many people from reserves and neighbouring countries like Malawi and Zambia.
- Many workers were afraid of joining RICU because of the fear of losing their jobs and getting arrested.
- Many employees were migrant workers and they could not strike.
- By 1936, RICU had faded away, but it had prepared the way for new workers' movements and industrial trade unions.

### **Trade Unions**

In the 1950's there was rural urban drift on the part of Africans in search of employment. In factories, mines and industries, black workers were given paltry salaries. There were too few houses, hospitals and schools for blacks. Amid these conditions, new industrial trade unions were formed to fight for the rights of the workers and their families. Trade unions were smaller and better organised than the RICU.

In 1945 the Railway workers association organised a nationwide railway workers' strike. There were some strikes led by Benjamin Burombo. The workers were demanding better wages, better conditions of work, better housing, and an end to unjust laws such as the pass system.

Trade unions were however not allowed to strike and were closely monitored by the police.

### **Activity**

The Federation benefited Southern Rhodesia at the expense of Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia. Do you agree?

### **12.2 Examination type questions**

- 1(a) Name any six reasons for the formation of the federation. [6]  
 (b) Describe reasons for the establishment of the federation. [11]  
 (c) To what extent did Africans benefit from the federation? [8]
- 2(a) Name any six nationalist leaders who opposed the federation. [6]  
 (b) Describe the socio-economic gains by the Africans for the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. [11]  
 (c) To what extent were African political parties responsible for the fall of the federation? [8]
- 3(a) Identify any six labour laws passed in Zimbabwe between 1934 and 1960. [6]  
 (b) Describe the Industrial Conciliation act of 1934. [11]  
 (c) To what extent were the whites successful in suppressing Africans through Acts during this period? [8]



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## **CHAPTER 15**

### **THE SECOND CHIMURENGA**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Describe the political environment in Africa during the period.
- b) Discuss the long and short term causes of the second Chimurenga.
- c) Show the success of the military tactics used by the Africans.
- e) Explain the role played by women and minority groups in the struggle.

#### **Causes of the second Chimurenga**

The causes of the second Chimurenga were many. It was a combination of racist segregation as well as the colonial legacies that impacted adversely on the part of Africans. The Rhodesian government as well as the white settlers, greatly oppressed and sidelined Africans in all aspects and spheres of life economically, socially and politically. This caused resentment among the African population, hence the taking up of arms by the blacks to fight all forms of segregation and oppression.

- Africans resented land alienation through various Acts like the Land Apportionment Act (LAA), Native Land Husbandry Act etc. (NLHA).
- Africans also opposed colonial legacies such as the education colour bar and job colour bar.
- Racial discrimination, made Africans second class citizens in their own country.
- Influence of ex-servicemen. The ex-servicemen from world war II spread the doctrines of liberty, equality, justice, freedom and nationalism.
- The influence of African nationalists like Nkwame Nkrumah of Ghana.
- Colonial oppression, for example, the payment of taxes i.e. dog tax, hut tax, cattle tax etc.
- Africans also wanted majority rule as opposed to white minority rule.
- Another cause of resentment was that the white minority population controlled the resources and means of production.
- Exploitation and torture of Africans by whites.
- The rise of nationalist parties to spearhead the national liberation caused the formation for example of ZAPU, ZANU.
- Illtreatment of Africans at work places such as farms, factories, etc.
- Africans were sjamboked at work places.
- African workers were also opposed to poor working and housing conditions as well as low salaries.
- Influence of other African countries that had already attained their independence.
- The formation of trade unions.
- The creation of reserves for Africans. Reserves were dry and impoverished.
- During the 1950's and 1960's the winds of change were blowing through Africa, meaning that it was a period of decolonising Africans in Southern Rhodesia were also influenced by these winds of revolting against their white oppressors.

#### **Activity**

Describe the long term and immediate causes of the second Chimurenga

### **Nationalist parties in Southern Rhodesia that opposed white settler rule.**

- 1) African National Congress (ANC)
- 2) The National Democratic Party (NDP)
- 3) Zimbabwe African Peoples Union (ZAPU)
- 4) Zimbabwe African Nationalist Union (ZANU)

Nationalist leaders during the second Chimurenga in Southern Rhodesia

James Chikerema	Morton Malianga
Michael Mawema	Enos Nkala
Joseph Msika	George Silundika
George Nyandoro	Jason Moyo
Joshua Nkomo	Leopold Takawira
Robert Mugabe	Herbert Chitepo
Stanlake Samkange	Alfred Nikita Mangena
Edson Sithole	Josiah Tongogara

### **The Importance of Foreign Aid in the Liberation of Zimbabwe**

Foreign Aid played a pivotal role in the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe got her foreign support from both regional and international countries for the continuation of the struggle against the forces of colonisation i.e. the Rhodesian government. Both ZANU PF and ZAPU PF military wings of ZANLA and ZIPRA, got remarkable support and aid from foreign countries and governments and this played a significant role in the eventual overthrow of the Smith regime.

### **International countries that supported the Liberation struggle in Zimbabwe**

Romania  
Yugoslavia  
Cuba  
China  
Russia  
East Germany

### **Regional Countries that supported the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe**

Mozambique  
Tanzania  
Angola  
Zambia  
Libya  
Botswana

### **Weapons used during the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe**

Assault rifles  
Machine guns  
Mortars  
Artillery  
Surface to Air Missiles (SAM)

Landmines  
Grenades  
Bombs

ZAPU was formed after NDP had been banned, ZANU PF was formed later in 1963. ZANU PF was formed in 1963 and its military wing was ZANLA (Zimbabwe African National Liberation Army). ZANU PF established bases and sent military cadres to go and receive military training abroad for the continuation of the Liberation Struggle. ZANU PF established bases in Mozambique and Tanzania where the guerrillas received military training as well as logistics in the likes of food, shelter, medicine, clothes arms, ammunition etc, which were important in the liberation struggle. From Mozambique and Tanzania, ZANLA got material, psychological and moral support. Many guerrillas got their military training from these camps and the same guerrillas contributed significantly to the success of the liberation struggle when they were deployed in the Eastern Front and the Western Front in Zimbabwe.

ZANU PF also sent most of its men to get military training in China during the late 60's and early 70's. In China, the guerrillas were trained in the art of guerrilla warfare, intelligence, training of the high command etc. This training brought about efficiency in strategy and operations among the ZANLA forces in the 1970's with the ZANLA guerrillas gaining more ground and capturing more territories in the areas around Pungwe, Mutare, Karoi etc. The training in China, Yugoslavia, Romania and Cuba produced commanders of great expertise and high intellect for example Josiah Tungamirai, Perence Shiri, Solomon Mujuru, Josiah Tongogara. These commanders kept the flame of the struggle burning up to the bitter end when the Lancaster House Agreement was held.

China and Cuba taught the ZANLA guerrillas the art of guerrilla warfare i.e. Maoist teachings that put more emphasis on hit and run tactics, surprise night attacks, ambush, dependence on peasants for supplies. These teachings led to the destruction of oil depots in Harare (Southerton) by the ZANLA guerrillas and were effective in bringing Ian Smith to the negotiation table. China also financially funded the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe for the purchase of arms, clothes, food etc. They also gave ZANLA guerrillas weapons such as rifles, machine guns, motors, artillery, etc. These weapons caused heavy casualties and losses among the Rhodesian army during the period 1976-1979.

### **ZAPU (Western and the Northern Front)**

ZAPU and its, military wing ZIPRA received training and military support from Angola, Botswana, Tanzania, Zambia, Libya. Countries like Russia trained the ZIPRA intelligence wing, financially supported the struggle and trained ZIPRA commanders in strategy and deployment as well as logistics. ZIPRA used the strategy of convectional warfare as well as discipline. The ZIPRA cadres who were trained in intelligence matters in Russia were Lookout Masuku, Emmerson Mnangagwa, Dumiso Dabengwa. Zipra infiltrated into Zimbabwe through the Western and Northern Front from Botswana and Zambia while ZANLA infiltrated from Mozambique. Both the ZIPRA and ZANLA activities contributed to the success of the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe.

### **The role of the masses (peasants) and workers in the success of the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe**

Peasants in Zimbabwe greatly played a pivotal role in the success of the liberation struggle. They gave food, shelter and clothing to the guerrillas. They treated the sick injured or

wounded. The peasants also supplied the guerrillas with the much needed intelligence information, spying, reporting on the whereabouts of the enemy etc. The desire to fight and to take part in the liberation struggle was great among the African masses in Zimbabwe. The Chimbwidos cooked for the guerrillas and washed their clothes whilst the Mujibhas carried food, ammunition etc for the guerrillas.

In the 1960's there was rural violence among the masses in rural areas. The nationalists resorted to the strategy of violence i.e. the Zhandu strategy to terrorise white farmers and the white community for example petrol bombing of the houses of whites and, sympathisers, stoning, destruction of livestock, crops, and property. In urban areas workers protests took place in Bulawayo, Harare, Gweru, Mutare etc. During the days of the "Zhi" in the 1960's, the Zhandu strategy destroyed municipal beerhalls, and government property. Even though the settler government managed to contain all this violence by Africans through the use of riot squads, CIDs etc, the importance of the Zhandu strategy was that it encouraged future nationalist activities and gave moral and psychological boost to the guerrillas. The Zhandu strategy went on to destroy European schools, dip tanks, cutting of fences and phone lines.

In urban areas workers staged demonstrations, lockouts, strikes, desertions, breaking of machinery etc as a sign of discontent against the white settler government in Southern Rhodesia. Workers' organisations were also formed, which spearheaded the interests of Workers in urban areas. These organised strikes included the Shamva mine strike and the National Railways strike.

### **Methods used by the Rhodesian government to deal with the guerrilla activities, peasants and workers organisations**

The Rhodesian government used counter-insurgency strategy to stop the guerrilla activities and menace by the peasants, workers and urban dwellers. It is important to note that this strategy was not of much significance as the Rhodesian government was eventually forced to go to the negotiation table at Lancaster due to the heavy losses the government was incurring in terms of manpower, finances and equipment for the continuation of the war against the guerrillas and masses.

The Rhodesian special Air service attacked ZANLA and ZIPRA camps at Tengwe, Chimoio, Nyadzonia, Luangwa and Freedom camp in 1976 and 1977.

Internally, the government used the riot squads to disperse the demonstrating masses. CID's were commissioned to deal with the leaders and organisers of strikes and boycotts. The organisers were arrested, detained and tortured.

### **Some of the Nationalist leaders who died during the struggle for the Independence of Zimbabwe between 1966 and 1980**

Herbert Chitepo  
 Alfred Nikita Mangena  
 Jaison Ziyaphapha Moyo  
 Edson Sithole  
 John Mataure  
 Leopold Takawira  
 Josiah Tongogara

### **The Activities of Freedom fighters between 1965 and 1971 in Southern Rhodesia**

- ZANU and ZAPU sent cadres for military training abroad in both regional and international countries.
- On 28 April 1966, ZANU freedom fighters fought the first battle of Chinhoyi against the Rhodesian forces. In the battle of Chinhoyi, all the seven freedom fighters were killed by the - Rhodesian front which had the help of the Rhodesian Special Air Service.
- The battle of Chinhoyi was followed by the Hwange battles which were initiated by ZAPU freedom fighters together with the ANC freedom fighters of South Africa.
- Young boys and girls were recruited for training by the freedom fighters in both regional and international countries.
- Weapons were smuggled secretly into Zimbabwe through unprotected sports and distributed to guerrillas. Some of the weapons were hidden in caves and dugouts
- Freedom fighters educated and mobilised the masses about the need to go to war and the importance of attaining political independence.
- This was done to win the support of the masses in the fight against the White colonial regime.
- The mujibhas and chimbwidos were recruited for providing the guerrillas with the much needed intelligence and information.
- Chimbwidos cooked and washed clothes for the guerrillas.
- The mujibhas carried weapons for the guerrillas and supplied them with the intelligence and information.
- The guerrillas were trained in guerrilla warfare after attempts at a conventional warfare failed.
- Guerrilla tactics entailed ambush, surprise night attacks, hit and run tactics, attacking the enemy at its weakest points etc.
- From 1969 onwards the guerrillas were introduced to new military training by Herbert Chitepo, Josiah Tongogara, J.Z. Moyo, Nikita Mangena etc.
- This training was based on capturing and defending the territory captured.

**NB:** It is important to note that there were differences in strategy between ZANLA and ZIPRA guerrillas and this difference impacted negatively to the success of the armed struggle on the part of Africans before 1971.

### **Reasons why the struggle was not effective before 1972**

- Inadequate supply of weapons and ammunition.
- Conventional warfare proved disastrous to the liberation fighters as they were too few to adopt such a strategy.
- ZAPU and ZANU freedom fighters were not well co-ordinated in terms of deployment and strategy.
- There were political divisions within ZAPU which lasted until 1977.
- Fighting areas were very far from the bases
- The guerrillas did not have transport, weapons, food, clothes and other war equipment.
- Inadequate training on the part of the freedom fighters.

### **The Rhodesian army on the other hand was well-trained and well-equipped**

- The selous scouts were backed by the Rhodesian Special Air Service.
- Before 1975 Mozambique was not yet independent. This deprived the guerrillas of bases.
- The Zambezi river was a big obstacle in the infiltration of guerrillas into Zimbabwe.

- The Rhodesian army had good military equipment like tanks, aircraft, armoured vehicles etc.
- The settler government had adequate finances to finance various military campaigns and expeditions within the country.

### **The Strategy of Denial**

The Ian Smith Regime i.e. the Rhodesian Front used the strategy of denial to deal with the co-operation between the guerrillas and African masses in Zimbabwe. The settler government implemented measures to deny or deprive guerrillas of shelter, food, clothing, medicine etc that they got from the peasants. The masses or peasants in rural areas were grouped into concentration camps called “protected villagers” and surrounded by electric fences. The villages were heavily watched by the settler police and defence squads. All Africans within each protected village were supposed to be indoors by six o’clock evening and those who were found loitering around after the curfew were killed. The death penalty was also introduced for anyone found assisting the guerrillas with food or information or who refused to report the presence of guerrillas to the nearest white authorities.

It is important to note that these methods were not effective enough to dampen the spirit of the masses in their fight against the white colonial regime. By 1976 large rural areas had been taken over by the guerrillas and all these movements coupled with the guerrilla activities resulted in the attainment of independence by Zimbabwe in 1980.

### **Activity**

- a) What was the Patriotic front (P.F)? How successful was it in bringing about independence?
- b) Women and children played a less significant role in the liberation struggle. Do you agree?

### **Conferences held to solve the Rhodesian problem between 1966 and 1980.**

- Her Majesty Ships (HMS) Tiger talks of 1966.
- HMS Fearless meeting between Harold Wilson and Ian Smith of (1968).
- The Victoria Falls Conference (1975).
- The Malta Conference (1978).
- The Geneva Conference (1976).
- The Dar es Salaam Conference (1978).
- The Lancaster House Agreement (1979).

### **The March 3 Agreement of 1978**

The Internal Settlement of 3 March 1978 was considered as the greatest sell-out and betrayal of the liberation struggle by the nationalist leaders and freedom fighters. The leaders who attended the internal talks were Ian Smith of the Rhodesian front, Abel Muzorewa of the U.A. N.C., Jeremiah Chirau and Ndabaningi Sithole of ZANU. The internal agreement set a transitional period for one year during which the Executive Council would be in charge. The countrywide election was to be held in a years time i.e. 1979. During the transitional period the Cabinet would be made of Co- Ministers, that is, nine whites and nine blacks. The army, police force and the judiciary remained under the whites.

The Patriotic Front of ZANU PF and ZAPU PF that had been merged to contest the elections as one body i.e. the Patriotic Front did not accept the Internal Settlement and the struggle for

Independence continued. The Nationalists felt that Muzorewa, Chirawu and Sithole had sold out the struggle and that they had been used as puppets by the Smith regime. Elections were held in 1979 and Abel Muzorewa's Party U.A.N.C won. In 1979 Muzorewa became the Prime Minister and the country was called Zimbabwe- Rhodesia.

### **The Contribution of the internal settlement of 1978 towards the Zimbabwean Indipendence**

- It was a step towards independence.
- When Muzorewa became the Prime Minister, he agreed to attend the Lancaster House Conference which resulted in the Independence of Zimbabwe.
- The British realised the need to hold a conference in London to solve the crisis in Zimbabwe. There was the intensification of the war led by the Patriotic- front.
- The war led to the Lancaster House Conference of 1979 which resulted in granting Zimbabwe its national Independence.

### **Other factors that contributed towards the Zimbabwean independence**

- Role played by guerrillas or freedom fighters.
- Pressure from the United Nations and Commonwealth of Nations against the Smith regime to grant independence to the majority in Zimbabwe.
- Foreign assistance for the continuation of the armed struggle.
- The imposition of sanctions after the unilateral declaration of Independence (UDI) pressured the Rhodesian government to consider the Lancaster House agreement.
- Powerful individuals like Julius Nyerere, Samora Machel, and Tony Rolings coerced the Patriotic Front to go to the negotiation table at Lancaster.
- The Lusaka Commonwealth Conference also contributed to the Zimbabwe Independence.

### **The Lancaster House Agreement and Constitution**

The Lancaster House Constitution provided for three arms of the state machinery, namely the Executive, the Legislative and the Judiciary.

The Lancaster House Constitution had general rights and freedoms.

The rights and freedoms included in the Lancaster House constitution.

- The right to personal liberty.
- The right not to be detained without trial and being deprived of liberty arbitrarily or without justice.
- The right to have access to adequate shelter.
- The right to have access to basic health care.
- The right to be respected and protected.
- The right not to be treated in an unfairly discriminatory manner on grounds of race, colour, tribe, place of birth, religious belief, gender and disability.
- The right of freedom of speech and expression.
- Freedom of the press and other media of communication.
- The right to freedom of assembly.
- The right to form or belong to political parties, trade unions etc.
- The right for every Zimbabwean to move freely within the country and to reside in any part of Zimbabwe.



It is important however to note that the provisions of the Lancaster House Constitution were amended by the new Zimbabwean government after 1980. The new Zimbabwean government further entrenched the rights and freedoms of various social groups in Zimbabwe for example:

- Gender equality.
- Granting women the right to acquire land.
- Full salary and maternity leave for women.
- According women time to breastfeed during normal working hours.
- Equal treatment for women and men in all spheres of life.

The land issue according to the Lancaster House Constitution land ownership and distribution in Zimbabwe after 1980 was to be governed by the racist Lancaster House Constitution until 1987. The vast majority of Africans did not own land in pre-colonial and post-colonial Zimbabwean up to the period 1998. Land was at the hands of the minority white population and it was sold on a willing seller willing buyer basis. The Lancaster House Constitution was binding and it made the Zimbabwean peasants landless up to 1987. The period after 1987 saw drastic measures taken by the government of Zimbabwe to redress the land issue and ensure equitable distribution of land to the Zimbabwean people.

### **Activity**

- a) Outline the reactions by the international community on the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe.
- b) Why did liberation movements adopt guerrilla warfare? To what extent was it successful?
- c) Why did the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe take such a long time?
- d) Outline the details of the Lancaster house conference. Why did the liberation movement agree to the terms of Lancaster house?

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State six political causes of the first Chimurenga of 1896 [6]
  - (b) Describe methods used by the Rhodesian army to deal with the guerrillas during this war. [11]
  - (c) How successful were the whites in dealing with the guerrilla movement in this war? [8]
- 2a) State, names of six nationalist leaders, who struggled for Independence in Zimbabwe from 1966 to 1980. [6]
  - b) Describe the activities of freedom fighters between 1965 and 1971 [11]
  - c) How successful were the freedom fighters in achieving their aims during this period? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 16.** **HISTORY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

### THE MINERAL REVOLUTION IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### **Objectives**

After studying this topic, the student should be able to:

- (a) Describe the social economic and political effects of the South African Mineral Revolution.
- (b) Analyse the relationship between the Mineral Revolution in South Africa and colonial conquest of Southern Africa
- (c) Examine the link between the Mineral Revolution in South Africa and the Scramble and Partition for Africa.

#### **Introduction**

The mineral revolution is a term used by historians to refer to the rapid industrialization and economic changes which occurred in South Africa from the 1870's onwards. The mineral revolution was largely driven by the need to create a permanent workforce to work in the mining industry and this transformed South Africa from an agrarian state to an industrial nation. The mineral revolution had a negative impact on race relations in South Africa and formed the basis of the apartheid system which dominated South African society for a century.

#### **South Africa before the mineral revolution**

By the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> Century, South Africa was not a unified state. It was divided between provinces of the British Empire. Some states were formed by Afrikaner settlers and various native African states. There were also some British provinces, Cape Colony and Natal which were fairly prosperous colonies where the majority of black and white settlers lived in rural areas and employed crop production as a mode of survival. To the north, the two Afrikaner states of Orange Free State and Transvaal were less densely economic rivals with the wealthier British provinces. Surrounding the British and Afrikaner states were a number of native African polities such as Zululand.

The states were independent of white control and their populations were largely involved in animal husbandry. Some of them, such as the Pichland acted as buffer states between the Afrikaner and British polities.

Overall, the South African population was predominantly employed in agriculture either tending cattle, or in the British sugar plantations and coffee plantations. Urban areas were small in number and size and provided only a small contribution to the Afrikaner and British economies, mainly via the production of consumer goods and wine. Regional economies varied. Africans were concerned with the attainment of self sufficiency. The Cape Colony was more focused on British colonial economy fulfilling a role as a producer of raw agricultural products and a few luxury goods such as consumers of manufactured goods from Britain.

#### **ECONOMY AND THE DISCOVERY OF MINERALS**

The Mineral Revolution began with the discovery of diamonds at Kimberly in 1867. The discovery of diamonds led to a rush of prospectors descending on the town of Kimberly. This caused an increased population as the increasing numbers of prospectors arrived in search of fortune.

The discovery of gold at the Witwaterand Ore fields in 1886 triggered a gold rush which greatly escalated this continuing trend. The Ore fields, which overlapped British and Afrikaner territory, were quickly excavated of all surface deposits and a similar pattern to Kimberley emerged-smaller diggers were bought out by large corporations. At Kimberley, the diamond mines came under the monopoly of the De-Beers, while at the Rand Ore fields, land was bought up by Werner, Breit and Eckstein Consolidated Gold Mines and many other companies.

The Mineral Revolution led to population changes in South Africa. During the early stages of mining, labour was from young men from African states especially the Zulus and the rich men. African Labourers were exposed to very harsh living and working conditions at the mines. Mining co-operations and the colonial government were therefore challenged to look for ways of creating a permanent labour force at Kimberly and on the Rand.

### **Revision question**

**Describe economic changes resulting from the Mineral Revolution.**

### **EFFECTS OF THE REVOLUTION ON URBAN GROWTH**

The colonial government needed to create fixed labour. Mining corporations introduced a variety of schemes to keep workers on-site for lengthy periods of time. Corporate agents moved throughout Africa and engaged Africans through contracts which attracted African men to work in mines.

In the mines, attempts were made to keep workers on site. De-Beers introduced strip searching to avoid stealing of gold and diamonds. Corporate compounds were also introduced where enclosed compounds were built in an open air prison style. Through this style workers were required to live by the terms of their contracts in exchange for food, accommodation and cheap beer provided by the company.

### **Revision question**

Identify urban centres which developed in SA as a result of the mineral revolution.

### **IMPACT OF THE MINERAL REVOLUTION ON AGRICULTURE**

Peasant farming declined because people were migrating to towns and cities.

-Cash crop farming emerged where middle-class farmers, midway between the large commercial farms and small holdings, were able to increase earnings by producing cash crops such as coffee, tobacco, sugar and grapes which fetched high prices at the urban markets.

- Animal husbandry also increased. Large pieces of land were turned to cattle and sheep farming.
- In 1870, there developed a system of agriculture called agrarian capitalism.” This is when small holdings were bought by commercial farmers. They were now specializing in the production of goods for sale in town. For that reason peasantry disappeared in SA.

### **Revision Question:**

**What mineral changes came as a result of the Mineral Revolution?**

### **POLITICAL EFFECTS**

Significant political changes took place as a result of the mineral revolution in SA. Several African states were annexed to provide labour for the survival of capitalist labour needs.

-Territories such as Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Pediland were annexed. In these newly acquired states the colonial government introduced laws such as the Hut tax which demanded payment of an annual tax. The tax was only payable in British Currency which was obtainable largely through employment in mines. This ensured an adequate labour supply.

-In 1879, there was an Anglo- Zulu war. This was a result of the Cape Colonial government's determination to reduce Zulu threats to the prosperity which was underway in mines. After the war, Zulu youths flocked to town in search of work. This large supply reduced labour demand and this reduced the wages and forced a decline in working conditions.

Wars were not only fought between the white and the local tribesman but also between the Europeans who needed to control sources of the mineral wealth.

-Between 1899 and 1902, the Anglo-Boer war had roots in the Mineral Revolution. The British wanted to control the Rand region. They wanted to remove potential threats to mines and replace Afrikaner bureaucracy with British rulers, laws and regulations. This created tension between the Boers and the British which led to the war.

-The Mineral Revolution led to annexation of outlying territories as the British were anticipating mineral reserves outside the South African domains. Thus Rhodes' desire of conquering Africa from Cape to Cairo was partly motivated by an expectation of large mineral deposits lying in those annexed territories, a feeling which had emanated from the mineral revolution in South Africa.

### **Revision question**

**Describe the political effects of the Mineral Revolution in Southern Africa.**

### **MINERAL REVOLUTION AND THE COMING OF EUROPEAN IMPERIALISM**

-The Mineral Revolution immensely contributed to the colonization of African states. The Mineral Revolution invited several European fortune seekers. These were individual people from Spain, England, Belgium, France, Germany and many others.

- However diamond and gold mining became a monopoly of larger capitalist companies such as the DeBeers, the Consolidated Goldfields, Rothschild and many others.
- Nationals from other countries who felt outdone sought alternative areas of exploring. Thus they set in motion a new chapter of colonial conquest.
- The need to multiply profits led to speculative tendencies by capitalists who were not in the mining business. It is believed that Rhodes' motive behind the colonization of Zimbabwe was largely because he thought the gold Eldorado (gold belt) extended north of the Limpopo. Thus the colonization of Zimbabwe was partly a result of the Mineral Revolution which had begun in South Africa.
- In most of the African states under colonial flags during this time, mining appeared to be one of the key businesses embarked on by the colonial governments. For that reason it can be noted that the Mineral Revolution led to the colonial conquest of African states.
- Most of the treaties signed between Europeans and African kings had mineral clauses. This shows that the coming of Europeans to various parts of Africa was motivated largely by prospects of mineral concessions. These included treaties signed with

African chiefs who included Mzilikazi, Lobengula, Lewanika, Khama, (north of the Limpopo.)

**Revision Question:**

**To what extent was the mineral revolution responsible for African colonisation?**

**ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS OF THE MINERAL REVOLUTION**

- Mining which was being carried out by the miners caused severe environmental damage. Open pit mining was dangerous for workers. It created deep parts which grew wider during the rain season and led to waterborne diseases
- Urban growth resulted in water shortages and increased the pollution of rivers.
- Commercial farming which developed, led to the straining and degradation of the soil.
- Increased animal activity led to erosion.
- Merchandised farming led to the emergency of dangers in South Africa.
- There was siltation of rivers and dams because of mining.

**Revision Question:**

Describe the environmental effects of the Mineral Revolution

**SOCIAL EFFECTS OF THE MINERAL REVOLUTION.**

- The Mineral revolution led to a substantial growth in population. Much of the population growth came from immigration.
- By 1900, there were 40 000 European residents in the Cape Colony. This was twice the number in 1865 which had been around 200 000.
- The Mineral Revolution resulted in the changing role of women in the society. The traditional duties which had restricted women to the kitchen had changed since women were now actively involved in vending-selling of edibles such as boiled eggs at workplaces.
- The sexual relationships between the white men and the African women led to the emergence of a new breed of people called “cape coloureds”.
- Urban growth which came along the Mineral Revolution was a platform for cultural dilution. Cultures were diluted through interactions between people of diverse backgrounds.
- Cultural aspects such as dress codes and diet changed as people from diverse ethnic backgrounds embraced those of the new capitalist masters.
- Urban centres became a hive of criminal activities such as prostitution, robbery and gambling. This was partly because the mine towns were housing and providing cover to people some of whom had criminal backgrounds which they were running away from. Also the level of desperation for better living conditions drove some into criminal activities.

**Revision Question:**

**Identify any six social effects of the Mineral Revolution in South Africa.**

**GAINS BY EUROPEANS FROM THE MINERAL REVOLUTION**

- In 1870, the Cape’s gold exports provided about £2 000 000. By the end of the century earnings from diamonds had risen to £4 000 000
- In 1887, gold earnings stood at £80 000 but in 1895, £8 000 000, which was one fifth of the world’s total gold production.
- The mineral revolution gave Europeans land to engage in other economic outwits which they could not do in their homelands because of land shortages and the unfavourable climatic conditions. These included wool production and cotton farming.

-Out of the profits made from mineral earnings, a very small percentage was used for running costs. This included salaries and wages, operational costs, among other things. The bulk of the earnings were used for the enrichment of the metropolitan governments from where these capitalists came. Africans did not therefore benefit from the proceeds of the Mineral Revolution since the profits were exported to Europe.

### **Revision Questions**

- (1) Describe the economic advantages of the Mineral Revolution on Africa.
- (2) Are the Africans justified in blaming Europeans for the underdevelopment faced today? Explain your answer with reference to the Mineral Revolution in South Africa

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## **CHAPTER 17**

### **THE SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Identify the members of the SADC body.
- b) Identify and outline the functions of various organs of the SADC body
- c) Explain the role played by Zimbabwe in the last ten years in SADC
- d) Describe methods adopted by SADC on conflict resolution between member states.

#### **SADC Member States**

Angola	Namibia
Botswana	Seychelles
Congo	South Africa
Lesotho	Swaziland
Malawi	Tanzania
Mauritius	Zambia
Mozambique	Zimbabwe

#### **Southern African Country**

1. Angola
2. Botswana
3. Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)
4. Malawi
5. Mozambique
6. Namibia
7. South Africa
8. Swaziland
9. Tanzania
10. Zambia
11. Zimbabwe
12. Lesotho

#### **Economic Activity/Mineral Resources**

- Petroleum, diamonds
- Diamonds, copper, cobalt
- Diamonds, copper, cobalt
- Tobacco, tea, sugar
- Shell fish, cotton, nuts
- Diamonds, Fish
- Gold, diamonds platinum, coal
- Sugar, woodpulp
- Coffee, cotton
- Copper, cobalt, iron
- gold, tobacco, cotton, tea, coal, asbestos, chrome, iron.
- Manufactured goods, wool

The work of SADC is divided up among its members with each having responsibility for co-ordinating SADC activities in a given sector of economic functional co-operation.

1. Angola - Energy
2. Botswana - Agricultural research, livestock production, animal disease control
3. Lesotho - Environment and land management water
4. Malawi - Inland fisheries, forestry and wildlife
5. Mauritius - Tourism
6. Mozambique - Culture and information, transport and communication
7. Namibia - Marine fisheries and resources
8. South Africa - Finance and investment, tourism
9. Swaziland - Human resource development
10. Tanzania - industry and trade
11. Zambia - Mining, employment and labour
12. Zimbabwe - Food, agriculture and natural resources, food security.

SADC originated in 1980 as the Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference (SADCC), the same year that Zimbabwe became independent. In Southern Africa, all countries in the region were now independent (under majority rule) except for South Africa and Namibia. The SADCC strategy of Frontline states in the 80's was to confront apartheid and assist in the liberation of South Africa and Namibia which were still under the minority white settler rule. SADCC sought to reduce its members' economic dependence on South Africa and to co-ordinate foreign aid and investment in the region.

It is important to note that SADCC failed to achieve these primary goals and as the 90's began, the region was more dependent on South Africa than it had been in the 1980's. In 1988 an agreement was reached to end foreign military intervention in Angola and to grant independence to Namibia. Namibia became independent in March 1990. Earlier, in February 1990, the South African President FW De Klerk unbanned the South African liberation movements and released from prison, most political prisoners like Nelson Mandela. After Namibia joined SADCC in 1990, the SADCC leaders negotiated a new treaty and SADC came into being at an international Conference in Windhoek Namibia, on 17 August 1992. The SADC Secretariat is located in Gaborone in Botswana.

There were ten founder members of SADC and they have since been joined by South Africa (1994), Mauritius (1995), the Democratic Republic of Congo DRC and the Seychelles in 1997.

### **SADC Objectives**

- To promote regional economic integration, environmental sustainability, peace and security.
- Achieve development and economic growth.
- Alleviate poverty.
- Enhance the standard and quality of life of the peoples of Southern Africa and support the socially disadvantaged through regional integration.
- Evolve common political values, systems and institutions.
- Promote development on the basis of collective self-reliance and the inter-dependence of member states.
- To achieve co-operation in regional strategies and programmes.
- To promote employment and utilisation of resources of the region.
- Achieve sustainable utilisation of natural resources.
- To achieve effective protection of the environment.
- To strengthen and consolidate the long standing historical, social and cultural links among the peoples of the region.

### **Activity**

Why did African countries agree on the establishment of the organisation of Africa Unity (A.U)?

### **Zimbabwe's Political Role as a SADC member state**

1. Zimbabwe has been instrumental in conducting and co-ordinating SADC activities in the region since 1980. The most important contribution that Zimbabwe has made as a SADC member is to successfully conduct peace keeping operations in Southern African States to restore peace, stability, sovereignty and the territorial integrity of affected countries. When Zimbabwe became independent in 1980, the Renamo fighters in Mozambique who were opposed to the Frelimo government



were taken over by the South African apartheid regime. The South African government began sponsoring the Frelimo militarily and other surrogate groups to carry out attacks on roads, railway lines and communication links between Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Roads, railway lines, bridges, buildings, oil storage tanks, pipelines were regularly attacked by the Renamo groups. These destabilisation elements forced Zimbabwe and Tanzania to intervene in the Mozambican crisis against the Renamo.

### **Reasons for Zimbabwean intervention (1984- 86)**

- To put an end to cross border attacks and patrols by the Renamo and other surrogate groups that were sponsored by the South African government.
- To protect the Beira- Mutare pipeline.
- To contain rebel movements and destabilising elements in the region.
- Thousands of Mozambicans crossed borders to Zimbabwe to find shelter as refugees, so Zimbabwe wanted to put an end to all these problems.

Zimbabwe's role in the Mozambican Crisis i.e. military intervention proved very important as the Renamo elements were repelled and this facilitated the Mozambicans cease fire of 1992 after the Rome Peace accord (1992).

2. Zimbabwe has also been instrumental in the peace keeping operations and in fighting rebels in the region (SADC) for example fighting UNITA rebels in Angola who were fighting the MPLA government.
3. In 1998 a civil war broke out in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). The rebels rose against Laurent Kabila's government and were supported by Uganda and Rwanda Forces. Amid this crisis, Zimbabwe, Namibia, and Angola intervened and sent their forces to the DRC to restore sovereignty and territorial integrity of the Democratic Republic of Congo. Though the events in the DRC threatened to be a major regional security crisis, the intervention of Zimbabwe, Angola and Namibia contained the explosive situation within the SADC region and brought peace and stability to the region in general and the DRC in particular.

### **Activity**

- a) How successfully has been the AU in solving internal conflicts within the member states?
- b) Outline the functions of the SADC
- c) Describe the work of SADC in either, Zimbabwe, Madagascar or Lesotho. How successful has it been in resolving them?

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State any six members of the SADC today? [6]
- (b) Describe the work of SADC's organ on politics and defence? [11]
- (c) To what extent has Zimbabwe played its roles in SADC in the last ten years? [8]
- (d) How did SADC resolve conflicts in any one country you can select?

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## **CHAPTER 18**

### **ORGANISATION OF AFRICAN UNITY (OAU)**

#### **Chapter Objectives**

After studying this chapter the student should be able to:

- a) Discuss the reasons for the formation of the O.A.U
- b) Outline the aims of the O.A.U
- c) Describe the main organs of the O.A.U
- d) Explain the work of the O.A. U in different parts of the continent.
- e) How successful or unsuccessful was the O.A.U?

#### **Origins**

The origins of the OAU lie in the Pan-African movement born in the West Indies and the United States at the turn of the twentieth century. The first Pan-African congress was held in London in 1900. Its leaders included, Sylvester Williams, Marcus Garvey and William Dubois.

In 1958 Kwame Nkruma of Ghana, hosted the first All-African People's Conference which was attended by independent and non-independent African countries. This conference condemned racism, colonialism, the political and the economic exploitation of Africans. It also supported the African struggle for independence and working for African Unity.

In December 1960, the differences among the African countries led to a split among African countries into the Brazzaville-Monrovia and the Casablanca groups.

The Casablanca group included countries like:

Ghana, Guinea, Morocco, Libya and Egypt.

The Casablanca group reflected strong anti- imperialist views and called for a joint military command, an African common market (to promote trade between African states) and a socialist path of development.

The Casablanca group aimed to ultimately create a United States of Africa.

The Monrovia group called for a much looser form of co-operation between independent states with much more capitalist and pro- Western policies.

The Monrovia group consisted of such countries as Liberia, Nigeria, Senegal, Ethiopia and the Ivory Coast.

Julius Nyerere of Tanzania noted that most nationalist leaders were not prepared to give up their newly-gained power and high positions for the sake of African Unity.

On 25 May 1963, thirty-one African leaders met in Addis Ababa (Ethiopia) and finally adopted the organization of African Unity Charter.

It was a compromise document between the Casablanca and Monrovia positions.

#### **Aims of the OAU**

- i) Promote unity and solidarity among the African States.
- ii) Co-ordinate and intensify co-operation.

- iii) Achieve a better life for the peoples of Africa.
- iv) Defend their sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence.
- v) Recognize colonial boundaries even where these cut across and divided ethnic groups or where they grouped traditional rivals in the same state.
- vi) Settle disputes peacefully, using the OAU to play a mediating role when necessary.
- vii) Support all Africans still struggling against colonial regimes or still living under oppressive racist regimes, such as South African.
- viii) Not to be aligned in terms of the East – West conflict (Cold War).

### **Structure of the OAU**

- i) Assembly of the heads of state and government.
  - This is the supreme body of the OAU.
  - It is expected to discuss matters of common concern to Africa and to co-ordinate the activities of the OAU.
  - The Assembly also oversees the specialized agencies such as the economic and social commission, the health, sanitation and nutrition commission, educational and cultural commission, the defence commission and the scientific, technical and research commission.

The assembly meets once every year to discuss issues of mutual concern. Membership of the Assembly is made up of heads of states or heads of government. All decisions in the Assembly are determined on the basis of a two- thirds majority of the membership.

### **Council of Ministers**

The Council meets after every six months to discuss progress on Assembly decisions, as well as financial and practical matters. The Council of Ministers consists of the foreign ministers of the member states.

The resolutions of the Council of Ministers are normally submitted to the Assembly for approval.

### **The secretariat**

This is the “Civil Service” of the OAU. They run the day- to- day business of the OAU.

The Secretary General’s main responsibilities are to call meetings of the Assembly and the Council to draw up the agenda for meetings to prepare and submit for approval to the council of Ministers, the annual budget of the organization. The secretariat also worked to ensure the smooth running of the OAU.

NB: The OAU had other important units such as the Committee for the Liberation of Africa and the African Development Bank (ADB).

### **OAU- Evaluation**

#### **OAU: As a mediator: successes and failures.**

As a mediator the OAU has a mixed record. While it has played a crucial role in supporting the liberation struggle of various southern African countries (including Zimbabwe), it has been regarded as weak in condemning human rights violations and in promoting the continent’s economies.

### **Successes:**

1. Algeria and Morocco Border crisis of 1963.

Algeria and Morocco had a long standing dispute over Morocco's claims on Algerian-controlled territory in the Sahara. By September 1963, disagreement between these two nations had reached boiling point. It was at this point that Haile Selassie of Ethiopia stepped in to resolve the conflict on behalf of the OAU. His mediation led to an immediate ceasefire and the creation of a committee to supervise the ceasefire and the setting up of an extraordinary meeting of the OAU Council of Ministers to discuss the crisis with a view to resolving it.

In October the crisis came to an end.

2. The OAU also successfully intervened in the Somalia-Ethiopia and Somalia- Kenya border disputes of 1964.

3. The OAU, through its liberation committee, gave both moral, diplomatic and military support to ZANU and ZAPU of Zimbabwe, the ANC and PAC of South Africa, FRELIMO of Mozambique the MPLA and FNLA of Angola and SWAPO of Namibia.

4. The OAU provided a forum for debate and a meeting place for the continent's heads of state where they debated issues of mutual concern.

### **Failures and weaknesses of OAU**

The OAU has not been successful in the following crises.

- i) The Nigerian civil war of 1967 when the former eastern region of Nigeria declared itself independent under the name of Biafra. The OAU could not come to a common Pan-African position either to denounce or Biafran Secession (the Federal Government's military campaign against the people of Eastern Nigeria), until the final collapse of the Biafran state in January 1970. The OAU remained on the sideline and did not play a decisive role in ending the Nigerian civil war.
- ii) Apartheid in South Africa the OAU was not able to achieve a solid and unified strategy to force South Africa to end its apartheid policy. During the apartheid era, some countries were economically dependent on South Africa and they found it difficult to support OAU resolutions against a country which was so important to their own economic sustenance. Countries like Lesotho, Botswana and Swaziland were indeed economic hostages of South Africa.
- iii) The Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) crisis. In 1965 Ian Smith-the leader of the white minority government of Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), declared unilaterally, its independence from Britain. In attempting to resolve this crisis, numerous differences emerged in the OAU. When Britain failed to end UDI, only ten African countries carried out the earlier threat to cut diplomatic relations with Britain.

NB: National interests appear to have been more important to individual countries than to the common interests of the OAU.

- iv) UGANDA- under Idi Amin, the OAU remained silent when Uganda's President Idi killed over 3 300 000 of his own people between 1971 and 1979.
  - Such failures by the OAU, to take a common stand on human rights questions, has led to the organization not being taken seriously by many people.
  - The silence of the OAU on events in Uganda, was in sharp contrast to the many resolutions of the organization, as well as not condemning the death of Steve Biko and other activities in South Africa at the hands of the apartheid South African government. Some people then charged the OAU of applying double standards.

### **Challenges facing the OAU**

By agreeing not to interfere in the internal affairs of member states, the OAU has been unable to intervene constructively in many of the terrible ethnic clashes and civil wars that have caused so much loss of life and property in Africa and which continue to be a major obstacle to peace, development and co-operation.

Funding is another challenge facing the OAU. Lack of adequate funding has crippled the OAU's ability to play a decisive role in African affairs.

Personality, ethnic and ideological differences among its members, equally contribute to the challenges facing OAU.

NB: Individualism has remained stronger than Pan-Africanism as states have generally remained unwilling to surrender national power and national interests for the benefit of a more meaningful Pan-African political and economic unity.

Language differences:-Africa lacks a common language. Above this deficiency, Africa inherited different colonial languages, mainly English and French. It has been observed that former French colonies generally band together and develop a sense of separate identity from the rest of English-speaking countries in Africa.

Last but not least the poverty of the member countries further makes them vulnerable to economic pressure from the more developed countries of Western Europe and North America resulting in forcing them to follow particular policies and issues of interest to the developed countries.

NB: The OAU has rebranded its name to AU-African Unity. Students are challenged to find out reasons for change from OAU to AU. It is equally important to check and assess whether the change in name was also a change in the successes of the organization

### **Exam type questions**

- 1(a) State any three social and three political problems which the OAU solved successfully. [6]
- (b) Describe the successes and failures of the OAU. [11]
- (c) To what extent can the failures of the OAU be linked to structural weaknesses? [8]
- 2a) State any six aims of the OAU at its formation. [6]
- b) Describe the works of the Secretariat and the Council of Ministers in the OAU. [11]
- a) To what extent were these two organs successful in achieving goals they had been set for? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 19**

### **POST INDEPENDENCE ZIMBABWE**

#### **The land question (revisited) 1980 onwards**

##### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- (i) Determine how the Zimbabwean government had failed to meet the revolution expectations.
- (ii) Determine the extent of Zimbabwe's compliance with the Lancaster House constitution after independence.
- (iii) Identify the reasons why the government embarked on the land redistribution exercise.

##### **Post Colonial Education in Zimbabwe**

The Pre-Independence education system in Southern Rhodesia was characterised by Education colour bar. There was racial discrimination in schools with the so called 'A' schools reserved for white students only. African students only got rudimentary education in the F2 schools and these schools did not offer academic courses as the A schools. African students were only taught practical subjects such as home economics, woodwork, carpentry, poultry, building etc. White students had open opportunities in education and they could learn up to college and university level which were places where African students were not allowed.

In 1980 when Zimbabwe became independent, the government implemented measures to extend education to all African students and to put in place measures that would encourage equal opportunities in education between blacks and whites.

- In 1980 the Minister of Education Dzingai Mtumbuka, with the help of the government created upper top schools as well as hot sitting to cater for African students as well as the freedom fighters who had returned from the war of liberation.
- In the early 1980's F2 schools were phased out and there was the introduction of one year Bachelor of Education Degree course to cater for F2 Students.
- Dzingai Mtumbuka also called for free primary education in the early 80's.
- Expatriate teachers were employed from Austria and the United Kingdom.
- Adult education and night schools were encouraged and this is still an on going process up to this day.
- Primary and secondary education was greatly funded by the government and supplied with the necessary resources for example exercise-books, textbooks, chalk, boards etc.
- There was also the construction of teacher's colleges in the early 80's for example Zintec, Seke teacher's College, Marry Mount etc.
- Fay Chung became the Minister of Education after Dzingai Mtumbuka. She encouraged Zim Science to be taught in schools and encouraged the construction of agricultural colleges.
- Manpower development on the part of teachers was encouraged as well as ZIPAM (Zimbabwe Public Administration Management).
- The government of Zimbabwe also constructed many schools in high density residential areas in urban areas.

- The early 90's saw the sending of many science teachers by the government to train in Cuba. This was done to encourage the teaching of science and technical subjects within the country.
- The government encouraged the construction of many universities including state and private universities within the country for example NUST, Solusi, Africa University, and Great Zimbabwe University. Other colleges were granted university status for example Midlands State University, Chinhoyi, Bindura University etc.
- The government also put in place the affirmative action policy in colleges and universities to cater for the girl child who had been greatly sidelined in the field of education during the colonial era.
- In the early 1980s ZIMFEP schools J.Z., and Nkululeko were encouraged to merge education with production in the curriculum.
- Private colleges have been encouraged and this move has been very successful in encouraging education among students in Zimbabwe.
- Sport and culture has been merged with education to encourage sport among school children as well as in universities and colleges.
- The exams were also localised through the creation of the ZIMSEC in 1996 to cut the exam costs.
- The single Ministry of Education i.e. mixing education, sports, and culture was put in place as well as the expansion of tertiary education and private universities. It is however important to note that even though the government of Zimbabwe has been greatly successful in encouraging education since 1980, there have been many problems that have been encountered in the education field such as:
  - Inadequate teaching and learning resources in many schools in Zimbabwe.
  - Poor remuneration on the part of teachers has led to massive expert- teacher exodus to other countries leaving schools with less experienced teachers.
  - The building and granting of university status to many colleges has compromised the standards of education in state universities and colleges with many students qualifying for university education with less points.
  - Poor working conditions in rural areas have resulted in most qualified teachers preferring to teach in urban areas leaving many schools in rural areas with temporary teachers
  - Shortage of schools has resulted in continued hot sitting
  - Failure to implement the Nziramasanga commission has resulted in the unemployment of school leavers and college graduates.
  - The Ministry of Education Sport and Culture and ZIMSEC have discredited the ZIMSEC certificate regionally and abroad.
  - The construction of many colleges and universities has lowered the quality of education in Zimbabwe. It is important to note that despite all these problems, the Zimbabwean government has been successful in encouraging African education in the post colonial Zimbabwe.
  - There has been decentralisation of education offices so that administrators are in provinces.
  - Increased enrolment in schools from pre- school to tertiary education.

### **Reasons for land redistribution in Zimbabwe after 1980**

- To fulfil one of the aims of the armed struggle.
- To relieve overcrowding in rural areas.

- To correct racial imbalance in land distribution and ownership.
  - To improve agricultural production.
  - To maximise land use as most of the land was not being used.
  - To resettle freedom fighters and returning refugees.
  - To create employment.
1. Soon after independence the government of Zimbabwe failed to distribute land to the land-hungry Zimbabwean peasants as the government was bound by the racist Lancaster House Constitution. The constitution provided for a willing buyer willing seller exercise which the Zimbabwean government adopted soon after independence. This programme had its shortcomings as people who could buy land were whites and few Africans had the money. As a result many peasants remained landless in the countryside.
  2. The government also took over land of the white farmers who fled from the country soon after independence. The government also took away the land owned by absentee landlords to resettle Africans.
  3. The government of Zimbabwe sourced funds from foreign countries like Britain, and Australia to buy land for resettlement purposes.
  4. The government of Zimbabwe used legal means as well as legislation through parliament to acquire land, for example the Land Acquisition Act of 1992, which freed the government from the willing seller, willing buyer policy. It also gave the government the right to acquire derelict land and underutilized land without compensation.
  5. In March 2001 the government passed a new legislation which protected peasants, war veterans and other occupiers from eviction from the farms that they had forcibly occupied until suitable land for resettlement had been identified and acquired to resettle them.
  6. The Constitutional Amendment Act of 2000 sought to:
    - Empower the government to compulsorily acquire agricultural land for resettlement.
    - To place responsibility for paying the land acquired for the purposes of resettlement on Britain.
    - To oblige the government to pay full compensation for any improvements on acquired properties.
  7. The Police were not allowed by the government to arrest land invaders.
  8. The creation of land commissions for example the Charles Utete commission to counter Neo- Colonialism.

### **The successes and failures of land redistribution in Zimbabwe.**

#### **Successes**

- The willing-seller willing buyer policy used by the government up to 1990 was able to resettle 70 000 families. It is important to note that this programme had a limited success.
- The use of legislation and other legal statutes as well as the Third Chimurenga resulted in the acquisition of most land required by the Zimbabwean masses.
- More than 400 000 families have been resettled between 1980 and 2007.
- Very few white farmers still remain on farms.
- The colonial power (Britain) is no longer in control of the Zimbabwean land affairs.
- Black empowerment programmes through land ownership has been a success.



- A group of successful African farmers has emerged in the production of crops like tobacco, maize, cotton, tea etc.

### **Failures**

- Land redistribution caused environmental degradation in some areas because of poor farming methods.
- Crop production has declined because of lack of inputs like farm machinery, seeds, fertilizers etc.
- The Willing- seller-willing buyer was not able to realise all the land required.
- Co-operatives in the early 80's were a failure because of lack of farming equipment among African farmers.
- Many new farmers have not been able to fully utilize the land allocated to them.
- The 1991 Land Acquisition Act was not a success because white farmers resisted.
- Farm owners were against the idea of one person, one farm.
- Peasants were still overcrowded in rural areas.
- Between 1980 and 1990, agricultural activities and farming were well funded but the funds dried up from 1995 onwards because the donors reportedly accused the government of not distributing land to the intended beneficiaries.
- Shortages of foreign currency have made it difficult for farmers to procure pesticides, seeds, fertilizers etc for their farm.

### **Activity**

- a) What have been the main economic achievements of the ZANU PF government in Post Independence Zimbabwe?
- b) Why did the government embark on a fast track land reform programme in 1999?

## **Democracy and Human Rights**

### **Characteristics of Democracy**

- Majority rule with proper regards to the interests of minorities.
- Separation of powers characterised by the judiciary, executive and legislative.
- The rule of law.
- Multi party state.
- Freedom of people to chose their leader.
- Free and fair elections.
- Freedom of assembly and association.
- Rights to form trade unions and to strike.
- Accountability and transparency among state officials.
- Independence of the judiciary and impartiality.
- Freedom of the press.
- Parliamentary representation for the masses.

### **Fundamental rights and freedoms of the individual in Zimbabwe**

- Protection of right to life
- Right to personal liberty
- Right of security of the person.
- Right to be protected by the law.
- Freedom of conscience and expression.

- Freedom of assembly and association.
- Right to personal privacy and protection of property from acquisition without compensation.
- Right to be protected from slavery and forced labour.
- Freedom from inhuman treatment.
- Freedom of protection from deprivation of property.
- Freedom of protection from arbitrary search or entry by others on ones' premises.
- Freedom of movement throughout Zimbabwe.
- Right to be protected from discrimination on the grounds of race, tribe, place of origin, colour, political opinion etc.

### **Rights of children in Zimbabwe in accordance with the United Nations Convention**

- Every child has an inherent right to life.
- A child has the right to rest and leisure, to engage in play, recreational and cultural activities, arts appropriate to the age of the child.
- Every child who is mentally or physically disabled shall have the right to special measures of protection.
- Every child has the right to health.
- Every child has the right to be protected from all forms of economic exploitation like child labour.
- Every child has the right to be protected from abuse and torture.
- Right to proper administration of Juvenile justice.
- Every child is entitled to parental care and protection particularly with regard to nutrition, health, education, clothing, housing.
- A child has the right of protection against harmful social and cultural practices.
- Any child who is permanently or temporarily deprived of his family for any reasons shall be entitled to special protection and assistance.
- Every child has the right to be protected against all forms of apartheid and discrimination.
- Every child has the right to be protected from all forms of sexual exploitation and sexual abuse.
- Children have the right to be protected from drugs i.e. narcotics and illicit use of psychotropic substances.
- Children have the right to be free from all forms of trafficking, sale, abduction etc.
- A child has the right to live with his/her parents.
- The child has the right of a name at birth.
- A child has a right to freedom of expression, freedom of thought conscience and religion.
- Children have a right to meet with others and to join or form associations.

### **Gender related problems experienced by women in Colonial Zimbabwe**

- Improper association with the girl child especially in schools and other places.
- Desertion of homes by men leaving families headed by women.
- Women could not inherit their late husbands estates, rather the property could be inherited by the late husband's families.
- Many women fell victims of polygamous males.
- Unregistered marriages encouraged polygamy and many males took advantage of women.

- In work places between 1980 and 1990, women earned  $\frac{3}{4}$  of their salaries when on maternity leave.
- Rape cases impacted negatively on women.
- There were low salaries for women during the early years after independence.
- Abuse of girls in schools for example corporal punishment, sexual harassment, indecent assault etc.
- Abuse of women at work places i.e. sexual favours in order to be employed or promoted.
- Discrimination of women in all aspects of life, for example failure to get land, institutions not trusting them to head companies etc.
- Gender stereotypes and humiliation of women and girls for wearing mini- skirts, tight trousers etc.
- Domestic violence in which women were victims and were always beaten up in such cases.
- Members of the police force ignored cases of domestic violence and they opted for community courts to deal with such cases or they regarded them as trivial cases to be solved on a domestic scale.
- Suicide cases of women who were left to raise families on their own.
- It is important to note that the government has passed laws to protect women and the girl child in Zimbabwe as of late. These laws have empowered women in the field of education, at work places and at their residential places. These measures are:
  - The implementation of inheritance and maintenance laws to protect women.
  - The government has come up with severe sentences for those convicted of rape, indecent assault etc.
  - When a girl reaches the age of 18, (Legal age of Majority Act) she is free to make her own decisions and she has freedom of choice in terms of her career etc.
  - Equal pay regulations put women on the same salary scale with their male counterparts.
  - Gender equity in the field of education i.e. secondary and tertiary education (universities and colleges).
  - More opportunities are now open for women at work places, and tertiary institutions.
  - Women are given freedom of choice in terms of subjects that they want to do in schools, career, as well as jobs they want to do in life.
  - Gender studies encouraged in schools and colleges to highlight the plight of women concerning oppression and gender imbalances.
  - Passing of Parliamentary legislation to protect women, for example The Domestic Violence Bill (2006).
  - Women given opportunities to start their projects both in the formal and informal sector.
  - Formation of pressure groups to address the needs and problems of women, for example Women Action Groups (WAG), Msasa Project etc.
  - Appointing female ministers to stand for the needs of women.
  - Affirmative action in colleges and universities.
  - Gender discrimination is no longer allowed in Education, employment etc.
  - Reverse discrimination (Affirmative Action) to empower women.
  - Corrupt officials found abusing women have been exposed and they have been severely dealt with.
  - Scholarships that include the girl child to study abroad.

- Many post colonial publications in Zimbabwe have highlighted problems and examples of successful women produced in society.
- Labour relations legislation Acts have accorded 3 months' maternity leave with full payment for women.

NB: It is important to note that even though the government of Zimbabwe has been successful in addressing the problems of women in Zimbabwe, there have been some instances of failure in addressing these problems because:

- The society is not accepting the idea of equality of men and women.
- Financial problems in the country making it difficult to assist disadvantaged girls and women especially in remote areas.
- Economic problems and difficulties have fuelled prostitution as well as immoral behaviour among girls and women.

### **The constitution of Zimbabwe.**

#### **The arms of the Zimbabwean government.**

##### **1. The Executive**

The Executive consists of the following:

- The President
- Vice President
- Ministers
- The Cabinet

The Functions of the Executive

- The running of the state.
- The enforcement of state laws and policies.
- The exercise of state powers.
- Performance of the administrative functions.

The President is the head of state, Head of Government and Commander-in-chief of the defence forces. The President takes precedence over all other persons in Zimbabwe.

##### **2. The Legislature**

The legislative consists of the following:

- The President and Parliament
- Members of Parliament.
- Speaker of Parliament.

The Functions of the legislature

- Law making
- Formulation of policies
- Debating acts of Parliament
- Passing Acts of Parliament.
- An act of Parliament becomes law after it has been signed by the President.
- The legislative exercises Parliamentary control over subsidiary legislation (delegated legislation).
- The legislature has various folio committees to perform various tasks.

### 3. **The Judiciary**

The Judiciary consists of:

- The courts
- Judges
- Judge President
- Chief Justice
- Lawyers
- Prosecutors
- Magistrates
- Ombudsman

#### **The Functions of the Judiciary**

- Interpretation of Laws
- It facilitates the exercise of the administration by the Executive.
- It curbs the abuse of state powers by the Executive.

#### **The Ombudsman**

##### **Functions of the Ombudsman**

- To investigate cases of injustice on an individual who has suffered during the course of duty but failed to gain redress through normal means.
- To get remedy in courts.
- The individuals dealt with those who are members of the public service commission, prison service Police force and Defence force.
- The Parliament may give the Ombudsman any other functions such as investigating cases brought to the office even if not under its jurisdiction.
- To write reports after completing investigations.
- The office of the Ombudsman investigates cases from various ministries i.e. cases such as underpayment, disadvantages on promotion, injured officers, misconduct, etc.

#### **The office of the Ombudsman has not been all that successful in dealing and solving cases brought to it by affected parties due to factors such as:**

1. Powerful politicians ignore recommendations from the Ombudsman's Office.
2. The Office of the Ombudsman is not accessible to many people. The Ombudsman does not have provincial and district officers it only has offices in Harare, Bulawayo and Mutare.
3. The office is suffering from a critical shortage of staff and manpower.
4. The Ombudsman's office has a problem of inadequate finances which makes it difficult to travel to far away areas to investigate cases.
5. Financial shortages also make the Ombudsman's office unable to open new offices in provinces and districts.
6. Massive expert staff exodus has also impacted negatively on the Ombudsman's office.
7. Brain drain has also adversely affected the Ombudsman's office as skilled personnel are leaving the country for greener pastures.
8. There is no compensation for politically related problems as these have been ignored by the office.

9. Poor remuneration on the part of workers has demoralised the employees and made them not to take their work seriously in the Ombudsman's office.

#### **Successes of the Ombudsman's Office**

- The Ombudsman's Office has been successful in investigating cases brought to its office.
- Writing reports after investigating cases brought to them.
- Some cases have been solved to the satisfaction of officers.
- Solving problems especially those to do with low salaries.

#### **Political Development in Zimbabwe after Independence : Political Parties found in**

##### **Zimbabwe after independence:**

1. Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) PF
2. Zimbabwe African People Union (ZAPU) PF.
3. Zimbabwe Unity Movement (ZUM).
4. United Parties
5. ZANU Ndonga
6. Liberty Party
7. New Alliance for Good Governance (NAGG).
8. Movement for Democratic Change (MDC)
9. FORUM
10. Rhodesian Front
11. National Democratic Union (NDU)

#### **Reconciliation**

At independence in 1980, Zimbabwe was a divided nation. Militarily there existed three armies in Zimbabwe i.e. ZANLA, ZIPRA and the Rhodesian forces. Economically the minority whites were rich while the majority of Africans were poor.

When President Robert Mugabe assumed leadership in 1980, he pursued a policy of national reconciliation to bridge the racial, tribal as well as economic gap that was existing. Firstly the President integrated the armies i.e. ZIPRA, ZANLA and the Rhodesian forces into a single military unit. The integration exercise had problems that were soon dealt with. These were desertions from the army from the former ZIPRA Combatants and the members of the Rhodesian army voluntarily left the military forces of the newly integrated army. The mutiny among the former ZIPRA combatants hatched dissidents in Matabeleland and parts of Midlands. During the dissident era, there was infrastructure destruction in Matabeleland and parts of Midlands. The infrastructure destroyed were bridges, schools, hospitals, clinics etc.

#### **Unity accord ZAPU PF and ZANU PF) 22 December 1987**

The Unity Accord was signed in December 1987 between ZANU PF and ZAPU PF and it brought to an end the long standing differences between the two political parties. The Unity Accord provided for the formation of one political Party, the Zimbabwe African National Union (Patriotic Front) ZANU PF. This was the merging of two political parties or the incorporation of ZAPU PF into ZANU PF. At Government level, Robert Mugabe became the Executive President with Joshua Nkomo and Simon Muzenda as Vice Presidents. The Unity

Accord brought about peace and stability in Zimbabwe as well as economic development in the dissident affected areas of Matabeleland and Midlands.

### **Activity**

What were the political, social and economic effects of the unity accord of 1987?

### **Social and Economic Development after Independence**

The Social and Economic development was to a large extent successful after the independence of Zimbabwe i.e. the period 1980 onwards.

The Social and economic development in Zimbabwe after Independence was to a large extent successful. It is important to note that the major reasons behind the fighting of the liberation struggle was to attain national Independence, create an equitable social and economic environment conducive for both races i.e. blacks and whites. Education was developed, infrastructure and other basic amenities. And health services were also developed through the construction of many clinics and hospitals in both the urban areas and rural areas.

- Health and education which were the preserve for the whites, were democratised and extended to all people in Zimbabwe.
- Health and education personnel were trained and deployed to different schools and hospitals, for example, teachers, nurses, doctors etc.
- Teacher training colleges and universities were built after independence.
- This led to a high literacy level in Zimbabwe.
- Thousands of refugees returning from Zambia, Mozambique and Botswana were resettled.
- By 2001, over 400 000 families had been resettled.
- Peasant farming was encouraged to embark on commercial agriculture especially in the production of cotton, maize, tea, etc.
- After independence, there was free medication and education for underprivileged Zimbabweans.
- Vocational training centres were established for school leavers.
- Children's rights were promoted and protected and the education of the girl child was also encouraged.
- Infrastructure was developed, for example, expansion of towns and cities, airports, stadiums, schools, hospitals etc.

### **Economic Liberation**

The performance of the Zimbabwean economy during the period 1984-1989 remained inconsistent in Zimbabwe. This was due to persistent droughts, ageing industrial Machinery, tight state control of the economy and limited direct foreign investment. This led to unemployment of many people in Zimbabwe especially school leavers. These problems led to the economic liberalisation by the Zimbabwean government through the establishment of ESAP (Economic Structural Adjustment Programme) in 1990 i.e. A free Market Economy. Price controls of basic commodities such as maize, mealie- meal, bread, cooking oil were removed. The government stopped to determine wages for industrial workers and allowed free collective bargaining. Employers were given freedom to hire their employees and fire them with little intervention from the government.

### **Effects of the ESAP**

- Social misery to consumers and other groups.
- Retrenchment of workers.
- Serious foreign currency shortages.
- Shortage of essential drugs and medicines.
- Spare parts needed for the manufacturing sector were hard to come by.
- General economic slump.
- Unemployment.
- Massive exodus of skilled personnel to greener pastures.
- Rising cost of living for ordinary Zimbabweans.
- Hyper inflation especially from the year 2002 onwards.
- Shortage of basic commodities and food supplies calling for the intervention of Non- governmental organisations to supply relief food aid especially to people in rural areas.
- Economic sanctions by the E.U. (European Union) as well as smart sanctions by Britain and the USA led to economic misery among the ordinary Zimbabweans.

### **The role of the army and Police force in the Post Colonial Zimbabwe**

The military forces and the police force have played a remarkable role in maintaining peace and stability as well as law and order in the Post Colonial Zimbabwe.

Below are countries that have benefited from the Zimbabwean army and police through their peace keeping exercise.

- Mozambique
- Angola
- Somalia
- Kosovo
- East Timor
- The Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)

The members of the army have also played a crucial role in major social developments within the country, for example:

- Building of schools and health facilities.
- Construction of bridges and trenches.

### **Activity**

- a) To what extent can the government of Zimbabwe be regarded as a failure between 1990-2000?
- b) How true is the claim that Post Independence Zimbabwe governments have placed too much attention on agriculture at the expense of Industry?

### **Examination type questions**

- 1a) Identify, six reasons, for the land redistribution in Zimbabwe. [6]
- b) Describe the successes and the failures of land redistribution in Zimbabwe. [11]
- c) To what extent did the Zimbabwean government stick to the Lancaster House agreement in its land redistribution programme? [8]



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## **CHAPTER 20**

### **INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS: PAPER 2**

#### **THE FIRST WORLD WAR**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Outline the long term causes of the war
- b) Assess the contribution of Balkan nationalism to the outbreak of the war
- c) Discuss the course of the war on sea, land and air
- d) Evaluate the social political and economic impact of the war.

#### **Causes of World War 1**

##### **Long Term or underlying causes**

- 1) Bismarck's Alliance System and Alliances after Bismarck
- 2) Colonial rivalry
- 3) Arms race
- 4) Naval
- 5) Balkan Nationalism
- 6) Schlieffen Plan:  
These existed for a long time and were responsible for the coming of the war. They made the war inevitable. Each will be examined later.

##### **Immediate Causes**

1. The Moroccan crises of 1905 and 1911.
2. The Bosnian Crisis of 1908
3. The Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913
4. The Sarajevo incident of 1914.

These events determined when the war would come

##### **Long term causes**

Bismarck's system of alliance

- a) The Dreikaiserbund (League of Three Emperors)  
Bismarck's aim after 1871 to:
  - (i) Maintain peace and stability while concentrated on the internal affairs of Germany – for Germany to industrialize peacefully especially after a series of wars which ended with the Franco – Prussian War.
  - (ii) Maintain a powerful army, where mere existence meant force to his diplomacy.
  - (iii) Isolate France and prevent her from waging a war of revenge and reclaiming the lost provinces of Alsace and Lorraine.

Year the Dreikaiserbund was signed - 1873

Powers involved: Russia, Austria Hungary, and Germany.

**The three Emperors:**

- (i) Tsar Alexander II
- (ii) Franz Josef
- (iii) Kaiser Welhelm I

Terms:           (i) To stand together against republicanism and communism.  
                   (ii) To consult each other about military matters.  
                   (iii) To consult each other about the Balkan.

Results:           The Eastern Question 1875 – 8.

- This was a result of Balkan Nationalism. Subject peoples living in the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina revolted.
- The rebellion spread across the Balkans and led to wholesale slaughter of Bulgars by the Turks.
- There arose a serious danger that Russia would intervene to support their fellow Slavs.
- After a number of diplomatic moves by the great powers in unsuccessful attempts to persuade the Turks to reform and avoid Russian intervention, the Russians declared war on the Ottoman Empire in the spring of 1877. As the Russian forces approached the straits at the beginning of 1878, the British government moved its fleet to Constantinople and thus dissuaded the Russians from pressing their advantage any further.

(ii) **The Treaty of San Stefano**

Year               -       March 1878  
 Powers           -       Russia and Turkey  
 Terms            -       It destroyed the control of the Turks over most of their European territories by providing for the establishment of a big new state of Bulgaria.

**Results**

- (a) The Hapsburgs disliked this for it seemed that this new state would be virtually a Russian puppet or dependency.
- (b) The British similarly disliked it especially as Bulgaria's southern boundary was on the Aegean Sea, and Desraeli therefore demanded an international Congress.
- (c) Bismarck, the Germany Chancellor, was anxious to avoid conflict between Austria – Hungary and Russia, so he offered his services as an “*honest broker*” and presided over the conference which met in Berlin in June.

(iii) **The congress of Berlin, (1878)**

This was the last re-adjustment of the Balkans in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The negotiations before and during the congress produced three important territorial changes in the East Mediterranean area:

- (a) The big new state of Bulgaria was divided into three. The northern part continued as Bulgaria. A smaller area, known as Eastern Romelia, remained in the Ottoman Empire to give the Sultan a defensible northern frontier along the Balkan Mountains, but it was ruled as an autonomous state by a Christian governor. The large Southern area, including Macedonia, was returned to full Ottoman control.

- (b) Austria-Hungary was allowed to occupy Bosnia Herzegovina, and the Sanjak, or district of Novibazar, though all this remained technically part of the Ottoman Empire.
- (c) Great Britain gained control of Cyprus as a base from which to counter any future Russian threat.
- (d) One inevitable effect of the congress of Berlin was to cause bad relations between Russia and the other two powers of the Dreikaiserbund.

**NB:**

- (1) The main problem with these arrangements was that they ignored the importance of the nationalist feelings of the peoples of these areas.
- (2) The arrangements for Eastern Roumelia were overthrown seven years later.
- (3) The return of Macedonia to the Turks eventually produced the Balkan Wars.
- (4) The transfer of Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austrian control led to the major international crisis in 1908 – 9 and eventually to a world war in 1914. Russia had suffered a diplomatic defeat and the result was the break- up of the Dreikaiserbund.
- (5) Although the Congress did not provide a permanent solution to the Eastern Question, it did at least postpone trouble.

**The Dual Alliance:**

Year : 1879  
Powers : Germany and Austria Hungary

**Terms**

- (i) This was a military treaty, a defensive alliance directed against Russia.
- (ii) This agreement had to be renewed every three years and it continued to be renewed until 1914.
- (iii) The two agreed to support each other if they were attacked by Russia or by a country that was supported by Russia.
- (iv) They also agreed to be neutral and not to join a war where either Germany or Austria was attacked by another country which was not Russia and not supported by Russia.

**Results**

The alliance had the effect of making Austria think that Germany would always support whatever happened, while it made Germany obliged to help Austria whenever she needed help.

**NB:** This does not mean that Bismarck had abandoned his policy of keeping Austria- Hungary and Russia together. On the contrary, the main value of the alliance or friendship to him was that it helped to ensure peace in Eastern Europe by placing him in a position to exercise a restraining influence over Austria – Hungary while the same time dissuading Russia from attacking Austria – Hungary – so, the Dreikaiserbund was to be renewed.

**The Dreikaiserbund (Renewed)**

Year : 1881  
Powers : Germany, Russia, Austria – Hungary

WHY? The Russians soon realized the disadvantages of their position of diplomatic isolation and when they made overtures for the renewal of the Dreikaiserbund, Bismarck made every effort to persuade Austria – Hungary to agree and by 1881 succeeded.

### Terms

A new agreement between the three Emperors provided for benevolent neutrality in the event of any attack by a fourth power.

### The Triple Alliance

Year : 1882  
Powers : Germany, Austria – Hungary, Italy

### Background

- (i) The Dual Alliance between Germany and Austria – Hungary became the Triple Alliance (1882) when the two countries were joined by a third country Italy.
- (ii) This was the time of the Scramble for Africa when European countries were rushing to occupy parts of Africa.
  - Bismarck wanted to divert French attention from Germany, for Germany had acquired the two provinces of Alsace – Lorraine after the Franco – Prussian War (1870 – 71) to Tunis, a state in North Africa.
  - His calculating mind had seen that this action would make her an enemy of Italy who was interested in occupying Tunis.
  - When in 1881 France occupied Tunis, Italy became very angry. She wanted to revenge herself on France and turned to the enemies of France for help.
  - She reached an agreement with Germany and Austria in 1882 which was a defensive alliance.

### Terms

Austria and Germany accepted Italian offers of friendship because they thought this would prevent an Italian attack on Austria if Austria went to war with Russia.

### Comments

Italy never took the agreement seriously. She hated Austria far more than she hated France. She signed this agreement only because France had hurt her feelings by occupying Tunis. Italy later signed other agreement with Britain and cancelled the 1882 agreement. When war broke out in 1914, she did not join Germany and Austria.

### The Reinsurance Treaty

Year : 1887  
Powers : Russia and Germany

### Aims

This treaty aimed at keeping Russia within the sight of Germany so that she would not turn to France.

**Terms**

- (i) Russia promised that she did not aim at controlling Bulgaria where the Bulgarians had chosen a German Prince, to be their King.
- (ii) The two powers also promised to be neutral and take no part in a war in which either Russia or Germany would be involved against a third power which would not be France or Austria.

**Comment**

In 1890, the treaty should have been renewed by the new Kaiser, Wilhelm II, but he did not do so.

**Alliances after Bismarck**

Europe divided into two warring camps:

**Background**

The death of Kaiser Wilhelm I in 1888, who was very close to Bismarck, resulted in the transformation of Germany foreign policy.

He was succeeded by his son who died soon afterwards. His grandson then became Kaiser Wilhelm II, who failed to live together with Bismarck and in 1890 dismissed him. The new Kaiser then went on to destroy all that Bismarck had tried to achieve—such as to:

- Consolidate Germany
- Maintain peace in Europe
- Prevent a war of revenge by France
- Isolate France
- Prevent major wars amongst the European nations.

**How?**

Through the alliance system and congresses with Bismarck (Germany) as “peace broker”, for example, the Congress of Berlin 1878 and the Berlin Colonial Conference (1884-5).

**The Germany Change Policy on**

Russia  
France  
Britain

**NB:**

- After the defeat of France in the Franco-Prussian War at the hands of Germany in 1870, which left her without prestige in Europe, she lost her powerful position as a leader of Europe.
- France was weakened and humiliated for she had been forced to pay a large sum of money to repair the damage caused by the Franco-Prussian war. This also included her valuable coal and iron deposits in Alsace and Lorraine which were taken by Germany.
- Since 1870, France had always hoped that she would find a friend who would help her fight against Germany, to regain what she lost in 1870.
- From 1870 – 90, Bismarck had skilfully worked out her isolation.

- France could not make friends anywhere on the continent of Europe.
- All the important countries or great powers were linked to Germany and most of the small ones looked to Germany for leadership.
- France could not turn to Britain, for they had been enemies in the past-besides that, Britain had recently angered France. As a result, France had watched, (standing alone) the growth of Bismarck's alliance system.
- France was therefore happy to see the distrust of Germany by Russia and France later turned to her for friendship.

### **France Breaking her Isolation**

Why Russia turned to France:

- (i) Germany's unconditional support of Austria-Hungary in the Balkans annoyed.
- (ii) Bismarck had tried in 1881, 1884 and 1887 to maintain Russian friendship but Russia continued to doubt the sincerity of German friendship.
  - German did not stop supporting Austrian interests (refer to Dual Alliance 1879) as opposed to Russian ones.
  - From 1887, Russia tried to raise loans in Germany for the construction of the Trans- Siberian railway and for general industrial development in the country but failed to do so.
  - In 1890, Russia offered to renew the Reinsurance treaty but the Kaiser Wilhelm II (very anti- Russian) refused do so.
  - What increased Russian suspicion was the agreement between Britain and Germany-which indicated that Britain might actually join the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy.

### **NB:**

- (i) Britain and Russia were enemies' in the middle and Far East – so Russia needed an ally.
- (ii) France was willing because she felt left out, France agreed to offer the loans required by Russia from 1888 – thus preparing the ground for future friendship.

### **Activity**

- a) Describe in detail the rise of Germany as a superpower and its effect on European Politics
- b) How did the alliances by European countries between 1820- 1908 contribute to the outbreak of World War 1?

### **The Dual Alliance (Beauty and the Beast)**

Year : 1893

Powers : Russia and France

### **Background**

In 1890, France made the first move in discussing with Russia the possibility of firm friendship between the two.

In 1891, they reached an agreement for general co-operation and in 1893, they reached an agreement for military alliance.

The agreement was directed primarily against German and Britain.

**Terms**

- (i) Russia promised to support France if France was attacked by Germany or by Italy, if Italy was helped by Germany.
- (ii) France promised to support Russia if Russia was attacked by Germany or by Austria, if Austria was helped by Germany.
- (iii) If Italy, Austria or Germany began preparing for war, both France and Russia would also begin to prepare for war. France was to supply 13 000 000 men, while Russia supplied 800 000 men.

**The British End Their Isolation****Background**

In the late nineteenth century Great Britain was the most powerful nation in the world. Her Empire spread into every continent and included a quarter of the world's population. In the mid- 1880's she was still producing more coal and steel than any other country.

London was the hub of the world's trade and banking. Half the merchant shipping of the world was British, and she had by far the strongest navy in the world.

**The origins of "splendid isolation"**

1. It was because of the above position of strength that Great Britain maintained a isolationist foreign policy.
2. On 16<sup>th</sup> January 1896, a member of the Canadian government described this policy as splendid.
3. In the same way, a member of the opposition asserted that Britain's isolation was in fact more dangerous than splendid.
4. The reason British foreign policy was being discussed in the Canadian House of Commons was that Britain's isolation had become very obvious a fortnight earlier when the Jameson Raid had ended in a fiasco and had been followed the next day by Kaiser Wilhelm II's telegram of congratulation to President Kruger of the Transvaal.
5. The phrase "splendid isolation" was soon widely used, and the isolation came to be regarded as Britain's traditional policy in the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

**The meaning of Splendid**

- 1) The reason for regarding isolation as "splendid" was that Britain was thought to be so strong that she did not need allies.
- 2) In 1889 she had adopted the Two Power Standard, a policy of keeping the Royal Navy Superior to the combined strengths of any two other navies and it was felt that the navy, with its widespread bases, could protect Britain and the Empire from any likely enemy.

**Why Isolation became dangerous?**

- 1) The reason for regarding isolation as "dangerous" was that Britain persisted in keeping free from any alliance with another great power, and colonial policy, she might one day find a formidable alliance raged against her.



- 2) Isolation did not merely mean having no allies but could also mean having no friends.

### **What was Britain Isolated From?**

**NB:** It is wrong to assume that isolation meant keeping freedom of action by avoiding the commitments which alliances would impose. It did not entail a refusal to have any agreement with other countries.

Indeed, Britain had an alliance with Portugal. She was also a guarantor of the neutrality of Belgium (1839 Convention).

- 1) Isolation was not a rigid doctrine but a practical policy.
- 2) Alliances have the disadvantages that they commit one to giving help to one's ally.
- 3) Isolation has the advantage that it meant no obligation to defend anyone else.
- 4) As a result, as long as one does not need any assistance one's isolation is a sensible policy.
- 5) But as soon as one's problem gets too large to be dealt with on one's own, isolation becomes dangerous.
- 6) The British policy of isolation was "splendid" when it was by choice. It became dangerous when it was by circumstances.

### **Isolation by circumstances**

1. When the phrase "splendid isolation" came to be widely used, the British government began to realize that isolation might be dangerous.
2. The Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria- Hungary and Italy had existed since 1882 and Britain was not affected by it.
3. Britain was threatened by the Dual Alliance of France and Russia (signed in 1893 and publicly announced in June 1895) for they were the other two colonial powers at the time.
4. Britain had the option to join forces with the Triple Alliance but this would have the disadvantage of committing Britain to intervene in quarrels, such as Austro – Russia rivalry in the Balkans, which did not directly concern her.

### **Initial solutions to British pressure**

The British government began to feel anxious for the security of the British Empire but did not look for alliance. She took the following steps to relieve pressure on her by means of agreements.

### **The Mediterranean Agreement with Italy.**

- a) This was made early in 1887 by Lord Salisbury who was Foreign Secretary as well as Prime Minister.
- b) Agreement with Germany on her spheres of influence in East Africa (1887).
- c) The 1890 agreements about the partition of Africa with France, Portugal and Germany.
- d) The Niger conference (1897) at Paris, came to an end in June 1898 after drawing the boundary between French and British possessions in West Africa.
- e) An attempt to reach agreement with Russia about North China but the Russians refused.

- 5) The Fashoda crisis (clash between Kitchner and Marchand) - 1898. The result was that the last years of the nineteenth century saw increased rather than decreased Anglo-French tension.
- 6) In 1898, Anglo- Russian relations as well as Anglo- French relations deteriorated instead of improving.
- 7) The attempt to improve Britain's position by means of agreements with those powers with whom she had reasons for quarrelling had failed.

### **Approaches to Germany**

Britain's failure drove her into the only other possible course of action: that of seeking to come to terms with the Triple Alliance, and in particular with Germany.

In 1898, again in 1899 and in 1901, Joseph Chamberlain, the Colonial Secretary, with the consent of Lord Salisbury, proposed an alliance to Germany.

### **The attempt was a failure**

1. Britain would not commit herself to defending Austria from Russia, and Germany was equally unwilling to commit herself to defending the British Empire from Russia.
2. Britain was asking Germany to limit her naval building at the very time (April 1898) when Germany was planning to treble the size of the Imperial Fleet within six years.
3. Most important of all, the German government understandably expected Britain to quarrel so badly with France and Russia that she would eventually be driven to offer far more for Germany assistance than she was prepared at the time.

### **The Anglo- Japanese Alliance (1902)**

The Boer War made it clear to Britain's leaders that isolation was dangerous rather than splendid and the Marquess of Lansdowne, who succeeded Salisbury as Foreign Secretary in October 1900, therefore looked for an ally.

He found one on the other side of the world and in January 1902 signed a treaty with Japan by which Britain and Japan promised each other assistance if either of them should be attacked by more than one power.

Thus if Russia went to war with Japan, Britain would remain neutral and if France assisted Russia, Britain would help Japan.

Was this end of Isolation?

1. It was generally assumed at the time that Britain had abandoned her policy of isolation for Britain had at last committed herself to an alliance which could involve her in war with one of the powerful European alliances.
2. In another sense it was not true, for the treaty with Japan enabled Britain to continue her isolation from European alliances and it was not until August 1914 that she joined one of them.
3. In this sense the Anglo- Japanese treaty was merely the first important step out of isolation, and the story of British foreign policy from the time of that treaty in 1902 until the outbreak of the First World War in 1914, the story of Britain gradually moved further out of isolation and closer towards alliance with France and Russia.

### **Move towards a European Alliance.**

- 1) The British continued their policy of seeking to relieve pressure on their Empire.
- 2) In 1904, they reached a friendly understanding (entente cordiale) with France about colonial matters.
- 3) The British promised diplomatic support for French ambitions in Morocco.
- 4) This was not an alliance but inevitably it brought Britain closer to the Dual Alliance (Beauty and the Beast) which was estimated (by the Liberal ex- Prime Minister- Lord Rosebery) accurately that it would lead to “war in ten years.”
- 5) This was followed in 1907 with negotiations between Britain and Prussia for an entente, and again not alliance – the same policy to relieve pressure on the empire (under Sir Edward Grey – the new Liberal Foreign Secretary).
- 6) Also to note is the fact that, in 1906, as a result of a diplomatic clash with Germany over Morocco, Grey had already allowed secret conversations to take place between British and French military leaders about combined action in the event of their countries being jointly at war with Germany.
- 7) The Second Moroccan Crisis of 1911 resulted in Great Britain and France drawing even closer: It was agreed in the Anglo – French Naval Convention of 1912 that Britain should withdraw most of her Mediterranean fleet into the North Sea, while France withdrew her fleet into the Mediterranean.

**NB:** This put Britain at least under a moral obligation to defend France from any German naval attack on her Atlantic Coast.

The entente was coming to look suspiciously like an alliance.

However, despite Britain’s closer ties with both France and Russia, she retained the freedom of action which her isolation from European alliances gave her throughout the events leading up to the outbreak of War.

### **Europe divided into two hostile Camps: The Triple Entente**

#### **Germany and Dual Alliance (Beauty and the Beast)**

1. In theory, this alliance was directed primarily against Germany.
2. In practice this was not so. France had no intention of attacking Germany to regain Alsace – Lorraine and Russia had no direct cause for a quarrel with Germany.
3. France on one hand had clashed with Italy in Africa and wanted an ally lest Germany should support Italy.
4. On the other hand Russia’s interest clashed with Austria’s in the Balkans and she therefore wanted an ally lest Germany should support Austria.
5. Furthermore, Germany had at this time had no wish to clash with either France or Russia and for years. She had pursued a policy of diverting France from the question of Alsace – Lorraine by encouraging her colonial adventures in Africa.
6. Germany was also diverting Russia from the Balkans by encouraging her expansion eastwards into Asia while at the same time restraining Austria – Hungary from aggression in the Balkans.

#### **Great Britain and the Dual Alliance (Beauty and the Beast)**

1. It is clear from the above that France and Russia did not come into conflict with Germany and Austria-Hungary in the last years of the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

2. Being imperialist, colonizing nations, clashed with Great Britain, the greatest imperialist power in the world, standing in “splendid isolation.”
3. It was only in the twentieth century, as Germany became more powerful, that France and Russia were driven to come to terms with Great Britain.

### **Great Britain and France**

1. Relations between Britain and France had been bad ever since 1882 when Britain had occupied Egypt.
2. The relations had deteriorated further after the Dual Alliance (Beauty and the Beast) was made public in 1895.
3. Britain was very suspicious of Russia, and therefore France was now doubly suspect in her own right and as the ally of Russia.
4. French indignation resulting from British control of Egypt came to a head in 1898 when Kitchener clashed with Marchand at Fashoda.

### **The Entente Cordiale (1904)**

Despite the strained relations shown above, it was surprising to find the British and French ministers responsible for foreign affairs reaching a friendly understanding – an entente cordiale – in 1904.

1. For years Britain had been anxious to relieve pressure on her Empire. She was especially anxious to reach an agreement with France over Egypt as this would relieve her of the increasingly distasteful necessity of relying on German diplomatic support. Thus as soon as the French wanted an entente the British government was likely to welcome it.
2. The Fashoda crisis had shown the French that rivalry with Britain did not pay. They had asked both Germany and Russia for support, and neither had given it, so France realized the desirability of settling all outstanding disputes with Britain.
3. The Anglo- Japanese Alliance of 1902 was obviously directed against Russia, and France saw the danger of being involved as Russia’s ally in a war against Britain, the ally of Japan.

### **Results**

- (i) In January 1902, the same month that the Anglo- Japanese treaty was signed, negotiations for the entente began.
- (ii) The numerous outstanding disputes were settled by the practical method of both sides making concessions and the final agreement was signed in April 1904.
  - (a) Britain made concessions over Senegal and Madagascar.
  - (b) France made concessions over Siam (Thailand) and Newfoundland.
  - (c) Most important, France accepted that Egypt was a British Sphere of influence.
  - (d) Britain promised diplomatic support for French ambitions in Morocco.

### **Great Britain and Russia.**

- 1) The two powers were more hostile to each other than Britain with France.
- 2) The British regarded Russia’s expansionist ambitions as a threat to their Empire.
- 3) Russia blamed Britain for blocking her expansion to a “warm – water” port which her ships could use in the winter.

- 4) Their interest conflicted in the Eastern Mediterranean, in the area North of the Indian Ocean and in the Far East.

(a) **The Eastern Mediterranean**

- (i) For centuries expansion towards the Mediterranean had been a permanent feature of Russia's foreign policy.
- (ii) Britain had constantly opposed this, for she feared the consequences of Russia being able to block her trade route to India.
- (iii) Since she had gained control of Egypt in 1882, Britain had less cause to fear Russia, but her anxiety increased as a result of the Franco- Russian Dual Alliance (Beauty and Beast) the British Mediterranean fleet would not want to fight the French and Russian fleets combined.

(b) **Afghanistan and Persia**

- (i) The next nearest outlet to the sea for Russia was the Indian Ocean.
- (ii) In less than two centuries the Russians had expanded 2 000 miles into Southern Asia.
- (iii) In 1885 a Russian force crossed the border of Afghanistan at Penjdeh.
- (iv) They were prevented from encroaching any further by a threat of war from the British.
- (v) The result of this was that they diverted their ambitions towards Persia and the Far East.

(c) **The Far East**

- (i) By the 1890's Russian ambitions had spread across Asia to include Manchuria and even North China.
- (ii) After the formation of the Dual Alliance and the construction of the Trans-Siberian railway to Vladivostok, the British government became increasingly panic-stricken.

**The Russo- Japanese War**

1. To Britain, the defeat of Russia by Japan meant that Russia no longer constituted a threat.
2. The defeat came as a solution to Britain's imperial pressure because she had tried to reach an agreement with Russia and failed.
3. Britain then decided on an alliance with Japan.

**Results**

- 1) In 1904, Japan knowing that France could not assist Russia without involving herself in a war with Britain, attacked Russia.
- 2) Her forces invaded Manchuria at the end of the year and took over Port Arthur.
- 3) In 1905 the Japanese defeated the Russians on land at Mukden and at sea in the straits of Tsushima.
- 4) The war was ended the same year by the Treaty of Portsmouth (U.S.A.).
- 5) Japan graduated as a great power.

**Terms:**

- (i) Russia handed over South Sakhalin and her lease of Port Arthur to Japan.
- (ii) Russia evacuated Manchuria.
- (iii) Russia recognized Korea as a Japanese sphere of influence.

**The entente cordiale and Russia**

- (i) The danger of conflict in the Eastern Mediterranean declined at the same time.
- (ii) Russia had been so weakened as a result of her defeat by Japan and the subsequent revolution at home.
- (iii) As a result she was unlikely to take any action over the straits without the assent of the other great powers.
- (iv) Russia was unlikely to get support from France for any action which threatened British interests for the following possible reasons:
  - (a) France had now settled her own disputes with Britain.
  - (b) Russia's military and naval weakness had been demonstrated, so it was all the more necessary for France to keep Britain as a friend – especially in view of the growing hostility and strength of Germany.

**The Anglo Russian Entente**

- (1) From the above, it is clear that by 1907 the way was fairly clear for an agreement between Britain and Russia.

**Difficulties faced**

- (i) Britain was still allied to Russia's recent enemy, Japan.
- (ii) The Liberal government which had taken office in December 1905, was strongly opposed to the autocratic nature of the Tsarist rule.

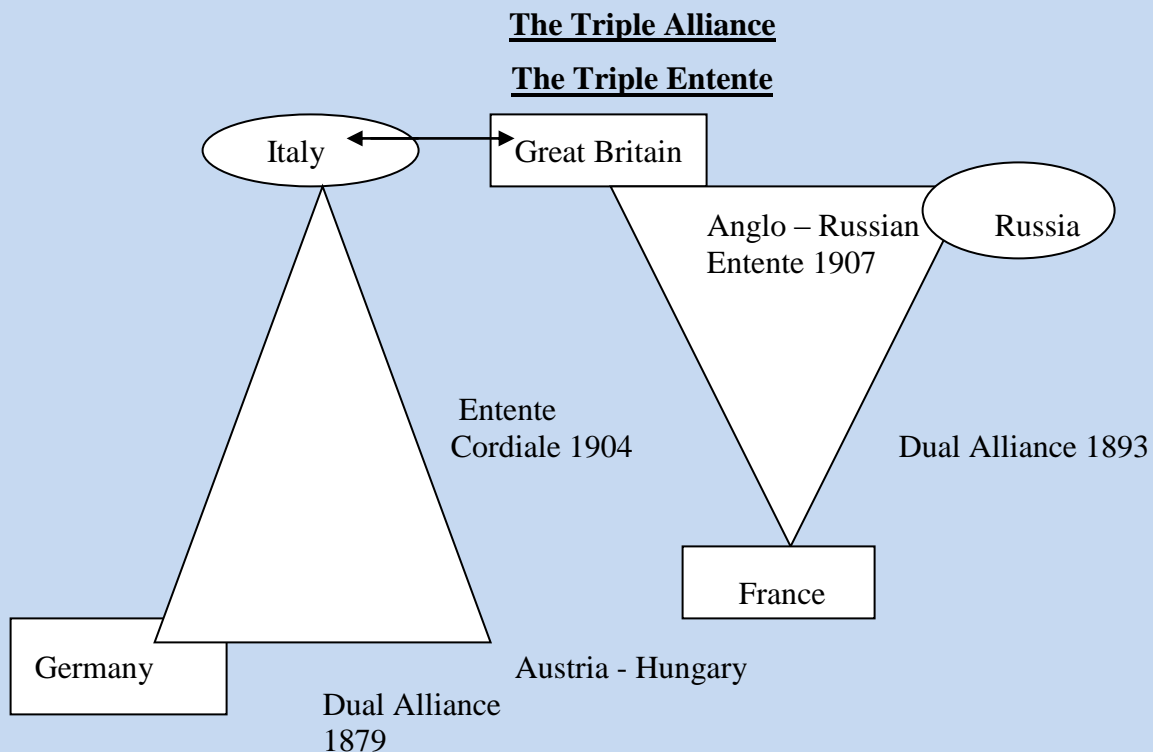
NB: These were not impossible obstacles for Britain and Russia did not intend to negotiate an alliance but merely to settle outstanding disputes.

**Terms**

- (i) Both would leave Tibet alone.
- (ii) Russia agreed not to intervene in Afghanistan.
- (iii) Spheres of influence in Persia were defined
  - (a) Russia dominated the more valuable North (but was excluded from the coastal area)
  - (b) The Coastal area came under British influence.
  - (c) The central area was left to the Persians.

**Activity**

Why did Britain adopt a policy of splendid Isolation?



NB: Through the Anglo – Russian Entente, Britain was on friendly terms with Russia as well as France. She still did not have an alliance with them, but after 1907 it became increasingly useful to think in terms of what may be called the Triple Entente.

### **Colonial Rivalry**

Colonial rivalry did not directly lead to the First World War. However, indirectly this had an effect on the coming of the War.

The later years of the nineteenth century saw the beginnings of a scramble to acquire colonies by many of the technically more advanced nations of the world. Those countries which were later involved in the First World War. The following classification can be done:

#### **Great powers involved in the scramble for Africa**

- Britain
- France
- Germany
- Belgium
- Italy

#### **Great Powers involved in the scramble for the Far East**

- Britain
- France
- Germany
- Russia

- Japan

NB: But the First World War was not caused by colonial rivalry, for all colonial rivals except Germany, a comparatively minor participant in the Scramble for colonies, were on the same side of the War.

The relevance of colonial affairs to the outbreak of war is that the war was only able to take place when the principal colonial rivals had settled their differences sufficiently enough to be able to unite against the growing power of Germany.

1. Colonial rivalry was characterized by competition for areas of the world where the European countries would buy raw materials for their industries and where they could sell their finished products. This competition was heavy in Africa and to a lesser extent, in Asia.
2. The serious colonial rivals were France and Britain over Egypt, France and Italy over Tunisia, Britain and Russia over Afghanistan.

In 1898 France almost went to war with Britain over the Sudan, but she restrained herself and war did not come then. Germany had become a colonial power towards the end of the century. Her activities before 1900 did not bring her into any serious conflict with any other power and therefore this could not have brought the First World War.

It can therefore be said with certainty that colonial rivalry was not important as a cause for the First World War because those countries which were colonial rivals ended up fighting on one side against a power which had very little colonial activity - Germany.

3. All the same, we cannot ignore colonial rivalry. It was only after the colonial powers had settled their colonial disputes or disagreements that they were able to unite against what they regarded as their common enemy, Germany. They thought Germany was aiming at dominating the whole world and that she should be checked.
4. The agreements made in 1904 between France and Britain and in 1907 between Russia and Britain, settled the colonial disputes between these countries. The first one almost directly led to the first Moroccan crisis which had an effect on the coming of the first war of 1914-18. The Russo-British agreement of 1907 led directly to the Balkan crises of 1908, 1912, 1913 and 1914, which ended up as the First World War.

Thus colonial rivalry did not cause the First World War, for the only colonial power to fight against the Triple Entente was Germany herself, who was scarcely involved in colonial dispute until the Moroccan Crises, and even the Moroccan Crises were not really colonial disputes but were both deliberately provoked for the very different reason of trying to split the Entente cordiale and establish Germany's predominance among the great powers.

Germany's allies in the war were even less concerned in the Scramble for colonies. Austria – Hungary had no interest outside Europe and Turkey's loss of her last African possessions to Italy in 1912 had no connection with her entry in 1914 into a war in which at the time, Italy was not involved.



The only direct connection between colonial rivalry and the First World War is that it was only when Russia, Britain and France and Italy had settled their differences that it became possible for them to co-operate against Germany.

### **Balkan Nationalism**

In the last years of the nineteenth century, the European lands of the “Sick Man of Europe”, that is the crumbling Ottoman Empire were coveted by both Austria – Hungary and Russia and also by a number of small independent Balkan States:

- Serbia
- Montenegro
- Greece
- Bulgaria

These claimed these lands on the strength of historical, linguistic and racial ties.

However, for thirty years after the Congress of Berlin in 1878, the only important change in the Balkan territorial settlement, was the Union of Eastern Roumelia Bulgaria in 1885.

Russia avoided making trouble for fear of provoking against her only Austria – Hungary but also Germany and possibly Great Britain as well.

### **Austria -Hungary’s position**

- (a) Austria was an empire which was composed of several people of different nationalities - (a Multi- National Empire). These people often caused internal unrest by their attempts to gain self- rule.
- (b) The Austrian government did not want its people to worry about internal problems. For this reason, it wanted to extend its rule to the Balkan area, particularly into Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- (c) In addition, Austria wanted an outlet to the Aegean Sea so as to increase her limited number of ports which would increase the volume of her trade.
- (d) If she succeeded in both her schemes, she would satisfy the nationalist expansionists’ aspirations of the Austrian German population.  
On the other hand, she would be seeking trouble with the people of Bosnia, Herzegovina and Salonika who wanted their independence and also with the immediate neighbours of these areas who wanted to control them.
- (e) Austria was therefore bound to clash with the Balkan nations who were supported by Russia. This eventually resulted in the First World War.

### **Turkey’s Position**

- (a) The Ottoman or Turkish Empire had been a mighty empire at one time. However in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, several parts of the empire, especially the eastern parts, began to break away.
- (b) The disintegration of Turkey in this period resulted in it being called the “sick man” of Europe.
- (c) Turkey was now faced with a problem of trying to retain what remained of her empire and to bring about unity.
- (d) Turkey also wanted to regain her lost prestige and this could be done by regaining some of the lost territories.

- (e) This resulted in the First and Second Balkan Wars of 1912 and 1913 and also in the First World War (1914-18).

### **The Balkan Nations**

- (a) As already shown above, these nations were the parts of the Turkish empire that fell off the empire during the 19<sup>th</sup> century.
- (b) They were never content with the boundaries they were given by the international community.
- (c) Their nationalism made them think that there were still some people ruled by Turkey, who by right of their origin, should belong to their countries – this is known as Pan- Slavism.
- (d) The independent Balkan States wanted all Slavs ( the Slav race included Greeks, Serbs, Slovenians, Russians etc and they followed the Greek Orthodox Church) – either in the Austrian or Turkish empire to become independent of these empires.
- (e) None of the Balkan nations was strong enough to attack either Turkey or Austria without assistance and win.
- (f) As a result, these nations formed a Balkan League – where the Balkans got united and promoted the idea of Pan Slavism which called for unity of the people of the Balkan area – (Similar to Pan – Africanism).

### **Serbia**

- (i) Of all the independent Balkan States, it was Serbia which led and encouraged Pan-Slavism. She wanted a single independent state of Yugoslavia to be created. This would include all southern Slavs.
- (ii) The proposed state of Yugoslavia would include Bosnia and Herzegovina – already partly under Austrian rule since 1878 – these demands resulted in conflict leading to the 1914 Great War.
- (iii) Russia was leading all – Slavic Empire which the Balkan people were prepared to follow.
- (iv) However, Russia was not interested in the Balkans for their own sake, but for her own sake. Russia wished to have easy access to the warm waters of the south – the Mediterranean in winter, since her northern ports would be frozen at that time. This ambition always led to clashes with Britain – until this was rectified by the Anglo-Russia Entente in 1907.

### **Militarism**

Contemporaries and historians have pointed to the damaging effects of the alliance system and the accompanying arms race.

Many Germans felt that France and Russia, joined by Great Britain, were deliberately pursuing a policy which was designed to “encircle” Germany. On the other hand, these powers, alarmed by Germany’s naval expansion, colonial ambitious and outspoken diplomacy, felt that their alliance was an essential response to make a high attempt at disturbing the balance of power.

## The Naval Race

The Naval strength of major European powers in 1914:

	<b>France</b>	<b>Great Britain</b>	<b>Russia</b>	<b>Austria</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Italy</b>
Dreadnoughts	14	32	4	3	20	1
Pre- Dreadnoughts	9	38	7	12	30	17
Battle Cruisers	0	10	1	0	6	0
Cruisers	19	47	8	3	14	5
Light Cruisers	6	61	5	4	35	6
Destroyers	81	228	106	18	152	33
Submarines	67	76	36	14	30	20

(From John Traynor: Challenging History: Europe 1890 – 1990 MacCrillan Education 1991,26)

1. The European countries were involved in the naval race. They tried to increase the warships they had. In 1889, Britain declared that her navy should be stronger than any two combined navies.
2. After 1890, Germany began constructing the Kiel Canal to connect the Baltic to the North Sea.
3. In 1898 and 1900, Germany carried her naval programme further by making the Naval Laws which aimed at trebling the Germany navy.
4. Britain felt threatened by the German competition in a field where she had always been supreme. She intended to remain the strongest naval power and she was not going to give Germany a chance.
5. The following statistics show the naval programme of both Germany and Britain in 1898 with Britain hoping to build many more ships than Germany ever intended, even in 1900. All the same, Germany intended to catch up with Britain in due course.

<b>British and German Naval Programme</b>			
1898		1900	
Britain	Germany	Germany	Type of Ship
54	19	38	Battle Ships
34	12	24	Large Cruisers

6. Britain wanted to remain ahead of Germany and in 1906 she made a new battleship called the Dreadnought. This ship was able to overpower any other existing ship at the time.
7. In 1907, Germany made her own dreadnought.
8. Britain decided to make three dreadnoughts for every two German dreadnoughts. In 1914, Britain had thirty – two dreadnoughts while Germany had twenty.
9. In 1912 and 1913, Britain and France made arrangements that Britain should defend the North Sea while France defended the Mediterranean Sea if war came. These

arrangements assumed that war was coming soon and the countries involved were not likely to make serious efforts to stop the war from coming.

10. In addition, the naval race itself worsened relations between Germany and Britain and on a bigger scale those of the Triple Entente and Triple Alliance. It was a war between the two different groups of countries which was impossible to avoid.

### The Arms Race

- a) In addition to the Naval Race, European countries began increasing the numbers of their regular soldiers and training many more as reserve soldiers at the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century.
- b) France had earlier introduced compulsory military service in preparation for a possible war of revenge on Germany for the defeat she had suffered in 1870- 71.
- c) In 1913, she increased the period of compulsory military service from two to three years.
- d) Russia did the same, increasing the period from three years to three and half years.
- e) The German army was enlarged up to five million men.
- f) In addition to this build-up in the size of the armies, a lot more weapons were produced than before.

The following table shows the military and naval personnel of the powers, during 1890 – 1914.

	<b>1890</b>	<b>1900</b>	<b>1910</b>	<b>1914</b>
France	542 000	715 000	769 000	910 000
Great Britain	420 000	624 000	571 000	532 000
Russia	677 000	1 162 000	1 285 000	1 352 000
Austria - Hungary	284 000	255 000	322 000	345 000
Germany	504 000	524 000	694 000	891 000
Italy	284 000	255 000	322 000	345 000

(From John Traynor: Challenging History: Europe 1890 – 1914, Macmillan, 1991 p. 25)

- g) Considering this dangerous build-up of arms, the temptation to use these weapons to settle disagreements became great and in 1914 no big European power was able to resist it.

### European Military Cultures after 1870

- a) The Franco – Prussia War (1870 –1871) was well executed. Its spread and success enhanced the position of Germany in Europe.
- b) It also led to the destruction of the tremendous power of the second French Empire under Napoleon III.
- c) The European people began to feel that war was a good way to settle disagreements and also to gain more territory and prestige.
- d) The soldier acquired a new status - as an admirable and respectable man.

- e) It is also said that the German mobility regarded fighting for one's country as the best occupation any man could have. Despite all this, Europe did not really want a war as shown by the following:

### **The Disarmament Conference**

- a) Despite all the preparations for war that have been described above, Europe was worried by the effects of a major war.
- b) The European peoples did not really want war. They wanted to avoid it as much as possible.
- c) As a result, two disarmament conferences were held at the Hague in 1900 and 1905.
- d) The aim of the Conferences was to reduce the rate at which countries were increasing their military and naval strength.
- e) Both Conferences failed because Britain insisted on countries stopping strengthening their navies and armies by leaving them at their existing level. Britain was then still the strongest country in the world. Germany, who was the closest rival to Britain, wanted to reach the British level and possibly becoming stronger than Britain, so she refused to stop the build up of armaments.
- f) Consequently, the naval and arms race continued until 1914. When war began, no country hesitated for long to join the war, because each one was fully prepared for it.

### **Short – Term or immediate causes of World War I**

#### **The Moroccan crises of 1905 and 1911**

1. This should be viewed as part and parcel of colonial rivalry and unlike all other crises which did not have direct effect on the coming of the first world war, the Moroccan crises worsened the relations between the Triples Entente and the Triple Alliance.
2. The convinced members of the Triple Entente believed that Germany wanted to dominate the world and that she should be checked.
3. The checking came in the form of the First World War.

#### **The First Moroccan Crisis, 1905 – 1906**

1880: The Madrid Convention established international guarantees of Morocco's status.

#### **1900-03**

During the period of personal rule by Abdul Aziz, popular uprisings by the Berber tribes meant that by 1903 he retained control over only a fraction of his former lands and even the Moroccan capital, Fez, came under attack.

1900: Secret Franco-Italian agreement to support each other's interests in Morocco and Tunisia, respectively.

1904: Franco-Spanish treaty on Morocco. Britain and France signed an agreement in which French claims on Morocco were recognised by Britain while France accepted British control of Egypt (refer to Entente Cordiale).

Germany now awoke to the situation which the famous Chancellor, Bismarck, had always feared.

Bismarck had wanted to keep France isolated, but his successors had let France get into an alliance with Russia (Refer to the Dual Alliance and Beauty and the Beast 1893).

The Germans had also ignored British offers of friendship and now Britain had turned to France.

**NB: Morocco had been regarded by Europe as officially independent and under joint supervision by all powers since 1900.**

### **The Crisis of 1905**

Germany's attempt to interfere with France's status in Morocco was marked by the Kaiser's visit to Tangier in March. He made it clear that Germany regarded Morocco as an independent state and encouraged the Sultan to resist French pressure.

France had proposed to proclaim Morocco as her protectorate for she knew she had the support of several countries. She did not care about the feelings of Germany, who also had economic and trading interests in Morocco.

### **Results: Algeiras Conference 1906**

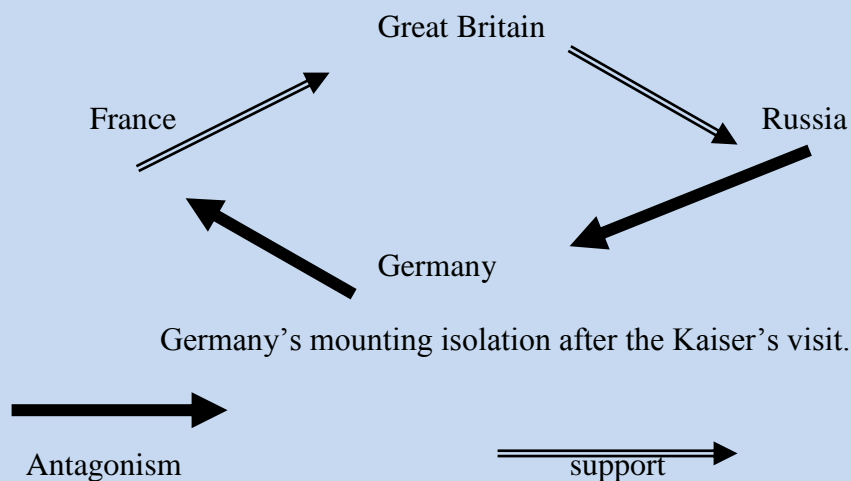
1. France was supported by Britain and Russia as well as other small countries, against Germany.
2. Germany stood out alone against the rest. She was not very happy at the result of the Conference which was held at Algeiras in 1906.
3. She did not gain much from the Conference. She was given joint control of the state bank of Morocco, together with Britain, France and Spain.
4. France gained more because she was given the power to supervise and keep order in Morocco. She would do this, together with Spain.

The Consequences of the 1905 crisis can be summed up as shifting allegiances.

### **Activity**

To what extent can the outbreak of World War 1 be attributed to structured European power relations between 1900- 1912?

### **See diagram below:**



## **The Second Moroccan Crisis (1911)**

### **Background**

**1905:** Germany did not receive international support for her stance, but insisted that France agree to International Conference.

Amid German threats of aggression the French foreign Minister, Delcasse, was forced to resign.

1906: At the Algeiras ,ance held military discussions.

1909: France and Germany signed an agreement recognising French political status in return for open economic competition.

### **The Crisis 1911**

Germany renewed pressure on France in Morocco by sending the gunboat Panther to Agadir. Lloyd – George publicly warned Germany in the Mansion House speech that Britain would not stand by over Morocco. Crisis talks settled the dispute as Germany recognised the French protectorate in Morocco and France offered Germany land and money.

NB: Germany had trading interests in Morocco and she wanted this protected. Germany had demanded that, if France was going to Morocco, then she should get part of French Congo.

### **Results of the Moroccan Crisis on International Relations**

1. War could easily have broken out in 1905 and 1911 over Morocco. This did not happen in 1905 because the European powers agreed to talk about Morocco at a Conference table.
2. In 1911 war was avoided because Britain showed that she was not prepared to fight Germany and Germany herself was not ready to go to war.

## **The Balkan Crises: 1908 – 1914**

### **Background:**

#### **The following crisis are referred to as the Balkan Crisis:**

1. The Bosnian Crisis 1908
2. The First Balkan War 1912
3. The Second Balkan War 1913
4. The Sarajevo incident

These Crises were a result of Balkan nationalism as the Balkan people clashed with their bigger neighbours.

### **1. The Bosnian Crisis 1908**

After the 1878 Congress of Berlin, Bosnia and Herzegovina officially belonged to Turkey but were ruled by Austria. Austria hoped to take complete control of these provinces.

### **The Young Turk Movement**

In 1908, the Young Turk movement made a revolution in Turkey.

The Young Turks wanted to see Turkey make some changes in the empire which would strengthen it and make it able to hold together the empire, including those parts which had broken off.

Austria took this as a golden chance for the Young Turks were a threat to her hopes in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

At this point, it appeared as if the “sick man” of Europe, the Ottoman Empire might die after all.

### **Austro- Russian Response**

The two powers felt it was better to grab whatever they wanted from the recovering “man” before he was fully recovered.

- i) Russia and Austria made an agreement in 1908.

### **Terms**

- (a) They agreed that Austria would annex Bosnia and Herzegovina and make them part of the empire.
- (b) At the same time Russia would open the straits of Bosphorons and the Dardanelles to her warships.
- (c) Austria and Russia agreed to act at the same time.
- (ii) Earlier treaties made with other Europeans powers had forbidden Russia to use the straits for fear that they would be a danger to the peace of Europe.
- (iii) In the eyes of Britain this would upset the balance of power.

### **The Crisis**

Events in Turkey made Austria act hastily. She annexed Bosnian and Herzegovina on 8 October 1908 before she could find out if Russia was ready to send ships to the Dardanelles straits.

Austria’s action was heavily criticised by the big powers of Europe.

Russia now found it difficult to carry out her side of the arrangement as her friends France and Britain opposed her plans.

As a result, Russia turned her back on Austria and condemned her action like the rest of Europe.



### **Effects of the Bosnian Crisis (1908-09).**

It might have been expected that German support for Austria-Hungary in the crisis over Bosnia from 1908 to 1909 would have alienated Turkey from Germany.

However, by then the ties between the two countries were too close to be easily snapped and once Turkey had been compensated, it did not make much difference to her whether Austria-Hungary were administered by Bosnia, as she already had for thirty years or actually annexed.

The effect of the Crisis on Russia was that her government determined not to suffer another diplomatic defeat of this sort and therefore began to increase the size of her army, while at the same time determining to regain her influence in the Balkans.

The effect on Austria-Hungary was that Germany's support encouraged her to feel able to pursue a far more reckless Balkan policy.

The most important effects of this crisis concerned Serbia:

Serbia had hoped to get Bosnia and Herzegovina, but now these had gone to Austria Hungary-so:

- (i) Relations between Serbia and Austria – Hungary became strained, because up to 1908, Serbia had been quite hopeful – and now she encouraged anti- Hapsburg terrorism in Bosnia.
- (ii) Serbia and Russia drew closer, because Serbia now hoped for Russian aid in the event of a clash with Austria – Hungary.
- (iii) Since Serbia's aim to acquire Bosnia had been thwarted, her ambitions turned Southwards towards Macedonia.
- (iv) The effect of increased Serbian interest in Macedonia was to revive the traditional enmity between Serbia and Bulgaria. Since 1878, Bulgaria had been hoping to acquire Macedonia from Turkey. Thus after 1908 the Balkans were a potential source of trouble than before.

### **The First Balkan War, 1912**

1. The Young Turk revolution of 1908 had resulted in increased unrest in Macedonia, for the new Turkish government was more efficient and as a result more oppressive.
2. The enmity between Serbia and Bulgaria was temporarily ended by the good offices of Prussia, who believed she could increase her influence in the Balkans at the expense of Austria – Hungary in this way, and in 1912 the Balkan League of Greece, Bulgaria Serbia and Montenegro was formed.
3. At that time Turkey was occupied in defending Tripoli, which had been invaded by Italy in 1911. So the Balkan League took the opportunity of attacking her in Europe.  
The armies of the League attacked in October and swept through Macedonia. In December the Turks, who had been driven back as far as Adrianople, asked for an armistice.

### **The aim of the Balkan League**

To divide among themselves what they had gained from Turkey.

1. Serbia intended to get the coastal lands of Albania.
2. Greece and Bulgaria shared Macedonia.
3. Romania and Montenegro intended to get those lands (close to them) that they had obtained from Turkey.

### **Results**

1. The great powers intervened and insisted on a Conference which met in London.
2. Austria-Hungary was determined that Serbia should not get an outlet to the sea, and therefore demanded the setting up of an independent state of Albania.
3. Britain supported this demand and so a new country came into existence on the Eastern shore of the Adriatic.
4. Russia was determined that Bulgaria should not get Constantinople and conference. She resolved that Turkey should keep it-the area in between was left to the victorious Balkan League.
5. In May 1913 a peace treaty was drawn up in London.
6. On the whole, the great powers had behaved with moderation.
7. The reason for this was probably that they saw the danger of war – some were genuinely anxious to avoid war, while others were not yet ready to fight.

### **The Second Balkan War 1913**

Bulgaria was so angry with the settlement in London that she did not stop to think seriously of what she was doing. With speed, she attacked Serbia in June 1913. Greece and Romania joined the war in support of Serbia. Turkey joined the war against Bulgaria, hoping to get back what she had lost in the First Balkan War.

When the war came to an end, Bulgaria was defeated.

### **Results: The Treaty of Bucharest**

1. The national boundaries in the Balkans were now very different from before the wars.
2. Turkey had lost most of her European lands, but retained Eastern Thrace – the area between Adrianople and Constantinople.
3. A new state of Albania had been formed.
4. Montenegro had expanded North-East to gain a common frontier with Serbia.
5. Bulgaria had acquired only a small strip of Macedonia but did also get Thrace and access to the Aegean Sea.
6. Romania had gained the southern Dobruja from Bulgaria.
7. The Bucharest treaty robbed Bulgaria of her former gain of the Aegean Coast and Adrianople, taken by Turkey, and of Bulgaria Dobruja, taken by Roumania.

### **Effects of the Balkan Wars**

Europe was affected tremendously by the War when events which unfolded later are considered.

- (a) Turkey was reduced in size, but still hoped to regain her lost territories.
- (b) The quick and decisive battles gave Serbia a lot of confidence and a feeling that she could do the same to Austria and get Bosnia and Herzegovina, which she still wanted. Serbia was now the biggest Balkan State.
- (c) Bulgaria failed to get central Macedonia and was determined to fight again in order to get it.
- (d) Relations between Austria and Russia became worse as Russia supported Serbian expansion whilst Austria opposed it.
- (e) It was the bad relations between Austria and Serbia which made the Serbian government look on while Bosnian nationalists planned to kill the man, would have succeeded to the Austrian throne, on the 14<sup>th</sup> June, 1914.
- (f) Russia felt humiliated at the end of Balkan Wars when she could not support Serbian hopes forcefully and she decided she would not give in to Austria again. As a result, in 1914, she supported Serbia fully and the First World War began.

### **Activity**

Discuss the significance of Balkan nationalism to the outbreak of w.w.I

### **The Schlieffen Plan**

In 1905 the German chief of Staff, General Schlieffen, drew up a detailed plan for the event of war with France and Russia.

The Germans believed that they could not win a war on two fronts – against Russia in the east and France in the West- at the same time. So Schlieffen drew up a plan which would knock France out of the war very quickly.

After France's defeat, Germany could concentrate on dealing with the Russian army which stood at 1 300 000 men- though it was quickly to raise to an effective strength of some 4 million.

The bulk of Germany's armies - 1½ million men-were allocated to the war in the west. The rest, some 450 000, were ordered to hold the Russians until reserves could be moved across from the Western Front after the defeat of the French.

Schlieffen had planned that the vast majority of the German army in the west should be attacked through Belgium and northern France while a small force should attack in the south along the Franco – German border.

The actual ratio was about 10 to 1. Schlieffen knew the small southern wing would be driven back because of its weakness. As it retreated he expected it to draw more French armies after it and so weaken their strength further north. Then the huge northern wing would come crashing down on the French, smashing them like a hammer pounding out a blacksmith's anvil.

But as we shall see, Count Schlieffen's successor, Count Von Moltke, altered the balance of the two forces so that the southern wing was four times the original strength (10 to 4). This

had two effects. First the northern force was now much smaller and made much slower progress when it attacked. Second, the southern army was so much stronger that when it attacked it did not get driven back.

This plan is also taken as a cause of World War I because the Germans were obviously confident to win in the war, they believed was coming. Also important to note is the fact that they wanted to implement it at one point. (Though not a short term cause).

### **Activity**

Describe the Schlieffen Plan and its effects on the results of the w.w.I

### **The Sarajevo incident:**

The event which precipitated the crisis leading up to the First World War was the assassination on 28th June 1914, of the Habsburg Archduke Franz Ferdinand when he was visiting the town of Sarajevo in Bosnia.

At the time few people expected this incident in the Serb campaign of violence against Austria – Hungary to lead to a general war. But although other international crises in recent years had been settled without war, the combination of circumstances in the summer of 1914 was such that this one set in motion a series of events which plunged Europe into chaos.

The deed had been committed by a Bosnian political fanatic who was an Austrian subject (Principel). Austria, however, claimed that the plan had been hatched in Serbia, and on 23 July she sent to Serbia, an ultimatum demanding, first: (i) that Serbia should burn all– Austrian propaganda.

2. That all Serbia officials whom Austria named as obnoxious should be removed from office.
3. That Austrian officials should be admitted into Serbian courts to investigate the crime of Sarajevo.
4. Only forty hours were allowed for a reply.
5. Serbia's answer went as far as any nation could go if it was to preserve its dignity and independence.
6. She granted the first two demands and suggested that the third should be submitted to the Hague Tribunal or to a Conference of the Great Powers.
7. When Serbia's judicious reply became known, Germany urged that there appeared to be no cause of war.
8. This attitude was strongly adopted by Britain-for she tried to make Germany to persuade Austria to a more moderate policy.
9. Austria, gambling on the belief that in the last resort, Germany would not let her go to war alone against Serbia (who would be backed by Russia), maintained her inflexible policy.
10. On 28 July Austria declared war on Serbia. This first step was followed by the mobilisation, in rapid succession, of the armies of Europe.

NB: At his trial, Principel said: "I am not a criminal, for I have destroyed a bad man. I thought I was right." Two years later he said that if he had known what was to follow, he would never have fired the two fatal shots – but his regret was too late. Within six weeks of the Archduke's assassination, almost all of Europe had been dragged into the bloodiest war in history – [adopted from Britain at War by Graig Mair, (1982)].

## Chronology

**On 23 July:** Austria blamed Serbia for the death of Franz Ferdinand and sent it an ultimatum.

**On 28 July:** Austria declared war on Serbia and shelled its capital, Belgrade.

**On 29 July:** The Russian army got ready to help Serbia defend itself against the Austrian attack. Germany warned Russia not to help the Serbs.

**On 1 August:** Germany declared War on Russia. It also began to move its army towards France and Belgium.

**On 2 August:** The French army was put on a War footing ready to fight any German invasion.

**On 3 August:** Germany declared war on France and invaded Belgium. Britain ordered Germany to withdraw from Belgium.

**On 4 August:** With Germans still in Belgium, Britain declared war on Germany.

## Austria's Blank Cheque

It has already been said that the Austrians were not expecting a major conflict over Serbia. Germany has often been blamed for encouraging the Austrians to be tough with Serbia and so provoked a wider conflict.

The Austrians believed, rightly that the Kaiser would commit Germany to Austria's aid if Russia became involved. Indeed, the Germans had backed Austria in 1908 when she took over Bosnian and so the Austrians believed they had a "blank cheque" for German support.

Why did Germany not hold back the Austrians and make it clear that she would not get involved in a major war? It is possible that Germany believed that the Russians would back down when faced with the possibility of war with Germany and Austria and so stay out of any war involving Serbia. If so, then it was a serious miscalculation.

## Events of World War 1 (1914-1918)

### The Western Front

As soon as war was declared, Germany's Schlieffen Plan went into operation. The Schlieffen Plan was simple but risky. As already shown, the idea was to send German forces through Belgium and to quickly knock France out of the war.

The theory was that Russia would take a long time to mobilise (get its forces ready for war). It was a win all-or-nothing gamble. The Germans had to try to get to Paris and defeat France within six weeks, so that they could then send all their troops to fight against Russia. However, neither the Belgians nor the Russians did what the Schlieffen Plan expected them to do.

At first, it looked as though the Germans could succeed. The German army invaded Belgium on 4 August. The Belgians put up a heroic resistance from their frontier forts but it did not stop the crushing German advance.

Massive German artillery bombardments destroyed the Belgian forts and soon enormous numbers of well-equipped and well-trained German infantry and cavalry were moving ominously towards the French border. Even so, the Belgium resistance won them many friends and bought time for British and French troops to mobilise.

### **The British Expeditionary Force: The Battle of the Marne**

1. It was led by Sir John French and landed in France and met the advancing Germans at Mons on 23 August. The British had quickly sent over their entire army of just 100 000 men.
2. This small but well – trained force of professional soldiers gave the Germans a nasty shock. Combined with Belgium’s similar sized army, the BEF held off the Germans at Mons on 21 August.
3. The delay in Belgium enabled the French to continue using the Channel ports to ship further British reinforcements.
4. Worse news was arriving from the Eastern Front for Moltke. The Russians had mobilised unexpectedly and had launched an attack on Eastern Prussia.
5. Moltke (The German Chief of Staff) panicked and sent two army corps to assist General Ludendorff who commanded Germany’s forces on the Eastern Front.
6. Ludendorff told Moltke they were not needed, but the decision further weakened the northern armies
7. Nonetheless Von Kluck’s First Army and some 320 000 men advanced to within 20 miles of Paris.
8. In the process, though, Von Kluck had become separated from the German Second Army.
9. Joffre, the French commander, decided to drive a Wedge between the armies and launch a counter – offensive against the entire German Troops.
10. The Battle of the Marne (6 – 11 September) that followed drove back the Germans to the river Aisne where they dug trenches from then on until March 1918 when the front line could not move more than 10 miles either way.
11. The Battle of the Marne not only wrecked the Schlieffen Plan but it also ruined Germany’s chances of winning the war, as she would now be forced to fight a war on two fronts.
12. Outnumbered in terms of men and material, the longer the war went on the less chance the Germans had of winning it.
13. Moltke’s frank honesty to the Kaiser – (“Your Majesty, we have lost the war”) had little consolation.
14. Besides, the Kaiser was far from admitting defeat.
15. Moltke was sacked and replaced by Falkenhayn. It was to take another four years and 8 500 00 dead to convince their High Command that the War had been lost.

### **The Trench Warfare (1914 – 1917)**

#### **“Bullet, spade and wire” J.F.R. Fuller**

- 1) By the end of 1914, it was clear that the old fashioned warfare of dashing cavalry charges and rapid movements of troops was over.
- 2) Success “depended on overcoming the defensive trinity of bullet, spade and wire”.
- 3) The Germans, occupying French and Belgium soil, were perfectly happy to stay where they were. They dug in and dug deep. German trenches were therefore much sturdier and their dugouts set deeper, with concrete and iron girders in the roofs.

- 4) Both sides protected their trenches with layers of barbed wire and the devastating fire of the machine gun.
- 5) Most World War One machine guns could, in theory, fire 500 rounds of bullets a minute.
- 6) Front line trenches had support trenches behind them and finally reserve trenches in the rear.
- 7) Between these, were communication trenches which linked them.
- 8) The trenches were zig-zagged to make it harder for enemy artillery to destroy them and to prevent enemy soldiers from firing down the length of the trench.
- 9) Occasionally, running out at right-angles from the front line trenches were narrow passages thirty yards or so long, called saps.
- 10) These led to isolated positions in which sat two or three men whose job was to listen for the slightest enemy movement.
- 11) Shell craters proved ideal listening posts and were often fought over for that reason.
- 12) One noise which was especially listened for was the sound of shovels and picks underground.
- 13) Enemy mining parties often tried to burrow beneath the front line to plant a huge bomb to blow the trenches and the men in them to pieces.
- 14) In June 1917, the British placed 19 huge mines under the German lines at Messines – a million pounds of high explosive. At 3.10 am on 7 June they went off and between 10 000 and 20 000 Germans were buried alive (Two mines, though in place were not used. Their exact position was lost. One went off in a rainstorm in 1955. The other, containing 40 000 pounds of explosive, is yet to make itself heard).

### **Activity**

Describe the various new methods of fighting that were introduced during World War 1

### **The Battle of the Verdun and the Somme (1916)**

The trench warfare resulted in a war of attrition where by forces from both sides suffered from heavy losses without movement. As a result, on the Western Front in 1915, no significant advances were achieved by either side-though Germans used poison gas for the first time at Ypres.

The year 1916 was to see two huge battles at Verdun and on the Somme. The German commander on the Western Front, Falkenhayn, decided to launch an offensive against the fortress town Verdun. He knew that the French would defend the town and its surrounding forts to the last, since defeat there would open the road to Paris.

The offensive began on 21 February with a barrage of 14000 guns and a million shells. The defence of Verdun was in the hands of General “Shall not pass.”

### **Falkenhayn’s Plan: (Germany)**

#### **It was brutally simple**

As the French rushed to defend Verdun, they would be “bled white”. To an extent it worked. The Germans launched offensive after offensive until July by which time the Germans were exhausted.

### **Britain's counter – offensive: (France)**

The idea was to recapture lost ground. The battle finally ended in December. The Germans had inflicted 380 000 casualties on the French but had themselves lost 340 000. Verdun did not fall.

### **The Whole of French Allies: Battle of the Somme**

France's allies had not been idle during this great battle.

In July on the Eastern Front, the Russians had launched the Brusilov offensive which had forced the Germans to take 15 divisions from their Verdun campaign.

Another offensive was launched by the British to force the Germans to take troops away from Verdun. On July 1, after a week – long bombardment of the German lines, the assault along the Somme was launched.

It was the worst day in the history of the British army: 57 000 casualties were suffered – 20 000 of them dead.

When General Haig (British)'s offensive finally ground to a halt in the November mud along the 30 mile front, the furthest advance was seven miles.

German casualties totalled 650 000, British 410 000 and the French 195 000. But these two battles had greatly worn down the Germans – though Haig was also criticized for the losses.

As a result, British Prime Minister Asquith, paid the penalty and resigned in December, to be replaced by David Lloyd – George.

### **The Eastern Front (1914 – 1917)**

Fighting took place across a vast area of land on the Eastern Front. There were some trenches, but warfare did not get bogged down in the same way as on the Western Front.

#### **1914: Crushing Victory for the Germans**

At the start of the War, Russia surprised everyone. It quickly mobilized two huge armies and invaded East Prussia in August 1914.

Tsar Nicholas II hoped that the War would rally public opinion behind his increasingly unpopular rule. For a while it seemed he might have been right, as the outbreak of the war was greeted with the same outburst of patriotic fervour in St. Petersburg as in London and Berlin.

The Germans had to take 100 000 troops away from the Western Front to fight for them. This helped to ruin the Schlieffen Plan.

The Russian armies made some early successes but at the battle of Tannenberg they suffered a shattering defeat by German forces.



The Russian soldiers were badly led, poorly equipped and underfed. Most of them had worked to the front.

They were up against well-trained, well equipped soldiers transported to the battle areas by rail. The other defeat was by the Masurian Lakes in early September at the hands of General Hindenburg and his Chief of Staff, Ludendorff.

### **1915 mixed fortunes against the Austrians**

The Russians were more successful against the Austrian forces.

In 1915 they invaded the Austrian province of Galicia. Although the Russians were defeated at Gorlice in May 1915, it took four more months for the Austrians to drive them out of Galicia altogether, and to do so, the Austrians needed substantial reinforcements from the Germans. However, this defeat put a terrible strain on Russia – there were 2 million dead or wounded in 1915 alone.

### **1916 Success and failure for Brusilov**

The Russians gave some respite in the winter of 1915 and early 1916 when the focus of the German and Austrian War effort shifted to Italy, Turkey and the Balkans. In the summer of 1916, General Brusilov led a stunning offensive against the Austrians. Three Russian armies broke through the Austrian lines and captured the city of Lutsk on 8 June.

But the Russians wasted the opportunity that the Brusilov offensive gave them. Instead of attacking other parts of the Austria lines, Brusilov's superiors decided to send extra troops to Brusilov to help him advance. By August, the 500 000 Russians were dead or wounded, adding to the half million dead or wounded already in 1916. Such losses intensified Russia's domestic problems.

### **1917 Revolution at home takes Russia out of the War**

The War effort put a terrible strain on Russia. Keeping the soldiers supplied meant that civilians went hungry. The Brusilov Offensive intensified the effects of War in Russia. Finally in March 1917, Russia collapsed into revolution. The Tsar was overthrown and a new Provisional Government ruled Russia.

The Provisional Government promised to carry on the War, but found that Russia did not have the resources or the will. In November 1917 the Bolsheviks, led by Lenin, took power and pulled out of the War. Although the Treaty of Brest- Litovsk was not signed until March 1918, Russian troops stopped fighting at the end of 1917.

### **The War on Other Fronts**

1. The entry of Turkey into the War in November 1914 on the side of Central Powers (Germany and her allies) opened up another front.
2. Some British war leaders, notably Winston Churchill, then first Lord of the Admiralty, believed that a decisive blow against the Central Powers could be struck in the Balkans.

3. A naval bombardment followed by a landing at Gallipoli in the Dardanelles was planned. The aim was to recapture Constantinople, the Turkish capital, knock Turkey out of the war and open another front against Austria-Hungary.
4. Churchill believed that a decisive breakthrough could not be made on the Western Front because of Germany's strong defensive position.
5. He argued that a new front in the Balkans would lead Germany to weaken herself in the west to come to the aid of her Hasburg ally.
6. The preliminary naval bombardment in February 1915 served only to warn the Turks that a major attack was planned.
7. When the eventual landings did take place, only 75 000 troops were used and it was over two months after the naval campaign had started.
8. By this time, 25 April, the Turks were ready and reinforced.
9. The British, Austrian, and New Zealand forces made no progress of significance.
10. By November, when the troops were withdrawn, 252 000 allied casualties led to the victory of the "Westerners" -those that believed that the War could only be won in the west.
11. The battles of Verdun and the Somme were the result.

### **The Italian Front (1915-1918)**

1. Another front was created in May 1915 with the entry of Italy into war against Central Powers.
2. The fighting, high up in the mountains for much of the time, was bitter.
3. The Italians made repeated efforts to drive the Austrians beyond the river Isonzo.
4. Not until the Eleventh Battle of the Isonzo in August and September 1917, did Italy finally force the Habsburg forces back.
5. Germany ruled in reinforcements and the advance was halted (stopped).
6. The Caporetto Battle  
Austro – German forces were ready for a counter offensive – the Twelfth Battle of Isonzo known as Caporetto.
7. The Italians were sent into headlong retreat. Eventually a defensive line was established with the enemy some twenty miles from Venice.
8. There were 40 000 Italians killed or wounded but the numbers of prisoners and deserters, 275 000, reveal how close to collapse Italian morale came.
9. Only in the following September, 1918, were the Italians able to mount another offensive.
10. By this time the Hasburg Empire was disintegrating as various subject races declared their independence.
11. On 24 October, general Diaz launched the final attack at Vittoria Veneto.
12. Six days later the Austria army had been beaten: 30 000 killed and 427 000 taken prisoner.
13. Austria – Hungary surrendered on 3 November.

### **War at Sea**

1. The Sea campaigns of the First World War were unusual in that, although they were important, relatively little fighting took place between the warships.
2. The Key objective was to control the seas to stop supplies getting to the enemy
3. The British blockade of German ports which stopped supplies reaching Germany was a crucial factor in the Allied victory over Germany. It was just as important as any military victory on land.

4. Both sides knew how important it was to control the sea, and the war at sea became a cautious war.
5. The British Commander Admiral Jellicoe said that he “could lose the war in an afternoon”, if he rashly allowed his fleet to be put out of action.
6. Should either side gain control of the seas, it could starve the other into defeat by cutting off food supplies or it could even use the fleet to launch an invasion.
7. For this reason both Admiral Jellicoe of the British grand Fleet and Admiral Tirpitz of the German High Seas Fleet, spent the first two years of the war avoiding a major battle.
8. Early in 1914 German battle cruisers shelled some British coastal towns.

### **The Battles at sea**

9. There were some battles at sea. In August 1914 the Royal Navy a clever (but small) tactical victory in the North Sea at Heligoland, but generally the German navy, remained in its ports.
10. In the Mediterranean, the German cruiser Goeben evaded the Royal Navy to reach Constantinople. This was an important event as, it influenced the Turks, who were pro-German, to make the decision to enter the war, otherwise they would have had to force the Goeben to leave.
11. The Germans had few ships in the Pacific, but a small squadron gained an early victory in November 1914 off the coast of Chile.
12. The Royal Navy set out to remove this threat and the German ships were destroyed around the Falkland Islands in December 1914.
13. By 1915 the ships in German ports remained. The Germans tried to enforce their own blockade of Britain by using submarines to sink merchant ships. This was highly effective.
14. In May 1915 U- Boats sank the liner Lusitania, with less of 100 passengers.

### **The Battle of Jutland**

The only large scale sea-battle of the war, at Jutland, 31 May 1916, took place by accident.

9. In the event, chaos and confusion reigned. The Germans had the best of the exchanges, but the British fleet was simply too large.
10. Tirpitz had been replaced in March by Admiral Scheer who decided to try to lure a small part of the Grand Fleet into battle.

#### **11. An accidental Battle**

Admiral Jellicoe sent a small squadron under Admiral Beatty as bait to try and lure the Germans into a trap. Neither of them knew that each other’s main fleet was nearby.

12. The two decoy squadrons came face to face off coast of Jutland in the North Sea.
13. Within 30 minutes two British battleships were blown to pieces-destroyed by direct hits to their magazines (This weakness, which left the magazine area so vulnerable had been noted after an earlier battle at Dogger Bank in January 1915 but nothing had been done to strengthen the armour protection).
14. German gunnery was much better and their ships better constructed.
15. Within a few hours, both fleets had been drawn in the battle-250 ships including 44 Dreadnoughts (the most modern and heavily armed type of battleships).

16. Sheer soon realized the danger he was into and, aided by the misty darkness, managed to escape.

### **Results of the Jutland Battle**

1. Fourteen British ships had been sunk, including three battle cruisers.
2. Over 6 000 sailors-British sailors were killed.
3. German losses were lighter: 11 small ships and 2 500 men.
4. In Germany there was jubilation-technically they had won a victory.
5. In Britain there was some embarrassment but the Germans, with a smaller fleet, could not avoid their losses.
6. The Germans lost their navy and stayed safely inside their harbour at Kiel for the rest of the war.
7. The Grand Fleet had the run of the sea and could enforce its blockade of Germany with ruthless effectiveness.

NB: Both sides claimed to have won the battle on the one hand, the Germans caused more damage than they received.

On the other, the Battle of Jutland certainly failed to achieve the most important objective for Germany which was to remove the blockade.

### **Activity**

How true is the claim that German victory in world war 1 was stopped by the entry of U.S.A.

### **The U- Boat Campaign**

1. In the early stages of the war, German U- boats concentrated their attacks on Allied Warships. When the Allies learned to protect their warships, the U – Boat attacked merchant ships instead.
2. To start, the attackers would warn a merchant ship that it was about to be sunk and allow the crew to abandon ship.
3. This “convention” was abandoned in February 1915 when the Germans began a campaign of unrestricted submarine warfare./ All Allied ships were targeted.
4. They could be torpedoed without warning – A notable early casualty of the new campaign was the liner Lusitania.
5. British propaganda painted this action as a criminal act, but there was some evidence that the ship was carrying explosives for the war effort.
6. Over 100 American citizens were killed in the Lusitania causing great tension between the US and German governments.
7. Two years later, in 1917, the USA cited the U- Boats campaign as one of its reasons for declaring war on Germany.
8. After the sinking of the Lusitania, Germany called off warfare but in 1916 started it again.
9. The Germans’ aim was to prevent essential supplies getting to Britain and they almost succeeded.
10. By June 1917, Britain had lost 100 000 tons of shipping to the U- Boats. At one point, it was estimated that London had only six weeks’ supply of food remaining.
11. From 1916 the Allies improved their tactics for dealing with the U-boats. However, two other factors were significant in the fight against sub- marines. The dedication and heroism of the sailors of the merchant navy and the massive output of ship

builders. (The introduction of the convey system by Lloyd-George- the use of mines against U- Boats and use of “Q” ships-warships disguised as merchant ships.)

12. By 1917 Britain and the USA were building so many ships that the U- boats could not possibly sink them all. Rationing also ensured that Britain’s food supply stretched that bit further.
13. The Germans simply did not have the resources to sustain their campaign and it was finally called off.

### **The Blockage**

The effectiveness of the blockade was a key factor in bringing Germany to her knees.

### **Results**

1. It has been estimated that as many as 800 000 Germans died as a result of the British blockade.
2. The widespread hunger in Germany towards the end of 1918 and the civil rioting that took place forced the German High command to surrender. However, Britain also came close to defeat through starvation.
3. In April 1917 the Germans came close to victory when Britain had only six weeks supply of corn left and 430 ships had been sunk.
4. The most important result of Germany’s U- boat campaign was that it brought the USA into the war in April 1917 (refer to Lusitanian.)

### **The War in the air**

1. World War I also resulted in the development of war in the air.
2. The Germans, French and Australians and other nations had their heroes who shot down enemy planes, for example:
  - a. Germany-Baron Von Richthofen (the Red Baron) -shot down 80 Allied planes.
  - b. France- Rene Fonck -made 75 kills.

Airships: - these were essentially huge bags of lighter than-air hydrogen gas. They were powered by engines carried in “cars” in keel-like structure underneath. The British used the airships mainly for escorting ships and for hunting U- Boats. They could spot U- Boats on the surface and warn the escort warships by radio.

German airships were much more advanced and more widely used. The German airships were known as Zeppelins (after the designer Count Zeppelin) they were a key weapon in the early campaign at sea.

They were able to fly higher and faster than many early planes and were used as observation decks for the German fleet.

It was not long before the Germans realized the potential of Zeppelin as bombers.

### **The Air Raids**

The first raids hit British towns in early 1915-the Zeppelins could not carry enough bombs to do real damage but what they did achieve was psychological damage-civilians in Britain no longer seemed safe.

The British government pulled back fighter planes to defend Britain from these attacks but in fact such fears were exaggerated.

Once air defences improved, it was clear that Zeppelins were very vulnerable.

By 1918, speedy, powerful fighter planes and accurate anti – aircraft fire took a heavy toll of these giant aircraft the following statistics show:

- 130 Zeppelins in service
- 7 lost to bad weather
- 38 lost in accidents
- 39 lost in enemy action.

By the end of the war, aero planes had been designed that could drop bombs.

Air raids took place as early as 1914 but they were notoriously ineffective and inaccurate.

Zeppelin hangars were a favourite target-they were so huge and hard to miss. As the war came to a close, the Germans had developed the Gotha heavy bomber which carried out a few raids on Britain.

NB: The war speeded up the development of air technology.

### **The Last year of the War**

1917 had seen no end to the stalemate on the Western Front. The new commander of the French armies, General Nivelle, tried a new offensive in April which failed.

He was replaced by the hero of Verdun, Petain. The biggest battle of the year was the Third Battle of Ypres, also called Passchendaele in which the British attempted to break through and seize the U- Boat bases on the Belgian coast.

The campaign from July to November cost 324 000 British casualties for a four mile advance. Many thousands of the dead had drowned in mud-filled shell craters.

The final British offensive of 1917 at Cambrai, is mainly noted for the large- scale use of tanks -over 400 of them. They had first been used at the Somme but the surprise effect of the terrifying weapon had been wasted then because only 50 were used and most of them broke down.

The collapse of Russia at the end of the year, though, was made up for by the entry of the USA on the side of the Entente in April.

“Operation Michael”.

Hindenburg and Ludendorff had replaced Falkenhayn on the Western Front in August 1916. Both knew that if the war was going to be won it had to be won, before the Americans could intervene in large numbers.

Ludendorff drew up “Operation Michael.”

Its strategy was simple

The Germans, strengthened by 400 000 troops from the Eastern Front, planned to drive a wedge between the Allies at the Somme.

Ludendorff expected the British to fall back towards the Channel ports and the French toward Paris.

The Germans would pour into the gap, using new “infiltration” tactics. Enemy strong- points would be avoided and Ludendorff’s highly trained storm – troopers headed for the weakest parts of the enemy line- it was the basis of “blitzkrieg” tactics that Hitler was to use with such success in the early years of World War Two. It almost succeeded.

The British Fifth Army was routed and began to fall back towards the Channel ports. The Somme was crossed two days after the attack began on 23 March, and ordered a general withdrawal of the French armies towards Paris.

By the end of May the Germans were once again within 40 miles of Paris. The battle of Amiens marked the fall of Germany. The German army was too weak to win in 1918.

It was short of supplies, having advanced too quickly for the supplies to keep pace.

The German army was hungry and discipline began to break down. On 8 August, the Allies led by Foch, launched their massed counter – attack at Amiens.

The exhausted and now demoralized Germans were driven back, beyond the heavily defended Hindenburg line.

Germany’s allies were collapsing.

Bulgaria surrendered on 30 September, Turkey on 30 October and Austro – Hungarian Empire simply fell apart.

On 11 November at 11am the war ended when the armistice signed with Germany came into effect.

### **War Casualties**

#### **Britain and the Entente powers**

France -	1 360 000	} Allied or Entente Powers
Russia -	1 700 000	
Italy -	460 000	
U.S.A-	114 000	

#### **Central Powers:**

Germany	-	2 000 000
Austria-Hungary	-	1 100 000
Turkey	-	375 000

### **Examination type questions**

- 1a) State any five aims of the German foreign policy under Bismarck before 1890. [5]  
 b) Describe the Germany foreign policy by Bismarck up to 1890. [12]

- c) To what extent was the German foreign policy under Bismarck responsible for the outbreak of World War 1 in 1914? [8]
- 2(a) State five reasons for Britain's abandonment of the policy of isolation. [5]  
 (b) Describe Britain's policy of splendid isolation. [12]  
 (c) To what extent was Britain's abandonment of the policy of splendid isolation responsible for the outbreak of World War 1? [8]
- 3(a) Identify five countries involved in the Moroccan crises. [5]  
 (b) Describe the first Moroccan crisis of 1905-7 and the second Moroccan crisis of 1911. [11]  
 (c) To what extent were the Moroccan crises responsible for outbreak of World War 1 in 1914? [8]
- 4.(a) List any territorial changes which took place as a result of the second Balkan war. [5]  
 (b) Describe the first and second Balkan wars. [12]  
 (c) To what extent were Balkan wars responsible for the outbreak of World War 1 in 1914? [8]
- 5.(a) Name any five countries which were involved in the Sarajevo incident. [5]  
 (b) Describe the Sarajevo incident of 1914. [12]  
 (c) Was war possible without the Sarajevo incident? [8]
- 6(a) Name five weapons used in the first World War. [5]  
 (b) Describe the trench warfare of 1914-1917. [12]  
 (c) How effective was the trench warfare during this war? [8]
- 7(a) Name any five battles fought in the first World war. [5]  
 (b) Describe the war at sea. [12]  
 (c) To what extent and in what ways was Germany and Allies affected by the war at sea? [8]
- 8(a) State five victorious powers in the First World War. [5]  
 (b) Describe the socio-economic results of the First World War. [12]  
 (c) To what extent was the entrance of the USA responsible for the victory of the Allied powers? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 21**

### **THE PARIS PEACE TREATIES:**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Discuss the reasons for convening the Post war peace settlement
- b) Discuss the territorial and non-territorial terms of the Versailles settlement
- c) Critically examine the terms of the treaties.

#### **The peace settlement**

After the war the winning countries argued about what should happen to the losers. The Big three, namely Lloyd George of Britain, Georges Clemenceau of France and Woodrow Wilson of the USA, decided on the future of Europe and the world. All the three countries had ideas about peace but they often disagreed. As a result, a compromise was reached. It is important to note that the French and the British suffered badly during World War I. So they both wanted to punish the Germans harshly. People in the USA didn't suffer in the same way so they were more detached and wanted to stay impartial.

#### **The treaty of Versailles**

Germany was viewed as the main aggressor so she lost most of her territory in Europe for example:

- i) Alsace – Lorraine was given back to France.
- ii) Posen and part of upper Silesia were given to the new state of Poland.
- iii) Moresnet and Malmedy were given to Belgium.
- iv) Danzig and the coal- rich Saarland were put under the League of Nations.
- v) The Rhineland was demilitarized – Germany wasn't allowed to have troops there since it was close enough to invade France and Belgium from.
- vi) German colonies in Africa were divided among Britain, France and South Africa as “mandates” of the League of Nations.

#### **Non- Territorial Terms**

- 1) The army was limited to a maximum of 100 000 soldiers.
  - German armaments were strictly limited.
  - Compulsory military service was prohibited.
  - Tanks were banned.
  - The navy was limited to six warships.
  - The German army was banned from the Rhineland
- ii) Reparations – this was money or compensation which Germany was supposed to pay for damage done to the Allies.

- Germany was to pay £6.6. Billion in reparations. The amount was decided in 1921 after much argument and negotiation. It would have taken Germany until the 1980's to pay.
- iii) "War – Guilt" Clause. Germany had to sign the "War – guilt" clause and take the blame for the war.

### **Activity**

Why did European powers convince Pans Peace 14 conferences in 1918.

### **Germany Lost:**

#### **Summary:**

- (i) 10 percent of its land
- (ii) All of its overseas colonies
- (iii) 12.5 percent of its population
- (iv) 16 percent of its coal and 48 percent of its iron industry.

In addition:

- (i) Its army was reduced to 100 000. It was not allowed to have an airforce. Its navy was reduced.
- (ii) Germany had to accept blame for starting the war and she was forced to pay reparations.

Results!

1. Most Germans were appalled
2. Supporters of the Weimar Government felt betrayed by the Allies
  - The Kaiser was gone – so they did not see any reason for being punished for his war and aggression
3. Opponents of the regime (Weimar Republic) turned their fury on Ebert.

### **NB:**

- (b) Ebert himself was very reluctant to sign the Treaty, but he had no choice.
- (c) Germany could not go back to war
- (d) However, in the minds of many Germans, Ebert and his Weimar Republic were forever to blame for the Treaty.
- (e) The injustice of the Treaty became a rallying point for all Ebert's opponents.

### **Activity**

- a) Why did Germany receive the greatest punishment (1918-1919)? Was the punishment justified?
- b) Describe the non territorial term of the treaty of Versailles. To what extent were these terms unfair to Germany?

### **Other Treaties**

#### 1. **Treaty of St. German (1919) – Austria.**

- Austria was separated from Hungary.
- Austria also lost Bohemia and Moravia to Czechoslovakia.
- Dalmatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina were lost to Serbia.

- Bukovina went to Romania.
- Trentino, Istria and Trieste went to Italy.

**NB:** Austria was forbidden to join with Germany.

Austria was made to disarm. Its army was reduced to 30 000 soldiers.

## 2. The Treaty of Trianon (1920) - Hungary

- Hungary lost Slovakia and Ruthenia to Czechoslovakia.
- Croatia and Slovenia went to Yugoslavia.
- Transylvania and Banat of Temesvar went to Romania.

Hungary's army was also limited to 35 000 soldiers.

## 3. The Treaty of Neuilly (1919) - Bulgaria

- Bulgaria lost access to sea.
- Bulgaria also lost territory to Greece, Yugoslavia and Romania.
- It was made to disarm and its army was restricted to no more than 20 000 soldiers.

## 4. The Treaty of Sevres (1920) - Turkey

- Turkey lost control of the Black sea.
- Eastern Thrace, part of Aegean Islands and Smyrna went to Greece.
- Adalia and Rhodes went to Italy.
- In the Middle East, France took over Syria while Britain took control of Palestine, Iraq and Jordan as mandate states.

**NB:** The Turks hated the Treaty of Sevres. Turkish nationalists like Mustafa Kemal resisted the Treaty and forced some later changes at the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923.

### Activity

Outline in detail Wilsons' 14 points

### Examination type questions

- 1(a) Name any five signatories at the Treaty of Versailles in 1919. [5]  
 (b) Describe the non-territorial terms of the Treaty of Versailles. [12]  
 (c) How fair were the terms of the Treaty on Germany? [8]
- 2(a) Name five Treaties signed with the defeated powers from 1919 -1920. [5]  
 (b) Describe the Treaty of Neuilly and the Treaty of St German. [12]  
 (c) Why were the defeated powers justified in criticising these Treaties? [8]

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## CHAPTER 22

### THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS: 1920 – 39

#### Chapter objectives

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Explain the establishment of the League of Nations.
- b) Describe the aims and organs of the League.
- c) Critically examine the strengths and weaknesses of the League.
- d) Give reasons for the fall of the League of Nations.

#### Formation

1. In 1918 President Wilson of the United States put forward his 14 Points as a basis for ending the First World War.
2. The last of these points called for the setting up of an international organisation that would bring the nations of the world together to ensure peace.
3. The League of Nations soon ran into several difficulties.
  - b) The Congress - the law-making body of the United States, refused to give its approval to US membership of the League.
  - c) America had to enter a period of isolation that would keep it out of Europe's affairs until 1941.
  - d) This was a devastating blow to the League.
  - e) Europe's two major Allied powers, Britain and France also had little faith in the idea.
  - f) Britain and France had paid up service to it only to please Wilson.
  - g) They were not prepared to allow the League to influence any of their policies.
  - h) None of the defeated powers was allowed to join the organisation – which did little to create an atmosphere of peaceful co-operation in Europe.

#### The Aims of the League

- 1) To maintain peace through collective security, Meaning: All member states – (42 in 1920) would act together or collectively to punish any nation that threatened or committed an act of war (called the aggressor) against another nation.

#### Nature of punishment

- a) Economic sanctions
- b) Military sanctions

#### a) Economic Sanctions

These would involve refusing to trade with the aggressor.

- a) As a last resort, military means could be used – in theory.  
In practice, the league never actually raised an army for such purposes and so the only sanctions which were applied were economic ones.
- 2) To encourage international co-operation in order to solve the World's economic and social problems

**How?**

A variety of special commissions and committees were set up for example

- (ii) The Health organisation
- (iii) The Disarmament Conference

All member states were required to sign the Covenant which was the constitution of the League, containing all its rules and the duties of the members.

- 3) To encourage nations to disarm

The League might have been lacking in some qualities but it certainly had good intentions.

**The main bodies of the League:**

- a) The General Assembly
- b) The Council
- c) The Permanent Court of Justice
- d) The Secretariat
- e) The Special Commissions and Committees

**(a) The General Assembly**

- (i) This met once a year and all members attended.
- (ii) Each member had a single vote, no matter how big or small the country was.
- (iii) All decisions taken by the Assembly had to be agreed upon by every member.
- (iv) In theory this could have meant that one vote against would be enough to stop any decision being made.
- (v) In practice, a member state could abstain rather than vote against, so decisions were made.
- (vi) The Assembly had some real power in that it controlled the League's budget but the real running of the League was carried out by the council.

**b) The Council**

- (i) This was a much smaller body and met at least every three months.
- (ii) It had four permanent members
  - Britain
  - France
  - Italy
  - Japan
- (iv) The USA, the fifth of the victorious powers, never joined the League.
- (v) Four other members were to be elected by the Assembly for a three year period.
- (vi) By 1926, the number of non-permanent members had increased to nine.
- (vii) This prevented the major powers from dominating the League.
- (viii) The Council had to deal with crises that arose and settle political disputes unanimously.

### **The Permanent Court of Justice**

1. This was set up in the Hague and consisted of 15 Judges.
2. It dealt with legal, as opposed to political, disputes between members.
3. Before any case could be submitted to Court, both sides had to agree to accept the verdict in advance.

### **The Secretariat**

This was the civil service of the League and drew up the resolutions and reports for the League.

### **The Commissions and Committee**

As already indicated, there were a variety of these to deal with specific issues and problems.

#### (i) **The Mandates Commission**

It made sure the mandated territories were being properly governed (by Britain and France) while other commissions looked after the rights of racial minorities or discussed proposals for disarmament.

#### (ii) **The Committees**

The most noteworthy was the

- (a) **International Labour Organisation (ILO):** It sought to spread trade union rights and improve wages and working conditions.  
It was led by a Frenchman, Albert Thomas, because membership was not restricted to League members only. The United States also joined.  
The ILO and the committee which tried to eliminate drug trafficking had a fair measure of success.
- (b) **The Refugees Committee**  
This helped to return refugees to their original homes after the end of the First World War.
- (c) **The Slavery Commission**  
This helped to abolish slavery around the world.
- (c) **The Health Committee**  
The Health Committee attempted to deal with the problem of dangerous diseases and to educate people about health and sanitation.

### **Activity**

- a) Why did world leaders call for the formation of the League of nations in 1919?
- b) Outline the main aims of the League of Nation and the structure of its organisation.

### **The League and border disputes in the 1920's.**

2. The treaties signed at the Paris Peace Conference had created some new states and changed the borders of other existing states.
3. However, putting a dotted line on a map was a lot simpler than working out where the boundaries actually lay on the ground.
4. These boundaries might split a community, putting some people in one state and the rest in another.

5. It was the job of the League to sort out border disputes.
6. From the start, there was so much for the League to do that some disputes were handled by the Conference of Ambassadors.
7. Strictly speaking, this was not a body of the League of Nations.
8. It had been set up to sort out problems arising from the post-war treaties and was made up of leading politicians from the main members of the League – Britain, France and Italy – so it was very closely linked to the League.

### **Vilna, 1920**

1. Poland and Lithuania were first two new states of Lithuania, but its population was largely Polish.
2. In 1920 a private Polish army simply took control of it.
3. Lithuania appealed for help. This was a crucial first “test case” for the League.
4. Both countries were members of the League.
5. The League protested to Poland but Poland did not withdraw “The League was now stuck.”
6. According to the Covenant it could have sent British and French troops to force the Poles out of Vilna – but it did not.
7. The French were not prepared to upset Poland because they saw it as a possible ally against Germany in future.
8. Britain was not prepared to act alone and send troops right to the other side of Europe.
9. In the end the League did nothing. The Poles kept Vilna.

### **Upper Silesia, (1921)**

2. Upper Silesia was an industrial region on the border between Germany and Poland.
3. It was inhabited by both German and Polish people.
4. Both Germany and Poland wanted control of it, partly because of its iron and steel industry.
5. In 1920 a plebiscite was organised for Silesians to vote on which country they wished to join.
6. French and British troops were sent to keep order at the polling booths.
7. The industrial areas voted mainly for Germany, the rural areas mainly for Poland.
8. The League therefore divided the region along these lines, but it built in many safeguards to prevent future disputes.
9. It safeguarded rail links between the two countries and made arrangements for water and power supplies from one side of the border to be supplied to the other. Both countries accepted the decision. (Success).

### **Aaland Island, 1921**

1. Both Sweden and Finland wanted control of the Aaland Islands, which were midway between the countries.
2. Both countries were threatening to fight for them and both appealed to the League.
3. After studying the matter closely, the League said the Islands should go to Finland. Sweden accepted the League’s ruling and war was avoided.

### **Corfu, 1923**

In 1923 five Italian soldiers were killed on Greek territory while mapping out the Albanian Greek border for the Conference of Ambassadors.

Mussolini, the Italian dictator, held the Greek government responsible and demanded huge compensation. The Island of Corfu was first shelled and then occupied by the Italians.

Greece appealed to the League against this obvious act of aggression.

The League handed the matter over to the Conference of Ambassadors and Greece was forced to pay up.

### **The Geneva Protocol**

The Corfu incident demonstrated how the League of Nations could be undermined by its own members.

Britain and France drew up the Geneva protocol in 1924, which said that if two members are in dispute they would have to ask the League to sort out the disagreement and they would have to accept the Council's decision.

They hoped this would strengthen the League. But before the plan could be put into effect there was a general election in Britain.

The new Conservative Government refused to sign the Protocol, worried that Britain would be forced to agree to something that was not in its own interests.

So the Protocol, which had been meant to strengthen the League in fact weakened it.

### **Bulgaria, 1925**

Two years after Corfu, the League was tested again.

In October 1925, Greek troops invaded Bulgaria after an incident on the border in which some Greek soldiers were killed.

Bulgaria appealed for help. It also sent instructions to its army.

The League condemned the Greek action. It ordered Greece to pull out and pay compensation to Bulgaria.

Faced with the disapproval of the major powers in the League, the Greeks obeyed, although they did complain that there seemed to be one rule for the large states (Such as Italy) and another for the smaller ones (Such as themselves).

### **Activity**

The main weaknesses of the League were its exclusion of the defeated powers. Do you agree?

### **Strength and Weaknesses**

<b>Strengths</b>	<b>Weaknesses</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The League had a clearly defined organisation on Covenant.</li> <li>- 24 Nations, including Britain and France, had joined the League.</li> <li>- There was a genuine mood of co-operation amongst the members</li> <li>- The league had the potential to impose damaging economic sanctions on aggressive</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The United States refused to join the League</li> <li>- Britain and France were not as powerful as they had once been.</li> <li>- The League had no armed forces of its own.</li> <li>- The membership was predominantly European and the shift towards countries like Japan and the USA had not been recognised</li> <li>- The most enthusiastic members were the</li> </ul>



<p>nations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The League would defend the interests of all Member Nations, not just the large ones</li> <li>- The aims of the League enjoyed widespread support.</li> <li>- The League was a revolutionary step forward in international relations, away from the old alliance system.</li> </ul> <p>The League undertook a wide range of humanitarian and economic activities.</p>	<p>smaller European countries, which could do little themselves to guarantee peace, but relied on peace for their own survival.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Certain countries – such as Germany – were hostile towards the whole peace settlement.</li> <li>- As historian Hugh Brogan puts it, the League “depended on the goodwill of the nations to work, though it was the absence of goodwill that made it necessary” Longman History of the USA (1985)</li> <li>- Britain’s government tried to make the obligations of the League less binding.</li> </ul>
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### Activity

What were the main achievements of the League of nations?

### The Changing Membership of the League

There were 24 original members. Important additions and departures included:

<b>Country</b>	<b>Date of Entry</b>	<b>Withdrawal</b>
Austria	December 1920	December 1939
Ethiopia	September 1923	
Germany	September 1926	October 1933
Ireland	September 1923	
Italy	Original Member	December 1937
Japan	Original Member	March 1933
Spain	Original Member	May 1939
USSR	September 1934	December 1939

- Declared to be no longer a member of the League, by Council Resolution, 14 December 1939.

### Early Successes of the League

**1920:** The Health organisation of the League organised medical assistance and the distribution of vaccines to combat the epidemics of typhus, cholera and dysentery which swept through Europe.

**1921:** A dispute arose between Sweden and Finland over the Aaland Island in the Baltic. The League ruled in favour of Finland and the Swedes accepted settlement in the face of international opinion.

**1925:** In October, Greek troops entered Bulgaria backed by their air force. Many Bulgarians were killed. The League halted the Greek invasion and ruled that Greece should pay an indemnity (compensation) to Bulgaria.

### **The Failures of the League**

The first 11 years of the League's life were a mix- up of some successes and failures. However, once it came up against large and aggressive powers, its basic weaknesses were ruthlessly exposed.

From 1931 onwards it went into a period of sharp decline, eventually ending in the disaster of the Second World War.

1. The Manchuria Crisis, 1931 – 1939 why did Japan invade Manchuria? The first major test for the League came when the Japanese invaded Manchuria in 1931. Since 1900, Japan's economy and population had been growing rapidly. By the 1920's Japan was a major power:
  - (a) It had a very powerful army and navy- army leaders often dictated government policy.
  - (b) It had a strong industry, exporting goods to the USA and China in particular.
  - (c) It had a growing empire which included the Korean peninsula.

### **Effect of the Depression**

The Depression hit Japan badly. Both China and the USA put up tariffs (trade barriers) against Japanese goods.

The collapse of the American market put the Japanese economy in crisis. Without this trade Japan could not feed its people.

Army leaders in Japan were in no doubt about the solution to Japan's problems – they wanted to build a Japanese Empire by force.

In 1931 an incident in Manchuria gave them the opportunity they had been looking for to expand the Japanese Empire.

The Japanese army controlled the South Manchurian Railway.

In September 1931 they claimed that Chinese soldiers had sabotaged the railway.

In retaliation they overran Manchuria and threw out all Chinese forces.

In February 1932 they set up a puppet government in Manchuria-or Manchukuo, as they called it -which did exactly what the Japanese army told it to do.

Later in 1932, Japanese aeroplanes and gun ships bombed Shanghai.

The civilian government in Japan told the Japanese army to withdraw, but its instructions were ignored.

It was clear that it was the army and not the government that was in control of Japanese foreign policy.

### **The response of the League**

China appealed to the League. Japan claimed it was not invading as an aggressor, but simply settling a local difficulty.

The Japanese argued that China was in such a state of anarchy that they had to invade in self-defence to keep peace in the area. For the League of Nations this was a serious test. Japan was a leading member of the League.

The League condemned the invasion and ordered Japan to withdraw its troops. When the Japanese refused to do this, the League sent a commission under Lord Lytton to investigate the affair (1932). It suggested that the League govern Manchuria.

Japan was unimpressed and left the League in 1933. To make its point even clearer, Japan invaded the rest of China in 1937. There was no discussion of sanctions during the crisis.

Britain and France were reluctant to risk a war with Japan. Without the USA, Japan's main trading partner, economic sanctions would be meaningless. Besides, Britain seemed more interested in keeping up good relations with Japan than in agreeing to sanctions.

### **How did Mussolini's invasion of Abyssinia damage the league?**

The fatal blow to the League came when the Italian dictator, Mussolini invaded Abyssinia, now Ethiopia, in 1935.

<b>Similarities with Japanese invasion of Manchuria</b>	<b>Differences from Japanese invasion of Manchuria</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Like Japan, Italy was a leading member of the league.</li> <li>- Like Japan, Italy wanted to expand its empire by invading another country</li> <li>- Like Japan, Italy was not provoked.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Unlike Manchuria, this dispute was in the League's doorstep.</li> <li>- Italy was a European power</li> <li>- Italy even had a border with France.</li> <li>- Abyssinia bordered on the Anglo- Egyptian territory of Sudan and the British colonies of Uganda, Kenya and British Somaliland. Unlike events in Manchuria, the league could not claim that this problem was in an accessible part of the world.</li> </ul>

### **Background**

The origins of this crisis lay back in the previous century.

In 1896 Italian troops had tried to invade Abyssinia but had been defeated by a poorly equipped army of tribesmen.

Mussolini wanted to revenge this humiliating defeat.

He also had his eye on the fertile lands and mineral wealth of Abyssinia. However, most importantly, he wanted glory and conquest. His style of leadership needed military victories and he had often talked of restoring the glory of the Roman Empire.

Mussolini had watched Japan flout the authority of the League and get away with it. He now felt that it was now time for Italy to claim its rights as a great power.

NB: The League once again faced an unprovoked act of aggression by the Italians as their troops poured across the border from Italian Somaliland.

### **The League's response**

Within a week economic sanctions had been imposed on Italy but the sanctions did not extend to oil, steel and coal.

These were the very materials Italy needed for a successful conquest.

The Soviet Union and Rumania both called for an oil embargo or blockade on Italy but Britain and France would not agree. This was despite the fact that Britain was placed to take effective measures against the Italians but she even allowed the use of the Suez Canal to transport war materials.

Britain and France actually tried to work out a solution behind the back of the League.

### **Anglo – French Pact**

The British Foreign Minister, Hoare and the French Prime Minister Laval agreed that Italy could control two-thirds of Abyssinia, Haile Selassie, a thin strip of land.

NB: When Mussolini launched his attack, Haile Selassie fled with his family and made his way to Geneva, where he appealed to the conscience of the world to save his country:

“It is my duty to inform the governments of the deadly peril which threatens them.----- It is a question of trust in international treaties and of the value of promises to small states that their integrity shall be respected. In a word, it is international morality that is at stake--- Apart from the Kingdom of God, there is no other nation on this earth that is higher than any other ---- God and history will remember your judgement.” What is Democracy? Presented by United States Information Service, Salisbury (1955).

The world denounced the Anglo- French plan. Hoare and Laval were forced out of office and Mussolini rejected the proposal anyway. He wanted all of Abyssinia.

In 1936 Haile Selassie appealed to the League of Nations for Assistance with words which were to prove so justified three years later.

Britain and France were desperately keen not to lose Italy’s support against Germany but the unity of the Stresa Front had already crumbled.

Nonetheless, the sanctions, feeble as they were, were enough to anger Mussolini.

The fact that Germany had refused to impose any sanctions at all brought the two dictators (Hitler and Mussolini) together in the Rome-Berlin Axis of 1936.

### **Why the League failed**

- 1) The absence of the United States crippled the league-it lacked the leadership and authority of the world’s greatest power.
- 2) Britain and France were more interested in making deals which by-passed the League.
- 3) Britain and France were reluctant to use their power to make the organisation stronger, afraid that they would be faced with a decision which they did not agree to.
- 4) Other great powers played little part in the League.
- 5) Germany was not allowed to join until 1926 and she left in 1933 when the World Disarmament Conference, set up by the League collapsed, (refer to previous table on weaknesses and strengths).

### **Examinaton type questions**

1(a)Name countries which joined the League at its formation.

[5]

b) Describe the structural organisation of the League.

[12]

c) Were the different organs of the League successful in performing the duties they were set for? [8]

2.(a) State any five failures of the League. [5]

(b) Describe the strengths and weaknesses of the League. [12]

(c) To what extent were the weaknesses of the League responsible for its failures. [8]

3.(a) State any five territorial problems solved by the League. [5]

(b) Describe the successes of the League in conflict resolution. [12]

(c) To what extent was the League successful in achieving the aims it was set for? [8]

4a) State any five factors which led to the fall of the League. [5]

a) Describe the Manchurian crisis and the Abyssinian crisis. [12]

b) Why did the League fail to take action against Japan and Italy in these crises? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 23**

### **THE WEIMAR REPUBLIC**

#### **Chapter objectives**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Discuss the political, social and economic problems faced by German after 1919
- b) Outline the factors leading to the formation of a republic.
- c) Explain the rise of Hitler.
- d) Explain the successes/failures of Hitlers' foreign and domestic policies.

#### **Germany's Problems**

1. Germany was a beaten nation by November 1918.
  - Her armies were on full retreat
  - Her navy was in mutiny
  - Her population was starving (British blockade) and rioting in streets
  - The Kaiser, William II, abdicated the throne on 9 November.
  - A civilian government was allowed to take over on the advice of General Hindenburg and Ludendorff.

#### **Why a civilian government?**

- They new that the war was lost
- Maybe, they calculated, a republican government would get better terms from the allies
- The army would not be humiliated by having to sue for peace
- That task was left to Philipp Scheidmann, the leader of the socialists.

#### **The Civilian Government (1918 – 1933)**

- The new government was getting off to a bad start
- They had been "set up"

1918 November 11: The armistice was signed. The First World War was over but Germany's problems were just beginning.

1919 January: The German people elected an Assembly whose job was to draw up a constitution for the new republic.

1. Germany's parliament, the Reichstag, was to be elected by proportional representation (refer to Italy before the rise of Mussolini).
2. A President was also to be elected who would have the power to appoint and dismiss the Chancellor or Prime Minister.
3. He could also govern by decree in an emergency – meaning that he could pass laws without Parliament approval.
4. Friedrich Ebert, a socialist, became the first President of the Republic.
5. Although he was a socialist, Ebert was not a revolutionary. He believed in the parliamentary system.

## **The Problems**

### **The Spartacists: The Threat from the left**

1. This was a group which did not believe in the parliamentary system.
2. They were led by Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg
3. The group was named after the leader of a slave rebellion against Rome Spartacus.
4. The Spartacists wanted a communist style revolution like the one in Russia.
5. In January 1919, the Spartacists staged a rebellion in Berlin against the new government.

### **The Freikorps**

6. The rising was over after being put down with great ferocity by the Freikorps.
7. The Freikorps was an organisation of ex-service (ex-combatants) opposed to communism.
8. On 15 January Luxemburg and Liebknecht were hunted down and murdered.
9. Rosa Luxemburg's badly beaten body was thrown into a canal.

NB: Despite the opposition, in January 1919, free elections took place for the first time in Germany's history. Ebert's party won a majority and he became the President of the Republic. The Weimar Constitution of the German Empire, August 1919.

### **Activity**

What economic problems were encountered by Germany between 1914-1923

### **The Weimar Republic**

- The new republic was set up in February 1919, at Weimar because there was violence in Berlin.
- Friedrich Ebert was the first President of the Weimar Republic.
- Scheidemann was the first Chancellor.
- The Chancellor was responsible for the day-to-day running of the government but he had to have the support of half the Reichstag.
- The President was the Head of the State. The President was not involved in the day-to-day running of the government. In a crisis he could rule the country directly through emergency powers which meant he did not have to consult the Reichstag.

**Reichstag** – Was the German parliament.

Reichstag was elected by proportional representation.

Proportional representation is where the number of seats a party wins in parliament is worked out as a proportion of the number of votes they win.

- This was the system in Germany and it often led to lots of political parties in the Reichstag.
- The leader of the largest party in Reichstag appoints a Chancellor.
- The President was elected after every 7 years.

## **Problems of the Weimar Republic**

- i) It was difficult to make decisions because there were so many parties in the Reichstag.
- ii) It was hard to pick a chancellor who had the support of most of the Reichstag.
- iii) People hated the new government because it accepted the Treaty of Versailles.
- iv) There were many outbreaks of revolts and rebellions.

## **Revolts and Rebellion (1919 – 1923)**

From the onset, Ebert's government faced violent opposition from both left – wing and right – wing opponents.

**Left wing** – refers to people who want to change things often through extreme measures.

**Right wing** – refers to people who want things to stay the same, or even get stricter.

- i) In 1919, the communists led by Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg tried to take over Berlin in the Spartacist revolt but they were defeated by the Freikorps. The communist argued strongly against Ebert's plans for a democratic Germany. They wanted a Germany ruled by workers' councils or soviets.
- ii) **In 1920** Dr Wolfgang Kapp led 5 000 Freikorps into Berlin in a rebellion known as the Kapp Putsch (Putsch simply means rebellion). The workers staged a General Strike – Kapp gave up. The Government didn't give up. The Government didn't punish the rebels, because many judges sympathized with people like Kapp.
  - In 1920 there was more communist's agitation in the Ruhr Industrial area. Again police, army and Freikorps clashed with communists. There were 2 000 casualties.
  - Despite these defeats, the communists remained a powerful anti- government force in Germany throughout the 1920's.
- iii) **Munich Putsch** – 1923 in November the Right Wing Nationalists called the National Socialist German workers' Party (Nazis) tried to take over the Bavarian Government. They were led by Adolf Hitler and General Ludendorff. They were defeated and Hitler went to prison for just nine months. Ludendorff was let off and people forgot the Nazis.

## **Economic Disaster**

**Hyperinflation** - happens when production can't keep up with the amount of money available so the money keeps losing its value.

The Treaty of Versailles destabilized Germany both politically and economically. The Germans were supposed to pay £6 600 million in reparations. They had to pay this money in annual installments. The first installment of 50 million was paid in 1921 but in 1922 nothing was paid. In January 1923 the French and Belgian troops entered the Ruhr and began to take what was owed them in the form of raw materials and goods. The results of the occupation of the Ruhr were disastrous for Germany.



Because it had no goods to trade with the government simply printed money. Hyperinflation set in, workers needed wheelbarrows to carry home their wages. Wages began to be paid daily instead of weekly.

### **The price of an egg in Germany during the time of Hyperinflation**

Egg 1918	Aug 1923	Nov 1923
¼ Deuchmark	5 000 Deuchmark	80 million Deuchmark

### **Results of the hyperinflation**

- 1) Prices went up regularly.
- 2) The middle classes lost out as Bank savings became worthless.
- 3) The German mark became worthless.

### **The Weimar Republic under stressmann**

#### **Gustav Stessmann (1923 – 1929)**

- He became Germany Chancellor in August 1923.
- He gradually led Germany back to recovery.
- Stressmann was a more skilful politician than Ebert and as a right winger, he had wider support.
- He was also helped by the fact that through the 1920's the rest of Europe was gradually coming out of its post – war depression. Under the DAWES PLAN reparations payments were spread over a long period, and loans from the USA poured into German Industry. By 1927, German Industry seemed to have recovered very well and exports were on the increase.

**The Locano Treaty** – Stressmann signed the Locarno Treaty in 1925. Through this treaty he guaranteed that he would not try to change Germany's Western borders with France and Belgium. As a result in 1926, Germany was accepted into the League of Nations.

In 1929 Stressmann negotiated the Young Plan which further lightened the reparations burdens on Germany. The plan also led to the Evacuation of the Rhineland by British, French and Belgian troops.

NB: In 1925 Stressmann won the Nobel Peace Prize for his efforts.

- Despite successes during this period there were problems too.
- Unemployment was rising and the government was spending a fortune on welfare and health care.
- There was also the worry that growth was based on loans from America rather than investment by Germans.
- Stressmann's foreign policy also upset right – wing extremists like the Nazis. They felt that by joining the League of Nations he was betraying Germany because the league pledged to support the hated Treaty of Versailles.

NB: Stressmann died in October 1929 just before the disaster of the Wall Street crash. The death of Stressmann, coupled with the Great Depression, spelt disaster for Germany.

- The Plans he had agreed would only work if the USA had enough money to keep lending to Germany but now it didn't. Things were suddenly going to get worse again.

### Activity

Discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the Weimar Republic

### Germany 1930 – 32: A state of confusion

Weaknesses in the Weimar system of government:

- The Weimar Republic had been deliberately set up to be as democratic as possible. It aimed to make sure different interests had a say. Unfortunately, its day- to- day running was riddled with problems. The system was so balanced that it was difficult for one group to govern effectively.
- After 1929, nobody seemed able to solve the problem of unemployment by democratic means. The President began to rely heavily on his emergency powers.

Chancellor Hienrich Bruning couldn't control the Reichstag properly – there was a big increase in seats for both the Nazis (107) and the communists (77).

By April 1932, conditions were worse in Germany. Over 5 million people were unemployed. President Hindenburg had to stand for re- election because his term of office had run out. Hitler stood against him and there was also a communist candidate. Hindenburg failed to win a majority in the first election but in the second ballot he won 53% and Hitler won 36.8% of the vote.

NB: Hitler was finally offered chancellorship in 1933. This marked the end of the Weimar Republic and the beginning of Nazism in Germany.

### Hitler's domestic policy

#### Why did the Nazis succeed in elections?

The strength of the communists in the early 1930,s paradoxically helped the Nazi's to succeed.

- German businessmen were particularly afraid of the communists.
- Industrialists and landowners of all kinds from peasant farmers, were too rich. Landlords shared the fear that a communist government would take away their land or nationalize their industries.
- The Nazi were strongly opposed to communism and as a result, industrialists began to back the Nazi's financially.
- They were worried about the growing power of German trade unions and wanted a government that would control them, not support them.
- Germany's middle classes hoped a strong Nazi government would prevent a repeat of 1923 which had ruined them.
- Many ex- servicemen had always supported the Nazi's attracted by their commitment to rearmament.
- Many of the unemployed summed the Nazi as the party which could actually do something about unemployment.
- Hitler also used his personal power and ability to speak to the public.
- Under Goebbels, Hitler spoke brilliantly at huge rallies, whipping the crowds into hysteria.

- Using films, radio and records, he brought his message to millions.
- Hitler was seen as the leader of a modern party with modern ideas.
- The Nazi also gathered support in other ways.
- Unemployed workers were given food and shelter in Nazi hostels and then became part of the Nazi's private army (the SA).
- The SA were better organized and usually had the support of the police and army when they beat up opponents and disrupted communist meetings and rallies.

### **Factors which helped Hitler to come to power: Summary**

#### **Nazi strengths**

- i) Hitler's speaking skills.
- ii) Propaganda campaigns
- iii) Violent treatment of their opposition.
- iv) Their criticism of the Weimar system of government.
- v) Nazi Policies.
- vi) Support from big business.

#### **Opposition weaknesses**

- i) Failure to deal with the Depression.
- ii) Failure to co-operate with one another.
- iii) Attitudes of Germans to the democratic parties.

#### **Other factors**

- i) Weaknesses of the Weimar Republic.
- ii) Scheming of Hindenburg and Von Papen.
- iii) The impact of the Depression.
- iv) The Treaty of Versailles.
- v) Memories of the problems of 1923.

### **Dictatorship in Germany**

- i. Laws were changed to keep control.
- ii. The Nazis won 288 seats but no majority – the communists still won 81.
- iii. Hitler declared the communists party illegal.
- iv. This gave him support in Parliament to bring in an Enabling Bill which was passed with threats and bargaining in March 1933.
- v. This Bill let him govern for four years without parliament and he made all other parties illegal.

### **The night of the long knives**

- Shortly after getting into power, Hitler banned trade unions and imprisoned their leaders. Within a very short time any opponents (or potential opponents) of the Nazi had either left Germany or had been taken to special concentrating camps run by the SS. Other political parties were banned.
- Hitler however still had opposition.

- The biggest threat was Ernst Rohm who controlled the SA (over 400,000 men).
- On 30 June 1934, Hitler sent his own men to arrest Rohm and others.
- Several hundred people were killed, including SA Officers and Von Schleicher. Rohm was shot the next day, the SA had been destroyed and a month later when Hindenburg died, Hitler combined the posts of chancellor and President. He made himself Commander – in- chief of the army and was called Der Fuhrer (the leader) Democracy was dead.

**The Gestapo** The “Night of the Long knives” left nobody to challenge Hitler. His rivals were now dead or safely locked up. He set up a secret police force called the Gestapo to make sure things stayed like this. The Gestapo had spies everywhere – in shops, in factories in blocks of flats, even in schools. A word against Hitler or the Nazis meant instant arrest. Thousands of people disappeared behind the barbed – wire fences of special prisons called concentration camps. Many were never heard of again.

### **Activity**

Why was Hitler able to take over power in Germany in 1924.

### **Goebbels and propaganda**

Most Germans supported Hitler’s rule because of clever publicity or propaganda masterminded by Joseph (Josef) Goebbels. Goebbel’s job was to see that newspapers, magazines, films and the radio all hammered home the same simple message- that Adolf Hitler was Germany’s saviour, a superman who could do no wrong.

Goebbel’s propaganda was brilliantly convincing. Millions of Germans believed every word of it. Hitler the ordinary man, became the Fuehrer – the leader.

All teachers had to belong to the National socialist Teacher’s league, and all schools taught that Germans were a superior race to any other. Textbooks were re-written to include subjects like Race, studies and the Nazi version of history. Goebbels had the support of the SS, formed in 1925 as a personal force for Hitler and the leading Nazis. After 1934 it grew in power.

### **Hitler gave work to 6 million unemployed**

Hitler introduced a Public, Works programme which gave jobs to thousands of people. In less than four years Hitler cut the number of people out of work from six million to under one million. He took many men into his growing army. He put thousands more to work in factories making tanks and aeroplanes. From 1933, huge motorways called AUTOBAHNS were built across Germany. In return for steady jobs, most Germans were ready to turn a blind eye to the concentration camps and other unpleasant sides of Hitler’s rule. All men between 18 and 25 could be recruited in the National Labour service and given jobs.

Instead of Trade Unions, workers joined the labour Front, where they would not be allowed to go on strike but had higher wages than before. The Nazis introduced the “strength through joy” idea – good workers were awarded prizes, like holidays. The Nazi also introduced the Volkswagen (the people’s car) as an ambition for people to aim for.

### **The Jews and the Nuremberg laws (1935)**

Just to be a Jew was a crime in Hitler’s Germany. Their synagogues or churches were burned down. Customers were not allowed to buy from Jewish shops. Jews in Germany during Hitler’s reign could not hold government jobs or work as lawyers, doctors or teachers. The

unjust laws against Jews were called Nuremberg Laws named after the city where Hitler announced them in 1935. Thousands of Jews gave up everything and fled from Germany in fear of their lives. Millions who stayed were finally herded into Nazi concentration camps. In the concentration camps they were later murdered in cold blood – men, women, children, even babies.

Hitler always claimed the Jews were responsible for many Germany problems. This is the reason why the Nuremberg Laws were passed in 1935.

### **Children under Hitler**

At ten years old, all children were expected to join the Jung volk (young people). Boys joined the Hitler Youth and girls joined the League of German Maidens. They were taught to support Hitler, even informing on their parents if necessary.

NB: The job of girls and women was to make families and to support their men in making Germany great.

### **Activity**

- a) To what extent did Hitler's foreign policy earn his fame in Germany and create enemies abroad?
- b) Account for the fall of the Weimar Republic

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State five problems faced by the Weimar Republic after 1919. [5]
- (b) Describe the socio economic problems inherited by the Weimar Republic when it assumed power in 1919. [12]
- (c) To what extent were these problems a result of the First World War. [8]
  
- 2(a) List the five economic problems of the Weimar Republic. [5]
- (b) Describe measures introduced by the Weimar Republic to solve the economic problems they were facing. [12]
- (c) How effective were these measures in solving the economic problems which the nation was facing? [8]
  
- 3(a) Identify five steps taken by Hitler to rise to power. [5]
- (b) Describe Hitler's rise and consolidation of power. [12]
- (c) To what extent were Hitler's personal characteristics responsible for his rised power? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 24**

### **THE RISE OF MUSSOLINI: ITALY**

#### **Chapter objectives:**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Outline the characteristics of Fascism
- b) Explain the Rise of Mussolini
- c) Explain Mussolini's domestic reforms
- d) Critically examine Italian foreign policy and its contribution to war in 1939.

#### **Who was Benito Mussolini?**

1. Mussolini was the son of a socialist blacksmith and a schoolmistress. This means he had a comfortable life.
2. However, like Hitler, Mussolini liked to exaggerate the poverty of his youth.
3. As a boy, Mussolini was an unruly child. He had a violent and bullying nature and was expelled from one school for stabbing a fellow pupil with a penknife.
4. As a young man, he became a revolutionary socialist and spent most of his time in Switzerland avoiding the Swiss police and hard work.
5. In 1912, at the age of 29, he became editor of the socialist daily, Avanti but was later expelled from the Socialist Party for urging Italy to join the war against Italy's old enemy, Austria.
6. He set up his own "socialist" paper Il Popolo d' Italia ("the Italian People") and called for Italy's entry into the war.
7. He was given money by big businesses and Allied governments who were anxious to get Italy into the war.
8. When war was declared in May 1915 he described it as "Italy's baptism as a great power."
9. He was conscripted in September and later invalided out of the army after a grenade explosion during a training exercise.
10. The end of the war left Mussolini more determined than ever to make a name for himself.
11. He hated Italy's parliamentary politicians and its democratic government and his mood became more and more violent.

#### **Italy after World War I**

##### **Problems in 1919**

1. The treaties with Germany and Austria left Italy angry and frustrated.
2. Though Italy was given the South Tyrol, Istria and Trieste as promised by the Entente in 1915, President Wilson refused to allow the handing over of Dalmatian and several Aegean Islands as there were no Italians living there.
3. Italy also laid claim to the town of Fiume – though she had not been promised that.
4. Angry Nationalism:  
Mussolini was quick to realize that this sense of angry nationalism could help him to rise to power if he could control it.
5. The seizure of Fiume:  
In September 1919 a poet and war hero, D. Annunzio, showed the way when he and his 2 600 "Legionaries" seized the two territories. It was not until 16 months later that the Italian government was able to drive him from the city.
6. The Treaty of Rapallo, 1922:

Powers: Italy and Yugoslavia.

### **Terms**

NB: In 1924, the City was eventually given to Italy.

### **Other problems: Economic and Social**

7. Most Italians were very concerned about Italy's economic situation.
8. In the South there was extreme poverty. Most of the population were landless peasants, scratching a living from its infertile soil.
9. The north was more industrialized but there was just as much anger.
10. Prices had risen sharply (560%) between 1914 and 1921) and unemployment was increasing.
11. The socialists organized 2000 strikes in 1920 and 280 factory occupations in Milan in 1919 alone.
12. The socialists seemed about to launch a Bolshevik style Communist take-over of the country.
13. Big firms like Fiat and Pirelli looked desperately for someone to crush this threat.
14. In the south, the peasants began seizing land and the landowners were convinced that revolution was about to swamp the country.

### **Political instability**

#### **Proportional representation**

The government could do nothing because of the constitutional crisis.

Proportional representation system meant that no single party could ever govern on its own.

Proportional representation meant that if, for example a party got 5% of the votes then it would get 5% of the seats in parliament.

This encouraged the setting up of many parties with the result that no one party could ever hope to win an outright majority of 51% of the seats.

### **Coalition Governments**

Governments had to be formed with groups of parties together – that is coalition governments.

This was done to make sure they had the support of more than half of the MPs or deputies.

The problem was that the parties in the coalition often quarrelled; with the result that government had to resign. Between 1919 and 1922, Italy had five different coalition governments, none of which was able to make firm decisions.

### **Mussolini's Combat Squads**

1919: Mussolini founded his own political movement, the Fasci di Combattimento in Milan in March.

The radical party programme did not instantly capture the public's imagination.

In the 1919, elections they did not win a single seat and socialists mockingly burnt an effigy of Fascism.

The newspaper (Il Popolo d' Italia) rather than the Fasci, kept Mussolini in the political spotlight.

In 1919, the movement had only 870 members.

## **1920 – 1921**

The turning point came towards the end of 1920 with establishment of paramilitary armed squads or “squadristo”.

These squads took violent action against both striking urban workers and rural socialist labour leagues.

Meanwhile, in another temporary change of stance, Mussolini began preparing Fascism for a parliamentary campaign.

In the summer of 1921 he took the risk of publicly approving a pact of Pacification with the socialists.

This showed Mussolini’s flexibility and his desire to create an aura or image of respectability.

The move was soon abandoned and emphasis returned to the Squadristo movement.

In October 1921, Mussolini formed the Fascist Party and by the end of the year the party had more than 201 000 members and 35 parliamentary deputies.

### **Composition of the Fascist Party**

It consisted of many angry soldiers, spoiling for a fight. He let them loose on the workers and peasants. These “Combat Squads” clubbed their victims – often to death – or forced them to drink castor oil which made them violently sick.

Some victims were forced to eat live toads.

### **Capitalist Support**

Mussolini’s support from wealthy industrialists and landowners because he had proved to be their ally by his attack on Socialists and trade Unionists.

The Capitalists showed their gratitude with huge sums of money – the banks alone handed over £ 1½ million.

The liberal Prime Minister Giolitti, was also impressed and in 1921 he asked Mussolini to join the government of the election group.

This made the Fascists even more respectable among the wealthy and those anxious for Law and order, at any price.

Mussolini won 35 seats as opposed to none in 1919. He also stopped making anti- catholic speeches and gave up his anti- monarchy views.

The King, Victor Emmanuel III, became more sympathetic as did the Pope, Pius, XI, to the movement.

Here, it seemed, was a man who would save Italy from the twin evils of Communism and Godlessness.

### **Activity**

Describe the factors that enabled Mussolin’s rise to power

## **1922: “The March on Rome”**



1. By 1922 the government was relying increasingly on the Fascists to Combat left – wing unrest.
2. In particular, the Fascists played a key role in combatting the Socialist general strike of July 31.
3. By the Autumn, Mussolini was exerting growing pressure on the ruling elite to acknowledge his role by formally handing him a substantial degree of political authority, even though his electoral backing was not so spectacular.
4. In early October Mussolini was insisting on significant Cabinet representation and in the middle of the month, was insisting on becoming Prime Minister.
5. Mussolini’s preparations for power reached a pitch at a mass rally of 40 000 Fascists in Naples on 24 October. It was now that the preparations were finalised for the March on Rome.
6. By now Mussolini’s party had a membership of 320 000 – at least 50 000 of these were members of his terror gang of thugs: the Blackshirts.

**Mussolini’s response to Socialism and the newly formed Communist Party general strike (August)**

1. It gave him the opportunity to exercise his “talents.”
2. In Milan the Fascists took over the public services and made sure everything carried on as a normal strike.
3. The strike was later called “the Caporetto of Italian Socialism” – i.e. defeat of Italian socialism.

NB: Caporetto was the Twelfth Battle of Isonzo, where Italian forces were forced to retreat by the Austro - German counter -offensive during World War I.

4. Mussolini took this as an opportunity to make his demands.
  - (i) He demanded to be made Prime Minister.
  - (ii) He assembled 50 000 Blackshirts in Florence, ready to march on Rome and seize power if necessary.
5. Facta, another new Prime Minister asked the King for special powers to deal with the threat.
6. Victor Emmanuel was a small and rather weak man.
  - (i) He knew the army could stop Mussolini’s badly equipped and trained rabble but was scared of a civil war.
  - (ii) Reports were arriving that the Fascists had seized control of several cities.
  - (iii) He feared for his position, for he could be overthrown and replaced by his more dashing cousin, the Duke of Aosta or even a victorious Mussolini.
  - (iv) He refused to give Facta the authority to use Rome’s 12 000 regular troops against the Blackshirts.
  - (v) Instead, on 29 October 1922, he asked Mussolini to become Italy’s new Prime Minister.
7. Mussolini arrived in Rome by train to be followed by thousands of his joyous supporters. He had taken power quite legally, having only threatened to use force.

**Comments:**

1. Fascist historian, later pretended that the “March on Rome” had been a glorious and revolutionary act of violence to seize power.
2. The point was that Mussolini was now in control.

3. He had built a party and inspired a large part of the nation with stirring speeches, a return to the old glories of the Roman Empire.
4. Italy would acquire the empire she deserved, national pride would be restored and the Mediterranean would become an Italian lake.
5. Mussolini was anxious that Fascism be seen as a continuation of ancient Rome.

NB: The symbol of power in Rome had been a bundle of rods bound round an axe. The Fascists had adopted it as their symbol as well.

### **How Mussolini consolidated his power**

#### **Domestic Policy**

1. Mussolini's reforms were determined by the limitations put in place by the political order.
2. His measures were also controlled by the history and character of his own movement.
3. Mussolini was eventually used by his organisation.
4. After the parade past the royal palace, the Blackshirts were placed on special trains and packed off back to their home towns.
5. Mussolini quickly fell into line and came to terms with the established order.

#### **Mussolini's Cabinet (the so- called "National Government")**

1. It included himself and three Fascists in key posts.
2. It also included four liberals.
3. Two Popolari.
4. Three eminent individuals:
  - (i) The Philosopher Gentile in Education
  - (ii) Marshal Diaz at the War Ministry
  - (iii) Admiral Revel at the Admiralty.

#### **Mussolini's reforms before dictatorship**

- 1) The Cabinet immediately announced a moderate economic policy.
- 2) It publicly adopted a return to Law and order and normalisation.
- 3) It seemed to support the accepted motion that Mussolini's radical days were over.
- 4) Mussolini seemed to have been absorbed by the state.

#### **Key Incidents and policies of Mussolini's rule**

1. The establishment of a totalitarian regime.
2. The Fascist Characteristics of the Government.
3. Mussolini's personal rule (dictatorship).
4. Success or failure of Mussolini's policies.

#### **The Fascist Militia: (January 1923)**

1. Mussolini dissolved the "Combat Squads" after the March on Rome.
2. He was accused by his followers or supporters of betrayal.
3. The Fascist revolution was also said to be stillborn.

4. Mussolini established the Fascist Militia (MVSN) to try and counter critics from within his own party.
5. He brought the wilder elements of the Fascist Movement under firmer, central control.
6. The Militia was funded by public money and its members were usually party members, normally ex- squadristi.
7. The new organisation (Militia) was directly responsible to Mussolini, - in effect it became a private army.
8. The Militia fulfilled Mussolini's objective to resist the local independence of the troublesome Ras and curb the excesses of more extremist members.
9. In practice, the function of the Militia was to give the movement military presence: Militia members provided a body guard for Mussolini, paraded at public ceremonies and guarded public buildings.
10. Tactically, Mussolini had given the squadristic visible rewards while denying them real importance.

### **The Acerb Electoral Law (1923)**

2. Italy did not become a dictatorship straight away.
3. Mussolini moved cautiously.
4. His government contained politicians from all the main parties except the Socialists and communists.
5. Mussolini's parliamentary representation remained small despite his new status as Prime Minister. For example, in April 1923, the fascists had only 7 per cent of the seats.
6. In April 1923 the PP1 Congress debated whether to remain in Mussolini's government and Mussolini responded by dismissing the Popolari (Popular Party) ministers. This was in spite of the fact that it placed the government's parliamentary majority in jeopardy.

### **7. Mussolini's Plan**

A permanent parliamentary majority.

- (i) In 1923 the Acerbo Law was passed.
- (ii) Mussolini was fortunate because few people regarded the existing parliamentary system as satisfactory.
- (iii) As a result, his proposals for a "corrected" parliamentary system were passed without resistance.
- (iv) The new system meant that the party with the largest number of votes – providing that amounted to at least 25% of the valid votes cast – would automatically receive at least two-thirds of the parliamentary seats – that is 66% of the seats.

### **8. April 1924 Elections**

The elections exposed the real purpose of the bill. The government "bloc" of Fascists, former nationalists, Agrarians and Right Wing Liberals won 66.3% of the valid votes.

### **Fascist tactics**

The Blackshirts set about their acts of brutality against their opponents and with Mussolini's promise of strong but not extreme government, the Fascists won-over moderate middle class people.

Mussolini had achieved his objective, a fact which is underlined by the low level of support for the Popolari (Popular Party), 95%, the reformist socialists (5.9%) and the communalists (3.8%).

### **The Matteotti Crisis (1924)**

1. The kidnapping and murder of the most vigorous opponent of Mussolini, the socialist leader Giacomo Matteotti, in June, created a crisis for the "Duce" (Leader) – as Mussolini now liked to be known.
2. Matteotti had diminished Mussolini's personal satisfaction at his success in the April 1924 elections.
3. Matteotti had made an outspoken speech in parliament condemning the elections as a sham based on corruption and intimidation.
4. To add to Mussolini's discomfort, it was also murmured that Matteotti had a dossier containing details of Fascist corruption.
5. Mussolini was furious and made several comments to the effect that Matteotti should be taught a lesson.
6. There was an outburst of protest against the murder throughout Italy.
7. Mussolini may not have actually ordered the murder, but if he condemned it, he risked losing the respect of his own more violent supporters – he could well have found himself overthrown.
8. If he took responsibility of the association and refused to punish the murderers, then he would make it clear what Fascism really stood for: thuggery and dictatorship.
9. Effects/ Results
  - (i) Mussolini hesitated
  - (ii) Support for Fascism began to dwindle away.
  - (iii) The opposition socialist and popular party MPS withdrew from parliament, leaving behind only the Fascists and a few conservatives.
  - (iv) It has been estimated that the Fascist newspapers at this time had only 300 000 readers, compared to the 4 million readers of the opposition liberal press.
  - (v) On 31 December 1924, 50 Blackshirts burst into Mussolini's office and told him to act decisively and set up dictatorship or they would remove him from power.
  - (vi) On 3 January 1925, Mussolini told Parliament that if fascism was an association of thugs then he was its patron. There was to be no apology or regret for Matteotti's death.

### **The shift towards authoritarianism (1925)**

1. Mussolini's speech of 3 January marked a significant change in the regime's direction.
2. To satisfy the conservatives, Mussolini repeated his claim that his government had always acted in the best interests of peace and normality. After all, in the last few months the,

- (i) Militia had taken an oath of loyalty to the king
  - (ii) Normal economic policies had been maintained
  - (iii) A democratic election had been held, based on Mussolini's own electoral reforms
3. Mussolini claimed, although he had been accused of terrible crimes, it was the opposition – with their unconstitutional and revolutionary act of secession – who had acted illegally.
  4. Once again, Mussolini went to great lengths to deny any connection with the murder of Matteotti.
  5. Instead he condemned the press for the “slandorous fabrications” which they had published against him.
  6. However, the key section of the speech successfully demonstrated to Mussolini's followers that while he continued to deny the murder of Matteotti, he was prepared to accept responsibility for Fascist policies in general. His words:

“I now accept, I alone, full political and moral and historical responsibility for what has happened.... if Fascism has been a criminal association, then I am the chief of this criminal association.”

7. Mussolini intended to take steps to curb the freedom of the press and to restrict the activities of the opposition parties.
8. Finally, the advent of this dynamic, “story state”, meant that government forces – rather than the Ras and the Militia – would be deployed to crush the opposition.
9. This measure was designed to satisfy Mussolini's conservative (inflexible) supporters who had been concerned that it was his intention to unleash the combat squads.
10. Action against the press swiftly came after the January 3speech.
11. Censorship of the press was stepped up and newspapers which had given particular offence to Mussolini were seized.
12. Important independent editors, such as Luigi Albertini and Senator Frassati were simply replaced by more complement journalists.
13. State control became even stronger with the introduction of the Press Law in December 1925-This enforced a closed shop, stating that only registered journalists-could write fro the press.
14. On a more personal level, Mussolini (still a journalist at heart) personally scrutinised the papers every day.
15. By 1926, even party newspapers such as the Socialists Avanti! And the Communist L'Unita had little influence due to censorship.
16. In October 1925, Matteotti's party- the PSU was banned completely.
17. In January 1926, the Popular (Popolari) deputies receiving no support from the Vatican, attempted to return to parliament but were driven out by Fascists.
18. Nationalists and Right-Wing Liberals had offered complete support for Fascists.
19. An assassination attempt on Mussolini on 3 October 1926, resulted in the suppression of all opposition parties.
20. Reconstitution of the opposition parties was forbidden by the “Law for the defence of State”.
21.
  - (i) Pass points were withdrawn.
  - (ii) A “special tribunal” was set up to repress anti-Fascist activity.
  - (iii) It was also declared that all opposition deputies had their electoral mandate expired.

- (iv) The opposition deputies lost their parliamentary immunity.
22. The king's passivity, the importance of the opposition parties and Mussolini's skilful control of his won extremists, meant that by 1925 Italy had become, to some extent, a totalitarian state.

To quote Mussolini's words; this would mean:

“Everything within the state, nothing outside the State, nothing against the state”

This was achieved especially by a new secret policy OVRA (a meaningless title!)

### **Features of fascism**

You have come across the word “Fascist” a great deal in the last chapter.

From its use you will have realised that it stood for some principles like: -

- (i) Anti-Communism and
- (ii) For Nationalism

Fascism, as a political ideology, was vague but its vagueness was actually one reason for success. Mussolini actually “made up” Fascism as he went along.

He adopted these policies that seemed best in the circumstances.

The basic elements or features of Fascism were as follows: -

#### **1. Extreme Nationalism**

- (a) Mussolini wanted to restore Italy to what he believed was its former glories under the ancient Romans.
- (b) He was determined to prove Italy's superiority to other “inferior” races and establish an empire in Africa as symbol of that greatness.
  - \* Racism emerged from this extreme nationalism.

#### **2. Dictatorship**

- (a) Mussolini believed that democracy made nations weak and soft.
- (b) Only a firm ruler in total control could provide the necessary leadership – that man was the “Duce”.

#### **3. Economic Self-Sufficiency (autarky)**

- (a) The country had to develop its resources and depend as little as possible on imports.
- (b) The economy although still owned by private individuals, had to be directed by the government in the interests of the nation.
  - \*

### **Military Strength and War**

- (c) Mussolini had declared that “war is to the male what childbearing is to the female,” hence normal.
- (d) He believed that success in war was the only time test of a nation’s greatness.
- (e) He devoted much of Italy’s slender resources to building up Italy’s armed forces and making Italians more “warlike”.

### **Followers of Fascism**

- (i) All classes of Italians
- (ii) The military (i.e. (Mussolini’s imperial ambitions)
- (iii) The wealthy landowners and businessmen (promised to protect them from the competition of the big firms.)

- NB:**
- (i) It is time to say that Mussolini’s rule was nowhere near as cruel and as such brutal as Hitler’s Germany.
  - (ii) There were no concentration camps.
  - (iii) Only 10 death sentences were actually carried out up to 1940 though, more died from beatings or were simply murdered both inside and outside Italy.)

### **The Economy under Mussolini**

One of the main aims of Fascism was to create a self –sufficient state that did not rely on imports. This resulted in the following economic programmes: -

#### **1. The Battle of Wheat**

- (a) Agriculture was to expand wheat production and so cut down Italy’s reliance on imports of wheat.
- (b) In 10 years after 1925, wheat imports were reduced by 75%.  
**NB:** This was, however, at the expense of other profitable crops that could have earned money (foreign currency) in export sales.

#### **2. Battle of Births**

It failed to increase the population as the birth rate dropped.

#### **3. Abolition of Trade Unions**

These were replaced with “corporations”. These were organisations set up in each industry, representing both workers and employers.

They were run by fascists whose job was to settle disputes between workers and their bosses without strikes – which were illegal anyway.

- NB:**
- (i) The interests of the bosses always came out on top and so the living standards of workers fell sharply.
  - (ii) Unemployment rose, reaching 1.1 million in 1932 – nearly ten times what

it had been in 1925.

### **Activity**

Outline how Mussolini consolidated his power between 1922 and 1930

### **Serious Economic Problems**

1. Between 1922 and 1925, the Fascists achieved some important (though superficial) economic success.
2. The finance ministers, De Stefani, followed sound financial policies.
3. De Stefani was fortunate in that the international economy was already showing signs of growth and revival.
4. By between 1924-25 he was able to announce a budget surplus.
5. Mussolini sacked him because powerful industrialists were angry that De Stefani had cut out large cash benefits or subsidies to their industries.
6. Another and one serious reason was that “Il Duce”.
7. Mussolini insisted on a high value for the Italian currency, the Lira.
8. In 1926 he set the Lira at 90 to the pound instead of 150. This made Italian exports very costly and demand abroad for Italian goods fell sharply causing a decline in orders.
9. Unemployment increased and many factories went on a three-day week.
10. Vast sums of money were squandered on reckless foreign adventures such as the invasion of Abyssinia in 1935 and the help given to Franco in the Spanish Civil War.

### **Some Advances**

1. Public works schemes like motorway building
2. The draining of the Pontine Marches which created work and helped to modernise the country.
3. A serious effort was made to excavate and display Italy’s Ancient Roman heritage and this boosted tourism.
4. By 1930 iron and steel production had doubled and by 1937 hydro-electric power had increased by the same margin.
5. But despite Mussolini’s frequent boasting, Italy was still a poor country and her resources had been squandered.
6. Italy’s serious economic problems had not been solved, as the Second World War was to prove.
7. Mussolini’s real crime was to take Italy into that war knowing that her country could not match industrial might of her enemies and knowing that her armed forces were weak, badly equipped and badly led.

### **The Concordat/ Lateran Treaty (1929)**

1. Although Mussolini had no religious beliefs himself, he realised that the attitude of the Church towards his regime was of great importance.
2. If the Vatican were to come out firmly against Mussolini then it would undermine all his social objectives.
3. Mussolini showed how much importance he placed on this when he made a series of concessions such as restoring the walls of schools and allowing Catholic priests back into elementary schools.



4. The Vatican responded to these gestures by signing a concordat with the Italian state in February 1929.
5. This benefited Mussolini for the church supported Mussolini in the national elections of 1929:
  - (i) 8.5 million voted for the fascists
  - (ii) 135 000 opposed
6. The concordat/ Lateran Treaty seemed to have bridged the gap between support for II Duce and allegiance to the Catholic Church.
7. However, relations with the church gradually turned sour as the Fascists Youth Organisation, the Ballila, found its popularity threatened by the rival Catholic Youth Groups.
8. Matters grew still worse when in 1938, Mussolini introduced anti-Jewish laws as a sign of Italy's closer relationship with Nazi Germany.
9. These laws were widely ignored in Italy.
10. Indeed, the Italian army in the occupied arrears of Southern France and Greece, saved the lives of at least 240 000 Jews by refusing to hand them over to the Germans during World War Two.

### **The Minister of Popular Culture (1927)**

1. The organisation established in 1937, attempted the control of mass media of firmer footing.
2. The government stepped up its attempts to control radio broadcasting.
3. In addition, the government established an "Experimental Centre of Cinematography" which trained the students destined to become the nation's film makers.
4. The films glorified the achievements of Fascism.
5. The sporting achievements of famous Fascists were continuously shown on the screen.

### **Foreign Policy**

#### **The Bombardment of Corfu**

Like much else that Mussolini/ did, his foreign policy lacked consistency.

1. At first he was strongly anti-German.
2. From 1936 onwards he came more and more under Hitler's domination.
3. One theme runs through all his years as ruler of Italy: his obsession to make Italy feared and respected abroad.

### **NB: Refer to the League of Nations for case studies**

#### **The Dollfuss Murder!**

1. At first Mussolini tried to encourage good relations with Britain.
2. He supported some British views on the Middle East.
3. Winston Churchill was full of praise for Mussolini after a visit to Rome, impressed by the "Il Duce's" anti-communism.
4. While pretending that Fascism only wanted peace, Mussolini secretly organised terror groups in countries like Yugoslavia and Greece which he wanted to conquer.
5. Albania became totally dependent on Italy through trade and economic aid.

6. Realising that such a policy was not aggressive enough, in April 1939, Mussolini ordered the invasion of the country.
7. In 1934 he acted rapidly and firmly when Hitler seemed about to launch an attack on Austria.
8. In July, Austrian Nazis, probably on Hitler's orders, murdered the Austrian Chancellor, Dollfuss.
9. Mussolini knew that if Hitler took over the country, Italy would face a powerful potential enemy on her border in place of a weak and easily dominated Austria.
10. Mussolini sent three tank divisions to the Austrian border and threatened to use them to defend Austria's Independence. For once, Hitler was out-bluffed and out-bullied. He backed down.
11. The Italian leader confirmed his determination to make a stand against Hitler in Stresa Front Agreement of April 1935.

NB: At Stresa, Italy, France and Great Britain had condemned Hitler's rearmament programme.

### **Change in Foreign Policy**

#### **All this was soon to change**

1. In October 1935 Mussolini invaded the only independent state in Africa – Abyssinia.
2. A successful conquest would also erase the memory of Italy's humiliating defeat in 1896 by the Abyssinians (Ethiopians – refer to the League of Nations)
3. The invasion was an inevitable success with Mussolini introducing his "civilisation" with benefit of poison gas and flame-throwers.
4. Many Italians were probably impressed by the prestige it brought but they were soon to learn the true cost of the victory.
5. The League of Nations, backed by Britain and France, had applied sanctions against Italy as the aggressor nation.
6. The sanctions were feeble – they did not include oil and coal – but they angered Mussolini.
7. Only Germany offered to trade normally and make up Italy's shortages.
8. From then onwards, Italy was drawn into a close alliance with Germany but it was an alliance which Hitler not Mussolini was to dominate.
9. The alliance was not popular in Italy where most Italians still considered Germany as their traditional enemy.

### **The Downfall of a Dictator**

1. Italy's entry and role in the Second World War are dealt with in a later chapter.
2. Her successive defeats at the hands of the Allies eventually led to a movement organised by some Fascists and the King.
3. Mussolini was removed from power on 25 July 1943 without a struggle.
4. He was confined to a mountain – top hotel under heavy guard.
5. In September, a daring rescue bid ordered by Hitler rescued him from captivity and he was taken to northern Italy to set up a new Fascist regime under Hitler's supervision. It was a thoroughly brutal government.
6. On 28 April, trying to escape to Switzerland with his mistress, he was captured by a group of Italian communist partisans.

7. The following day “Il Duce” made his last public appearance, hanging by his feet from a Milan garage.

### **Activity**

- a) Outline Mussolini’s Domestic policy. To what extent did Italians benefit from his domestic reforms?
- b) To what extent did Mussolini’s foreign policy lead to the outbreak of World War II?

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State any five social problems faced by Italy after World war 1. [5]  
 (b) Describe the socio political problems faced by Italy after World war 1. [12]  
 (c) To what extent were these problems responsible for Mussolini’s rise to power? [8]
- 2(a) List any five factors which promoted Mussolini’s rise to power. [6]  
 (b) Describe measures taken by Mussolini to rise to power. [12]  
 (c) To what extent were the weaknesses of the opposition responsible for the rise of Mussolini to power? [8]
3. (a) Identify five steps taken by Mussolini to rise to power. [5]  
 (b) Describe Mussolini’s domestic and foreign policy. [12]  
 (c) To what extent did the people of Italy benefit from its domestic policies? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 25**

### **THE USA 1919-1941:**

### **PROSPERITY, POVERTY AND RECOVERY**

#### **Chapter objectives:**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Give reasons for the rise of the USA as a world power during the post war period
- b) Describe the causes and effects of the Great depression
- c) Explain the role played the USA in world politics during the period

Decade (10 years) of prosperity: - Why a boom?

The First World War had been good for American business. Production had risen sharply to meet the massive requirements of the war. After the war was over, European countries continued to buy American goods.

#### **The Republican governments**

Harding – President, 1921 – 1923

Coolidge – President, 1923 – 1929

Hoover- President, 1929 – 1933

The three American Presidents encouraged this “boom” (a sharp increase in business and profits) in the United States by increasing import duties on foreign goods coming into the United States.

#### **Republican Policies**

1. Laissez – faire: Republicans believed that government should interfere as little as possible in the everyday lives of the people. This attitude is called “Laissez – faire.” In their view, the job of the President was to leave the businessman alone – to do his job. That is where prosperity came from.
2. Tariffs (import duties) - The Republicans believed in import tariffs which made it expensive to import foreign goods. For example in 1922, Harding introduced the Forney -McCumber tariff which made imported food expensive in the USA. These tariffs protected businesses against foreign competition and allowed American companies to grow even more rapidly. The USA also began closing its borders to foreign immigrants.
3. Low taxation: The Republicans kept taxation as low as possible. This brought some benefits to ordinary working people, but it brought even more to the very wealthy. The Republican thinking was that if people kept their own money, they would spend it on American goods and wealthy people would reinvest their money in industries.
4. Trusts: The Republicans also allowed the development of trusts. These were huge super- corporations, which dominated industry. Woodrow Wilson and the Democrats had fought against trusts because they believed it was unhealthy for men such as Carnegie (steel) Rockefeller (oil) to have almost complete control of one vital sector of industry. The Republicans allowed the trusts to do what they wanted, believing that the “captains of industry” knew better than politicians did what was good for the USA.

As a result, between 1923 and 1929 wages rose by 8%. Although this was not a great deal it did mean workers had that bit more to spend on the new consumer goods like radios, washing - machines, vacuum cleaners and cars.

Many bought these items through another invention of the 1920's: hire purchase. It all helped to keep the economy in top gear. Prospects seemed excellent-as long as goods kept on being sold.

Why did the boom collapse: Even before the famous Wall Street crash of October 1929 there were signs that things were going wrong. Farmers had found life increasingly difficult since the end of the war. The wide-spread use of machinery had led to the production of more food than was needed in other words "over production."

Little of this could be exported as European countries were beginning to produce plenty of their own food. As a result, prices fell steadily during the 1920's. Many farmers could not meet the mortgage payments on their farms and the banks took their farms from them.

Much the same began to happen in industry. Too many goods were being produced for the home market. As a result workers were laid off and because there was no unemployment benefit, they could not afford to buy much. Less was sold and so more workers were laid off. The vicious cycle went on repeating itself. Wages and profits had failed to keep pace with each resulting in the situation. Profits had increased by 72% whereas wages rose only by 8%. But American business was much more powerful than the Unions and it had been able to keep wages down.

In some cases it was not just a matter of industries producing too much. Some industries were in decline anyway. The coal industry could not compete with newer forms of energy like petrol, electricity and gas. These now supplied over half of American's energy needs. Needless to say, many miners were sacked or were force to accept wage cuts. The textile industry was in similar trouble. Cotton was in much less demand. This was partly because women's fashion now required shorter clothes and less material and also because women wore artificial fibres like rayon which were beginning to replace/ cotton.

### **The Wall Street Crash, October 1929**

Firms might have been able to export what they could not sell at home but many countries had imposed tariffs on American goods in retaliation for the Fordney – MacCumber tariff World Trade was grinding to a halt. Another problem was speculation on the Wall Street stock market.

### **Speculation**

The idea behind speculation is to buy shares at a low price and sell them at a higher one. For example shares of Radio Corporation of America in early 1928 cost \$85 each. By September 1929 each share was valued at a staggering \$508.

The skill was knowing when the value of the shares had reached a peak. That was the time to sell.

It seemed a full – proof way to make money. Around a million people spent their savings or borrowed money in order to buy shares. As long as the value rose, everybody was happy.

### **End of the Boom**

Some investors knew the boom could not last towards the end of 1929. A few investors began to sell while prices were high. Other investors got nervous and sold their shares. Soon the stock market was gripped by a panic to sell off its shares as quickly as possible. Black Thursday, 24 October 1929:

13 million shares were “dumped” and prices collapsed. The president of Union Ciyar, was stunned when his company’s shares plummeted from \$113.50 to \$4 in a day. He fell or jumped to his death from the ledge of a New York Hotel. Hundreds of thousands of people had lost all their savings or were in debt for thousands of dollars because of the shares they had bought on credit.

“Buddy, can you spare a dime?” was the haunting Melody that could be heard across America.

### **Other problems in the 1920’s**

These economic problems made worse the problem of poverty which existed in the United States even during the “boom” years of the 1920s.

In 1929, 16 million families, (60% of all American families), had an income of less than \$25 000. This placed them below the poverty line. Between them, they owned less than a quarter of the nation’s income.

### **Self – made Problems**

In 1919 the US Congress passed the 18<sup>th</sup> Amendment, forbidding the manufacture and sale of alcohol. It was thought that this would put a stop to drunkenness and absenteeism from factories. It is worth pointing out, though, this was not really as drastic a step as it seems. Bu 1918 two thirds of the United State was already “dry” – in other words, alcohol was already illegal. What “Prohibition” in fact achieved was the creation of another social evil.

### **The Resultant Social Evil**

Gangsters soon stepped into supply illegal “liquor”-“bootlegging” was the name given to this trade. The illegal drinks were sold in bars called “speakeasies”.

Al Capone controlled the bootlegging industry in Chicago and might have made as much as \$100 million a year from his criminal activities. Many judges, politicians and policemen were on his payroll – bribed to turn a blind eye to his “business activities. He was eventually arrested by the Federal Bureau of Investigation for not paying his income tax.

### **Ku Flux Klan**

This was an example of these gangsters. Its activities, which were more disturbing, were mainly. Confined to the southern states where 75% of America’s 12 million African – Americans lived. By 1925 the Klan had 5 million members. Its “activities” (Lynchings, burnings, beatings) were not confined to blacks either. Hitler would have admired the enthusiasm with which they set about Jews, Communists and Catholics.

However, the United States Congress must take some of the blame for the new climate of racial intolerance which the Klan exploited. In 1917, 1921 and 1924, Congress passed a series of laws designed to cut down immigration from southern and eastern European countries.

People from these areas were considered to be of “inferior stock.” Congress did nothing to prevent the continued discrimination against blacks in the South where the “Jim Crow Laws stopped them using the same buses, hotels and schools as whites. Many blacks were barred from voting and no black could serve on a jury. All the same, there was some good news for minorities in America. In 1924, Indians were granted full citizenship and then forgotten about on their reservations.

### **Activity**

- a) Describe the causes of the great depression that affected USA from 1923 to 1928.
- b) To what extent did Roosevelt stabilize the American economy by 1928?

### **Roosevelt and the New Deal**

#### **Effects of the depression**

The depression, after the collapse of Wall Street stock market, continued to cripple the American economy. As each firm was bankrupt, more workers were sacked and forced on to the breadline. They queued to stop kitchens and lived in shanty towns called “Hoovervilles” because they could no longer afford to pay the rent.

As there was no unemployment benefit for them to claim, these cardboard and canvas slams became their homes. By 1932 unemployment had reached 12 million – three times what it was in 1930.

At least 25% of the workforce had no jobs. The presidential election of 1932 proved an easy victory for the democratic candidate, Franklin Delano Roosevelt, over the Republican, Hoover.

Hoover’s slogans:     “a chicken in every pot”  
                              “a car in every garage”

rang hollow to most Americans who believed that Hoover’s ideas of self reliance and rugged individualism “would do nothing to improve the economy.

Roosevelt on the other hand, promised vast government expenditure to stimulate demand and create jobs.

He vowed that his administration would “interfere” as much as possible in the economy and provide relief for the poor.

During his election campaign, Roosevelt had promised the American people, a New Deal. It was not entirely clear what measures that might include.

What was clear was that Franklin D. Roosevelt planned to use the full power of the government to get the US out of depression. He set out his priorities as follows:

- Getting Americans developed
- Protecting their savings and property
- Providing relief for the sick, old and unemployed.

- Getting American industry and agriculture back on their feet.

### **The Hundred Days**

In the hundred days of his presidency, Roosevelt worked round the clock with his advisers (who became known as the “Brain Trust”), to produce an enormous range of sweeping measures. From his first day, Roosevelt went straight into action. One of the many problems affecting the USA was its loss of confidence in the banks. Roosevelt immediately tackled this banking crisis. The day after his inauguration Roosevelt ordered all the banks to close and to remain closed until government officials had checked them over.

A few days later, 5 000 trustworthy banks were allowed to re-open. They were even supported by government money if necessary. At the same time, Roosevelt’s advisers had come up with a set of rules and regulations which would prevent the reckless speculation that had contributed to the Wall Street Crash.

### **The First New Deal (1933)**

The two measures, the Emergency Banking Act and the Securities Exchange Commission, gave the American people a taste of what the New Deal was to look like, but there was a lot more to come.

One of Roosevelt’s advisers at this time said, “During the whole Hundred Days, Congress, people did “know what was going on, but they knew something was happening, something good for them.”

In the hundred Days, Roosevelt sent 15 proposals to Congress and all these were adopted. Just as importantly, he took time to explain to the American people what he was doing and why he was doing it. Every Sunday he would broadcast on radio to the nation. An estimated 60 million Americans tuned to these “fireside chats.” Nowadays, we are used to politicians doing thing. At that time it was a new development.

The Federal Emergency Relief Administration set about meeting the urgent needs of the poor. A sum of 500 million was spent on soup kitchens, blankets, employment schemes and nursery schools.

The Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) was aimed at unemployed young men in particular. They could sign in for periods of six months, which could be renewed if they could still not find work. Most of the work done by the CCC was on environmental projects in national parks. The money earned generally went back to the men’s families. Around 2,5 million young men were helped by this scheme.

The Agricultural Adjustment Administration (AAA) tried to take a long – term view of the problems facing farmers. It set quotas to reduce farm production in order to force prices gradually upwards. At the same time, the AAA helped farmers to modernize and to use farming methods that would conserve and protect the soil. In the cases of extreme hardships, farmers could also receive help with their mortgages. The AAA certainly helped farmers, although modernization had the unfortunate effect of putting more farm labourers out of work.

The National Industrial Recovery Act (NIRA) set up two important organizations:



1. The Public Works Administration (PWA), which used government to build schools, roads, dams, bridges and airports. These would be vital once the USA had recovered, and in the short term they created millions of jobs.
2. The National Recovery Administration (NRA), which improved working conditions in industry and outlawed child labour. It also set out fair wages and sensible levels of production. The idea was to stimulate the economy by giving workers money to spend, without over-producing and causing a slump. It was voluntary out firms which joined, used the blue eagle as a symbol of presidential approval. Over two million employers joined the scheme.

### **Factfile**

#### **Achievements of the Hundred Days**

- Above all, it restored confidence and stopped investors pulling money off the banks.
- Banking measures saved 20% of home owners and farmers from repossession.
- Farmers were 50% better off under AAA by 1936.
- TVA brought electrical power to underdeveloped areas.
- Public Works Administration created 600 000 jobs and built landmarks like the San Francisco's Golden Gate Bridge.

#### **The Tennessee Valley Authority**

As shown by the map below, the Tennessee Valley was a huge area that cut across seven states.

The area had great physical problems. In the dry season, it would reduce to a trickle. The farming land around the river was a dust bowl. Within the valley, people lived in poverty. The majority of households had no electricity. The problems of the Tennessee Valley were far too large for one state to deal with and it was very difficult for states to co-operate.

Roosevelt therefore set up an independent organization called the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) which cut across the powers of local state governments. The main focus of the TVA's work was to build a series of dams on the Tennessee River (NB: compare it with Zimbabwe National Water Authority-ZINWA). They transformed the region. The dams made it possible to irrigate the dried out lands. They also provided electricity for this underdeveloped area. Above all, building the dams created thousands of jobs in an area badly hit by the Depression.

#### **Task:**

Look back and complete your own copy of this table

New Deal Measure/ agency	Issue/ problem it aimed to tackle	Action taken/ powers of agency	Evidence it was/ was not effective

The measures introduced during the Hundred Days had an immediate effect. They restored confidence in government. Reporters who travelled the country brought back reports of the new spirit to be seen around the USA. Historians too agree that Roosevelt's bold and decisive action did have a marked effect on the American people.

### **The Second New Deal**

Despite his achievements, by May 1935 Roosevelt was facing a barrage of criticism. Some critics (like Senator Huey Long) complained that he was doing too little and for others (mainly the wealthy business sector) too much. The USA was recovering less quickly than Europe from Depression. Business was losing its enthusiasm for the NRA (for example Henry Ford had cut wages) Roosevelt was unsure what to do. He had hoped to transform the USA, but it didn't seem to be working.

### **Meeting with a group of senators and close advisers : Tuesday 14 May 1935.**

This was a key date. The people he met shared his views and aims. They persuaded him to take radical steps to achieve his vision and make the USA a fairer place for all Americans. One month later, on 14 June, he summoned the leaders of Congress and presented them with a huge range of laws that he wanted to pass. This became known as the Second Deal.

### **Most Significant Aspects**

1. The Wagner Act: that forced all employers to allow trade unions to operate in their companies and to let them negotiate with employers for better pay and conditions. The new Act made it illegal to sack workers for being in a union.
2. The Social Security Act: that provided state pensions for the elderly and for widows. It also allowed state governments to work with the federal government to provide help for the sick and the disabled. Most importantly, the Act set up a scheme for unemployment insurance. This meant that employers and workers made a small contribution to a special fund each week. If workers became unemployed, they would receive a small amount of benefit to help them out until they could find work.
3. The Works Progress Administration (WPA) later renamed the Works Project Administration, which brought together all the organization whose aim was to create jobs also extended this work beyond building projects to create jobs for office workers and even unemployed actors, artists and photographers. This project took 80, 000 photos of farming areas during the New Deal. The government also paid artists to plant pictures to be displayed in the city or towns they featured- look at the printing below -
4. The Resettlement Administration (RA) which helped smallholders and tenant farmers who had not been helped by the A.A.A. This organizations moved over 5000, 000 families to better - quality land and housing. The Farm Security Administration (FSA) replaced the RA in 1937. It gave special loans to small farmers to help them buy land. It also built camps to provide decent living conditions and work for migrant workers.

### **Opposition to the New Deal**

Roosevelt remained tremendously popular with ordinary Americans right until his death in 1945. But he got little support from wealthy businessmen of the United States. They objected to his interference in the way businesses were run, they objected to those of his policies which strengthened trade unions. They also believed that it was the individual's responsibility to ensure that he had enough money for his old age. Government "hand-outs" in the form of pensions or sickness benefit would lead Americans to lose their rugged, independent spirit. Roosevelt was accused of being a socialist, and many of his supporters, "New Dealers" as they were called, were treated very badly during the 1950's in the United States and they lost their jobs because of "anti-communist" witchhunts. The most serious opposition came from the Supreme Court.

### **The New Deal isn't doing enough**

A number of high-profile figures raised the complaint that the New Deal was not doing enough to help the poor. Despite the New Deal measures, many Americans remained desperately poor. The hardest hits were the black Americans (African-Americans) and the poor farming areas.

A key figure in arguing on behalf of these people was Huey Long. Long was a remarkable character. He became governor of Louisiana in 1928 and a senator in 1932. His methods of gaining power were unusual and sometimes illegal (they included intimidation and bribery). However, once he had won, he used it to help the poor. He relentlessly taxed big corporations and businesses in Louisiana and used the money to build roads, school and hospitals. He employed black people on the same terms as whites and clashed with the Ku Klux Klan. He supported the New Deal at first, but by 1934 he was criticizing it for being complicated and not doing enough. He put forward a scheme called Share Our Wealth. All personal fortunes would be reduced to \$3 million maximum, and maximum income would be \$1 million a year. Government taxes would be shared between all Americans. He also proposed pensions for everyone over 60, and free washing machines and radios. Long was an aggressive and forceful character with many friends and many enemies. Roosevelt regarded him as one of the two most dangerous men in the USA until Long was assassinated in 1935.

Others also criticized the New Deal for not doing enough. Dr Francis Townsend founded a number of Townsend Clubs to campaign for a pension of \$200 per month for people over 60, providing that they spent it that month, stimulating the economy in the process.

A catholic priest, Father Coughlin, used his own radio programme to attack Roosevelt. He set up the National Union for Social Justice and it had a large membership. However, by the early 1940's the movement had faded in importance.

### **The New Deal is doing too much**

The New Deal soon came under fire from sections of the business community and from Republicans for doing too much. There was a long list of criticisms.

- (a) The new deal was complicated and there were too many codes and regulations.
- (b) Government should not support trade unions and it should not support calls for higher wages- the market should deal with these issues.

- (c) Schemes such as the TVA created unfair competition for private companies.
- (d) The New Deal Schemes were like the economic plans being carried out in the communist USSR and unsuitable for the democratic, free-market of the USA.
- (e) Roosevelt was behaving like a dictator.
- (f) The wealthy were wealthy because they had worked hard and used their abilities. High taxes discouraged people from working hard and gave money to people for doing nothing or doing unnecessary jobs.

Roosevelt was upset by the criticisms, but also by the tactics used against him by big business and Republicans. They used a smear campaign against him and all connected to him. They said that he was disabled because of a sexually transmitted disease rather than polio. Employees put messages into their workers' pay packets saying that New Deal Schemes would never happen. Roosevelt turned on the enemies bitterly. And it seemed the American people were with him. In the 1936 election, he won 27 million votes- with the highest margin of victory ever achieved by a US president. He was then able to joke triumphantly, "Everyone is against the New Deal except the voters."

### **Opposition from the Supreme Court**

The job of the Supreme Court is to make sure that governments do not break the laws of the constitution of the United States (or any democratic country). The Supreme Court generally disapproved of Roosevelt's policies and often declared them illegal. It could overturn laws if those laws were against the terms of the Constitution.

### **Composition of the Supreme Court (at the time)**

This Court was dominated by Republicans who were opposed to the New Deal.

### **Case Study**

In May 1935, a strange case had come before the US Supreme Court. The Schechter Poultry Corporation had been found guilty of breaking NRA regulations because it had:

- (a) Sold diseased chickens for human consumption
- (b) Filed false sales claims (to make the company worthy)
- (c) Exploited workers
- (d) Threatened Government inspectors

It appealed to the Supreme Court. The Court ruled that the government had no right to prosecute the company. This was because the NRA was unconstitutional. It undermined too much the power of the local states.

Roosevelt was so angry that he threatened to replace some of the judges with his own supporters. He after all, had been elected while the judges had not been elected by anyone, so he argued.

Roosevelt asked Congress to give him power to appoint six more Supreme Court judges who were more sympathetic to the New Deal. But he had misjudged the mood of the American public. They were alarmed at what they saw as Roosevelt's attacking the American system of government. Roosevelt had to back down and his plan was rejected.

Even so his actions were not completely pointless. The Supreme Court had been shaken by Roosevelt's actions and was less obstructive in the future. Most of the main measures in Roosevelt's Second New Deal were approved by the Court from 1937 onwards.

### **Was the New Deal a Success?**

The events of 1936 took their toll on Roosevelt and he became more cautious after that. Early in 1935, prosperity seemed to be returning and Roosevelt did all the Deal. He laid off many workers who had been employed by the New Deal's own organizations and the cut in spending triggered other cuts throughout the economy. This meant that unemployment spiraled upwards once more. The 1937 recession damaged Roosevelt badly. Middleclass people lost some confidence in him. As a result, in 1938 the Republicans once again did well in the congressional elections. Now it was much harder for Roosevelt to push his reforms through Congress. However, he was still enormously popular with most ordinary Americans (he was elected again with a big majority in 1940). The problem was that the USA was no longer as united behind this new deal as it had been in Europe and on Japan's exploits in the Far East.

So was the New Deal a success? Only one doubts that Roosevelt tackled the problems better than Hoover. But the question remains as to whether the New Deal did actually succeed. Historians have had many decades to judge the successes and failures of Roosevelt's policies.

### **Evidence assembled by Historians**

#### **First Aspect: Attitudes**

- (i) The New Deal restored the faith of the American people in their government.
- (ii) The New Deal was a huge social and economic programme. Government help on this scale would never have been possible before Roosevelt's time. It set the tone for future policies for government to help people.
- (iii) The New Deal handled billions of dollars of public money, but there were no corruption scandals. For example, the head of the Civil Works Administration, Harold Hopkins, distributed \$10 billion in schemes and programmes, but never earned more than his salary of \$15 000. The Secretary of the Interior, Harold, actually tapped the phones of his own employees to ensure there was no corruption. He also employed black Americans, campaigned against anti-Semitism and supported the cause of Native Americans.
- (iv) The New Deal divided the USA Roosevelt and his officials were often accused of being Communists and of undermining American values. Harold and Hopkins were both accused of being anti-business because they supported trade unions.
- (v) The New Deal undermined local government.

#### **Second Aspect: Industrial Workers**

- 1) The NRA and the Second New Deal measures strengthened the position of labour unions against the large American industrial giants.
- 2) Roosevelt's government generally tried to support unions and make large corporations negotiate with them.

- 3) Some labour unions combined forces to form the Committee for Industrial Organisation (CIO) in 1935. This union was large enough to be able to bargain with big corporations.
- 4) The Union of Automobile Workers (UAW) was recognized by the two most anti-union corporations General Motors (after a major sit-in strike in 1936) and Ford (after a ballot in 1941).
- 5) Big business remained immensely powerful in the USA despite being challenged by the government.
- 6) Unions were treated with suspicion by employers.
- 7) Many strikes were broken up with brutal violence in the 1930's.
- 8) Companies such as Ford, Republic Steel and Chrysler employed their own thugs or controlled local police force.

### **Third Aspect: Unemployment and the economy**

1. It stabilised the American banking system.
2. It cut the number of business failures.
3. Projects such as the TVA brought work and improved standards of living to deprived parts of the USA.
4. The New Deal projects provided the USA with valuable resources such as schools, roads and power stations.
5. The New Deal never solved the underlying economic problems.
6. The USA economy took longer to recover than of most European countries.
7. Confidence remained low- throughout the 1930's Americans only spent and invested about 75 per cent of what they had before 1929.
8. When Roosevelt cut the New Deal budget in 1937, the country went back into recession.
9. There were six million unemployed in 1941.
10. Only the USA's entry into the war brought an end to unemployment.

### **Fourth Aspect: Black Americans/ Afro –American**

1. Around 200, 000 Americans gained benefits from the Civilian Conservation Corps and New Deal agencies.
2. Many black Americans benefited from New Deal slum clearance and housing projects.
3. Many New Deal agencies discriminated against black people. They either got no work or received worse treatment or lower wages.
4. Roosevelt failed to pass laws against the lynching of black Americans. He feared that Democrat senators in the southern states would not support him.

### **Fifth Aspect**

1. The New Deal saw women achieve prominent positions. Eleanor Roosevelt became an important campaigner on social issues.
2. Mary Macleod Bethune, a black woman, headed the National Youth Administration.
3. Frances Perkins was the Secretary of Labour. She removed 59 corrupt officials from the labour Department and was a key figure in making the Second New Deal work in practice.

4. Most of the New Deal Programmes were aimed at helping male manual workers rather than women (only about 8 000 women were involved in the CCC).
5. Local Governments tried to avoid paying out social security payments to women by introducing special qualifications and conditions.
6. Frances Perkins was viciously attacked in the press as a Jew and a Soviet spy. Even her cabinet colleagues tended to ignore her at social gatherings.

### **Sixth Aspect**

1. The Indian Reorganization Act 1934, provided money to help Native Americans to buy and improve land.
2. The Indian Reservation Act 1934 helped Native Americans to preserve and practice their traditions, laws and culture.
3. Native Americans remained a poor and excluded section of society.

### **Activity**

- a) What led to the rise of the USA as a world industrial and economic giant by 1939?
- b) How valid is the claim that while Europe was at war, America was consolidating its self as an international superpower?.
- c) To what extent did the absence of the USA weaken the League of Nations?.

### **Examination type questions**

- 1(a) State any five characteristics of the economic boom in the 1920's. [5]
- (b) Describe features of the economic boom of America during the 1920's. [12]
- (c) To what extent did the people of America benefit from the boom? [8]
- 2(a) Identify five causes of the great depression in 1929. [5]
- (b) Describe the socio-economic effects of the depression on the people of USA. [12]
- (c) To what extent were the lives of the people affected by the Great depression of 1929? [8]
- 3(a) State any five measures introduced by Roosevelt as part of the New Deal. [5]
- (b) Describe measures introduced by Roosevelt to solve socio economic problems created by the economic depression of 1929. [12]
- (c) How successful was Roosevelt in solving problems created by the Great depression of 1929? [8]

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## **CHATER 26**

### **THE SECOND WORLD WAR**

#### **Chapter objectives:**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Give reasons for the outbreak of War in Europe in 1939
- b) Describe the military tactics used during the Second World War:
- c) Explain the role of U.S.A during the 2<sup>nd</sup> World War
- d) Critically examine the results of World War II

#### **Co-operation and Conflict (1919 – 1945)**

##### **A. Appeasement Policy**

Why did Britain and France follow a policy of Appeasement in the 1930?

Britain signed the naval agreement with Germany in 1935.

For the next three years, Britain followed a policy of giving Hitler what he wanted – a policy that became known as APPEASEMENT. Neville Chamberlain is the man most associated with this policy although he did not become Prime Minister until 1937. Many other British people, including many politicians were also in favour of this policy.

##### **Reasons for supporting the policy**

1. Hitler was standing up to communism
  - (i) Hitler was not the only concern of Britain and its allies.
  - (ii) He was not even their main worry.
  - (iii) They were more concerned about the spread of communism and particularly about the dangers to world peace posed by Stalin, the new leader in the USSR.
  - (iv) Many saw Hitler as the buffer to the spread of communism.
2. The fear that the USA would not support Britain and its allies.
  - (i) American leaders were determined not to be dragged into another war.
  - (ii) Britain and her allies could not face up to Germany without the guarantee of American support.
3. The attitude of Britain's Empire  
It was not certain that the British Empire and the Commonwealth states (for example Canada) would support a war against Germany.
4. The unfairness of the Treaty of Versailles
  - (i) Many felt that the Treaty of Versailles was unfair to Germany.
  - (ii) They assumed that once these wrongs were put right, then Germany would become a peaceful nation again.
5. To avoid a repeat of the horrors of the Great War.
  - (i) Both British and French leaders vividly remembered The First World War.
  - (ii) They wished to avoid another war at almost any cost.



6. Britain was not ready for war.

The British government believed that the armed forces were not ready for war against Hitler.

7. Economic problems were a higher priority

- (i) Britain and France were still suffering from the effects of the Depression.
- (ii) They had large debts and huge unemployment.

### **What was wrong with Appeasement?**

Britain's leaders may have felt that they had no option but to appease Hitler, but there were obviously risks to such a policy for example:

- a) It encouraged Hitler to be aggressive. With hindsight, it can be seen that each gamble he got away with encouraged him to take bigger risks.
- b) It allowed Germany to grow too strong. Germany was not only recovering lost ground. It was also becoming much more powerful than Britain or France.
- c) It put too much trust in Hitler:
  - i) Hitler often went back on his promises
  - ii) Appeasement was based on the mistaken idea that Hitler was trustworthy.
  - d) It scared the USSR
- i) The policy alarmed the USSR
- ii) Hitler made no secret of his plans to expand eastwards.
- iii) Appeasement sent the message to the Soviet Union that Britain and France would not stand in Hitler's way.

B. How far was Hitler responsible for the outbreak of the Second World War?

### **Hitler's Plans: and Foreign Policy**

Hitler was never secretive about his plans for Germany. As early as 1924, he had laid out in his book *Mein Kampf* about what he would do if the Nazi's ever achieved power in Germany. His three main aims are described below.

#### **Abolish the Treaty of Versailles**

Like many Germans, Hitler believed that the Treaty of Versailles was unjust. He hated the Treaty and called the German leaders who had signed it "The November Criminals". The Treaty was a constant reminder to Germans of their defeat in the First World War and their humiliation by the Allies. Hitler promised that if he became leader of Germany, he would reverse it.

By the time he came to power in Germany, some of the terms had already been changed. For example, Germany had stopped making reparations payment altogether. However most of the points were still in place.

## **2. Expand German Territory**

- i) The Treaty of Versailles had taken away territory from Germany.
- ii) Hitler wanted to get that territory back.
- iii) He wanted Germany to unite with Austria.
- iv) He wanted German minorities in other countries such as Czechoslovakia to rejoin Germany.
- v) He also wanted to carve out an empire in eastern Europe to give extra Lebensraum or “Living space” for Germans.

## **3. Defeat Communism**

- (i) A German empire carved out of the Soviet Union would also help Hitler in one of his objectives – the defeat of communism or Bolshevism.
- (ii) Hitler was anti- communist.
- (iii) He believed that Bolsheviks had helped to bring about the defeat of Germany in the First World War.
- (iv) He also believed that the Bolsheviks wanted to take over Germany.

## **Hitler’s actions:**

### **Timeline:**

<b>Date</b>	<b>Action</b>
1933	Took Germany out of the League of Nations
1934	Tried to take over Austria but was prevented by Mussolini
1935	Held massive rearmament in Germany
1936	Reintroduced conscription in Germany Sent German troops into the Rhineland. Made an anti- Communist alliance with Japan
1937	Tried out Germany’s new weapons in the Spanish Civil War. Made an anti – communist alliance with Italy
1938	Took over Austria Took over the Sudetenland area of Czechoslovakia.
1939	Invaded the rest of Czechoslovakia Invaded Poland

**War**

## **The new interpretation**

The British historian AJP Taylor came up with a new interpretation. His view was that Hitler was a gambler rather than a planner. According to Taylor’s interpretation, it is Britain, the Allies and the League of Nations who are to blame for letting Hitler get away with it – by not standing up to him.

As you examine Hitler's actions in more detail, you will see that both interpretations are possible. You can make up your own mind as to which you agree with:

Task for Students: Hitler and the Treaty of Versailles:			
Terms of the Treaty of Versailles	What Hitler did and when	The reasons he gave for his action	The response from Britain and France
Germany's armed forces to be severely limited			
The Rhineland to be a demilitarized zone			
Germany forbidden to unite with Austria			
The Sudetenland into new state of Czechoslovakia			
The Polish corridor given to Poland.			

1. Draw up a table like this one to show some of the terms of the Treaty of Versailles that affected Germany.
2. As you work through this chapter, fill out the other columns of this "Versailles chart".

### **Rearmament**

2. Hitler came to power in Germany in 1933. One of his first steps was to increase Germany's armed forces.
3. Thousands of unemployed workers were drafted into the army.
4. This helped to reduce unemployment, one of the biggest problems faced in Germany.
5. It also helped him to deliver on his promise to make Germany strong again and to challenge the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.
6. Hitler knew that German people supported rearmament.
7. He also knew it would cause alarm in other countries-so he handled it cleverly.
8. Rearmament began in secret at first. He made a great public display of his desire not to derail Germany-that he was only doing it because other countries refused to disarm.
9. He then followed Japan's example and withdrew from the League of Nations.
10. In 1935 Hitler openly staged a massive rally celebrating the German armed forces.
11. In 1936 he even reintroduced conscription to the army.
12. He was breaking the terms of Versailles, but he guessed correctly that they would get away with rearmament.
13. Many other countries were using rearmament as a way to fight unemployment.

14. The collapse of the League of Nations Disarmament Conference in 1934 had shown that other nations were not prepared to disarm.

### **Effects**

1. Rearmament was a very popular move in Germany.
2. It boosted Nazi support.
3. Hitler also knew that Britain had some sympathy with Germany on this issue.
4. Britain believed that the limits put on Germany's armed forces by the Versailles Treaty were too tight.
5. The permitted forces were not enough to defend Germany from attack.
6. Britain also thought that strong Germany would be a good buffer against communism.
7. Britain had already helped to dismantle the Treaty by signing a naval agreement with Hitler in 1935, allowing Germany to increase its navy to up to 5% of the size of the British navy.
8. The French were angry with Britain about this, but there was little they could do.

### **The Saar Plebiscite**

1. The Saar region of Germany had been run by the League of Nations since 1919.
2. In 1935 the League of Nations held the promised plebiscite for people to vote on whether their region should return to German rule.
3. The vote was an overwhelming success for Hitler, around 90% of the population voted to return to German rule.
4. This was entirely legal and within the terms of the Treaty. It was also a real morale booster for Hitler.

### **Remilitarization of the Rhineland**

1. In March 1936, Hitler took his first really big risk by moving troops into the Rhineland.
2. The demilitarization of the Rhineland was one of the terms of the Treaty Versailles.
3. It had also been accepted by Germany in the Locarno Treaties in 1925.
4. If he had been forced to withdraw, he would have faced humiliation and would have lost support of Germany (many of the generals were unsure of him anyway). Hitler knew the risks, but he chose the time and place. France had just signed a treaty with the USSR to protect each other against attack from Germany. Hitler used the agreement to claim that Germany was under threat. He agreed that in face of such a threat he should be allowed to place troops on his own frontier. Hitler knew that many people in Britain felt that he had the right to station his troops in the Rhineland and he was fairly confident that Britain would not intervene-this was the end of his gamble for the French were most likely not to allow him to get away with it. If the French had attacked, the German army was no match for the French army-the German army lacked essential equipment and air support-still Hitler was lucky.

### **Why?**

The attention of the League of Nations was on the Abyssinian crisis which was happening at exactly the same time. The League condemned Hitler's action but had no power to do

anything else. Even the French, who were most directly threatened by the move, were divided over what to do. The French were about to hold an election and none of French leaders was prepared to take responsibility for plunging France into a war. Of course, they did not know how weak the German army was. In the end, France refused to act without British support and so Hitler's big gamble paid off. He was to risk more next time.

### **The Spanish Civil War**

These early successes seemed to give Hitler Confidence. In 1936 a civil war broke out in Spain between Communists (supporters of the Republican government) and right – wing rebels under General Franco. Hitler saw this as an opportunity to fight against Communism and at the same time to try out his new armed forces. In 1937, as the League of Nations looked on helplessly, German aircraft made devastating bombing raids on civilian population on various Spanish cities. The destruction at Guernica was terrible. The world looked on in horror at the suffering that modern weapons could cause.

### **The Anti- Comintern Pact, (1936 -1937)**

The Italian leader Mussolini was also involved in the Spanish Civil War. Hitler and Mussolini saw that they had much in common and also with the military dictatorship in Japan. In 1936, Germany and Japan signed an anti- Comintern Pact. In 1937, Italy also signed it.

NB: Anti-Comintern means “anti – communist international”.

The aim of the pact was to limit Communist influence around the world. It was particularly aimed at the USSR. The new alliance was called the Axis alliance.

### **Anschluss with Austria (1938)**

With the successes of 1936 and 1937 to boost him, Hitler turned his attention to his homeland of Austria. The Austrian people were mainly German, and in Mein Kampf, Hitler had made it clear that he felt that the two states belonged together as one German nation.

Many in Austria supported the idea of union with Germany, since their country was economically weak. Hitler was confident that he could be bringing them together into a “greater Germany.” In fact, he had tried to take over Austria in 1934, but on that occasion Mussolini had stopped him. Four years later, in 1938, the situation was different. Hitler and Mussolini were now allies. There was a strong Nazi Party in Austria. Hitler encouraged the Nazis to stir up trouble for the government. They staged demonstrations calling for a union with Germany-they caused riots. Hitler then told the Austrian, Chancellor Schuschnigg, that only Anschluss (political union) could sort out these problems. He pressurized Schuschnigg to agree to Anschluss. Schuschnigg asked for half from France and Britain but was refused it. Schuschnigg called a plebiscite (a referendum), to see what Austrian people wanted.

Hitler was not prepared for this-it was risky-he might lose. Hitler simply sent his troops into Austria in March 1938, supposedly to guarantee a trouble-free plebiscite. Under the watchful eye of the Nazi troops, 99, 75% voted for Anschluss. Anschluss was completed without any military confrontation with France and Britain. Chamberlain, the British Prime Minister, felt that Austrians and Germans had the right to be united and that the Treaty of Versailles was

wrong to separate them. Britain's lord Halifax had even suggested to Hitler before the Anschluss, that Britain would not resist Germany uniting with Austria.

### **The Sudetenland**

After the Austrian Anschluss, Hitler was beginning to feel that he could not put a foot wrong. But his growing confidence was putting the peace of Europe into increasing danger.

Unlike the leaders of Britain and France, Edward Benev's the leader of Czechoslovakia, was horrified by Anschluss. He realized that Czechoslovakia would be the next country on Hitler's life for takeover. It seemed that Britain and France were not prepared to stand up to Hitler. Benev's sought guarantees from the British and French that they would honour their commitment to defend Czechoslovakia if Hitler invaded. The French were bound by a treaty and reluctantly said they would. The British felt bound to support the French. However, Chamberlain asked Hitler whether he had designs on Czechoslovakia and was reassured by Hitler's promise.

### **Hitler's designs on Czechoslovakia**

This new state, created by the Treaty of Versailles, included a large number of Germans – former subjects of the Austria -Hungarian Empire-in the Sudetenland area.

“It is my unshakable will to wipe Czechoslovakia off the map...” Hitler declared to a top level Nazi meeting at the end of May, 1938-The international situation favoured such a move. He was convinced that Britain and France could not act forcefully against him, and Italy had indicated her approval. That left only Russia, and between Russia and Czechoslovakia stood Rumania and Poland.

Both these states had made it clear they would not allow Russian troops across their territory. Besides, Russia was only committed to defend the Czechs if France did so as well.

Konrad Henlein, the leader of the Sudeten German Nazis in the Sudetenland area of Czechoslovakia, was told to step up his campaign of anti- government activities, claiming that the Sudeten Germans were being ill- treated by the Czech leader Benes.

### **Demand for a plebiscite:**

- (i) Hitler demanded that a plebiscite be held in the Sudetenland when he met Chamberlain on 15 September (at Berchtesgaden -Hitler's Mountain Treaty).
- (ii) He also demanded that those areas voting for union with Germany should be transferred.

Chamberlain returned to London to seek the approval of his Cabinet and the French Prime Minister, Daladier.

Benev's also, reluctantly, agreed to the plebiscite.

### **Hitler “changing goal posts”**

When Chamberlain met Hitler again at Godesberg on 22 September, he was astounded to hear that the plebiscite was no longer enough.

Hitler demanded the immediate transfer of the whole of the Sudetenland-thus showing once again that when given an inch he would take a mile.

### **Threat of War**

Chamberlain was supposed to agree but refused to agree. War seemed likely. The Czechs had already mobilized their large and well-equipped army which numbered some 2 million men (though smaller than Germany's). Britain's fleet was also mobilized for War. Hitler seemed shaken by this show of strength.

### **The Munich Agreement**

With Mussolini's help, a final meeting was held in Munich on 29 September. While Europe held its breath, the leaders of Britain, Germany, France and Italy decided on the fate of Czechoslovakia. On 29 September they decided to lose the Sudetenland.

NB: They did not consult the Czechs, nor did they consult the USSR.

The following morning Chamberlain and Hitler published a joint declaration which Chamberlain said would bring "peace for our time."

Hitler announced that the Sudetenland was his last territorial demand in Europe. Six months later in March 1939 German troops occupied the rest of Czechoslovakia.

### **Results:**

- (i) The occupation or loss of Sudetenland stripped the Czechs of 70% of their industry.
- (ii) She also lost the most modern defensive fortifications in Europe.
- (iii) They lost the largest arms factory in Europe-the Skoda works.
- (iv) When German troops marched into the rest of the country, supposedly "by invitation" of Czech President Hacha, Chamberlain at last realized that Hitler was not a man of his word and could not be trusted. In April both Britain and France promised to assist Poland if attacked by Germany.

### **Hitler's Demands**

- 2. Hitler demanded that Poland handover the German-speaking port of Danzig and access to it by road and rail.

### **The Poles Refused**

NB: Hitler was merely biding his time before invading the country.

- 3. He stepped up claims of Polish ill- treatment of Germans in the Corridor.
- 4. He began negotiations with Russia on a non- aggression pact.

### **The Nazi-Soviet Pact: Why?-Hitler**

1. Hitler wanted the strip of former German land in Poland – i.e. the Polish Corridor.
2. He was sure that Britain and France would not risk war over this.
3. He was less sure about Stalin and the USSR.

### **Stalin**

1. Stalin had been very worried about the German threat on the Soviet Union ever since Hitler came to power in 1933.
2. Hitler had openly stated his interest in conquering Russian land.
3. Hitler had denounced communism and imprisoned and killed Communists in Germany.
4. Stalin could not reach any kind of lasting agreement with Britain and France in the 1830's- and was not prepared to try.
5. In 1934 he had joined the League of Nations, hoping the League would guarantee his security against the threat from Germany.
6. All he saw at the League was its powerlessness when Mussolini successfully invaded Abyssinia, and when both Mussolini and Hitler intervened in the Spanish Civil War.
7. Politicians in Britain and France had not resisted German rearmament in the 1930's.
8. Indeed, some in Britain seemed even to welcome a stronger Germany as a force to fight Communism which they saw as a bigger threat to British interests than Hitler.
9. Stalin's fears and suspicious grew in the mid- 1930's. He signed a treaty with France in 1935 that said that France would help the USSR if Germany invaded the Soviet Union. But Stalin was not sure he could trust the French to stick to it particularly when they failed even to stop Hitler moving into the Rhineland, which was right on their own border. The Munich Agreement in 1938 increased Stalin's concerns. He was not consulted about it. Stalin concluded from the agreement that France and Britain were powerless to stop Hitler or even worse than they were happy for Hitler to take over Eastern Europe and then the USSR.

The Russians (Stalin) were still willing to have a military alliance with Britain and France against Germany despite their misgivings.

However, the British were making only half – hearted efforts to reach the agreement.

### **Results: astonishing**

Russian Foreign Minister, Molotov and his Nazi opposite number, Ribbentrop, announced the signing of the Nazi-Soviet Non- Aggression Pact (between arch enemies.)

### **Year: August 1939**

### **Terms:**

- (i) Both countries promised not to fight each other for ten (10) years.



- (ii) A secret clause, not made public, also revealed that both Germany and Russia were to invade and divide Poland between them.

NB: Hitler was overjoyed as he now had a free hand in Poland. He carefully scrutinized the press photographs of the signing ceremony before release.

With Russia out of the picture as far as opposition was concerned, that left only “the worm” Chamberlain and the French.

Hitler never believed that Britain and France would honour their promise to defend Poland. After all, they had backed down over (i) rearmament (ii) over the Rhine land in 1936 (iii) over the Anschluss and (iv) the Sudetenland in 1938 and (v) over Czechoslovakia in 1939 – so Poland was not going to be different.

### **The Invasion of Poland**

On 1 September 1939, the German army invaded Poland from the West. On 17 September Soviet forces invaded Poland from the east – Poland soon fell. If Hitler was planning ahead at all, then in his mind, the next move would surely be an attack against the temporary ally, the USSR. He was certain that Britain and France would not go to war over Poland.

### **Anglo – French response**

Hitler’s victory was spoilt by a nasty surprise. Britain and France did keep their promise to Poland. On September 2, Britain and France declared war on Germany. Hitler had started a war, but it was not the war he had in mind. It was too soon and against the wrong opponents. Hitler had taken on a gamble too many.

### **Was Appeasement the right policy?**

Chamberlain certainly believed in Appeasement. In June 1938 he wrote in a letter to his Sister “I am completely convinced that the course I am taking is right and therefore cannot be influenced by the attacks on my critics.”

He was not a coward or a weakling. When it became obvious that he had no choice but to declare war in 1939, he did.

However Appeasement was a controversial policy at the time. It is still controversial today.

### **There are two main views**

1. It was the wrong policy because it encouraged Hitler. Chamberlain’s critics say that it simply encouraged Hitler’s gambling. They claim that if Britain or France had squared up to him at the start, he would have backed off. Peace would have been secured.
2. It was the right policy because Britain was not ready for war. Chamberlain’s defenders say it was the only option available to him. They say that to face up to Hitler, Chamberlain had to be prepared to take Britain to a war. All the evidence available to Chamberlain told him that Britain was not ready. Public opinion was against it-his own civil service advisors had told him this. Important countries in the empire were against it. The USA was against it and most importantly, Britain’s

armed forces were not ready. They were badly equipped and had fallen far behind the German.

### **Activity**

Why did Hitler's foreign policies lead to world war II?

### **Course of the war:**

#### **Blitzkrieg on Poland: September 1939**

Blitzkrieg means moving fast and swift in a lightning manner. Hitler used this approach on Poland in 1939. It took Hitler less than three weeks to conquer Poland. By the end of September 1939 Hitler and Stalin had divided Poland between them. The Germans used tanks and armoured vehicles supported by dive – bombers to smash through key points in the Polish defences. The Polish soldiers found themselves cut off from their suppliers and surrounded on all sides by Germans. They had to surrender.

#### **Phoney war, (1939-1940)**

For seven months after the Blitzkrieg on Poland, there was no fighting. British, French and Germany soldiers did not attack each other during this period. The reason for this was that some leaders on both sides hoped that a peace might be arranged if no more fighting took place. The months of waiting were called the “Phoney War.”

#### **Dunkirk and the Fall of France, (1940)**

Hitler could not wait any longer. By May 1940, in another Blitzkrieg, his tanks smashed through the French and British defences. Within some few weeks German soldiers overran Holland, Belgium and France. The British army was forced back to the sea at a French port called Dunkirk. On the Dunkirk beaches both the boats and the soldiers which they had come to rescue, were bombed and machine – gunned by Hitler's war planes. But the boats ferried over 300,000 soldiers across the English Channel to safety. In June 1940 the French government surrendered. The German army moved in and took over most of the country.

#### **Battle of Britain 1940**

The British Prime Minister, Winston Churchill urged his soldiers not to surrender but fight on. Hitler ordered his air force, the **Luftwaffe**, to attack. The air battle which followed became known as the Battle of Britain. The Luftwaffe began its attacks on 13<sup>th</sup> August 1940. The German soldiers targeted RAF airfields in the south of England. They later targeted London the capital city of England. The RAF planes in turn bombed Berlin, Germany's capital city.

#### **The Blitz 1940 – 1941**

The British called the big German air attacks on London the “BLITZ.” They killed many thousands of people. The same thing happened to other British cities. However the Blitz saved the RAF. The focus on England cities left RAF airfields free from attack. Damaged aircraft were repaired or replaced. New pilots were trained. RAF fighters like the spitfire and the Hurricane shot down more and more German aircraft every week. By end of September 1940, Hitler saw that he had lost the Battle of Britain.

## **Operation Barbarossa**

After realizing that he had conquered Poland and France, Hitler realized that he no longer needed Russia's friendship. The other reason why Hitler attacked the USSR was to crush communism which he hated. Furthermore, Hitler wanted the living space or Lebensraum in the east that he had promised the German people. German targeted USSR's rich farmlands, coal – mines and oil wells. The Germans code-named their attack. OPERATION BARBAROSSA. Hitler hoped the name would mean "lucky" The attack took the Russians completely by surprise. By the end of the year the German armies were only 30km from Moscow. However the Russian winter faced them. First, there came heavy rains, turning the country side into a sea of mud. Tanks, guns everything on wheels were bogged down. The Germans were not prepared for such weather. Even their guns froze. They had to light fires under their tanks to start them. The Russian armies counter-attacked. At the end of 1941 the German advance ground to a halt.

## **The Battle of Stalingrad, (1942-1943)**

Germany attacked Russia once again in 1942. Hitler's main target in 1942 was the Caucasus, an oil-rich area in the south of the USSR. The German army fought desperately to capture the city of Stalingrad which was blocking their way to the Caucasus.

The Russians defended every street, every house, every room. The battle for Stalingrad went on without pause for five months. On 2<sup>nd</sup> February 1943, the last batch of Germany survivors surrendered. The Russians started to drive back Hitler's soldiers towards Germany. By now things were going wrong for Hitler everywhere.

## **6 June 1944: D-Day**

Allied troops landed in France. They began a slow advance across France towards Germany 25 August 1944: Allied troops retook Paris.

July 1943: Allied troops landed in Italy, 25 July 1943 Mussolini resigned 13 October 1943 the new leaders of Italy declared war on Germany. The battle between Allied and German troops continued in Italy until May 1945.

## **Germany Surrenders, 1945**

2 May 1945 German armies in Italy surrendered. Russian soldiers had fought their way across Eastern Europe and were deep inside Germany.

**NB:** In his bunker headquarters beneath the ruins of Berlin, Hitler could hear the noise of battle as the Russians fought their way street by street towards him. On 30 April, he shot himself. German soldiers everywhere laid down their weapons. Hitler's war was over.

## **Activity**

- a) Why did the entry of the USA signal the end of the Second World War.?
- b) To what extent did the failure of the League of nations contribute to world war II?
- c) Compare and contrast the fighting techniques and methods of warfare used in the first

- d) Describe in detail the Japanese contribution in the second world War. To what extent can Japan be blamed for the American bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki

### **Examination type Questions**

- 1(a) State any five aims of the policy of Appeasement. [5]  
 (b) Describe the British and French policy of Appeasement up to the 1930s. [12]  
 (c) Why did the policy fail to achieve peace in Europe?
- 2(a) Identify any five states annexed by Hitler upto 1939. [5]  
 (b) Describe reasons for the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939. [12]  
 (c) To what extent should Germany be blamed for the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939? [8]
- 3(a) Name five Allied powers in the World War 2 of 1939. [5]  
 (b) Describe Operation Barbarossa with USSR. [12]  
 (c) To what extent was Operation Barbarossa responsible for the defeat of the Nazi in the Second World War of 1939 to 1945? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 27**

### **THE UNITED NATIONS**

#### **Chapter Objectives**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Outline the basis for the establishment of the U.N
- b) Discuss the aims of the U.N.
- c) Describe the main organs of the UN
- d) Evaluate the success of the UN in the post Second World War Period.

On 26 June 1945, in San Francisco in America, representatives from fifty nations signed a agreement called the charter of the United Nations. The United Nations organisation (UN) took the place of the pre- war League of Nations. Its main objective was to do what the league had failed to do- to see that the world stayed at peace. The UN's founders also wanted to encourage the people of the world to work together in other ways – against disease, hunger and all mankind's other problems. The money to pay for the UN's work came from contributions by its members. The better off a member is the more it is expected to pay. Over the years this has meant that a big part of the U.N.'s expenses has been paid by the USA, its richest member.

The UN consisted of four main organisations i.e. the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Secretariat and the Specialized Agencies.

#### **General Assembly**

The General Assembly meets once a year. In the General Assembly every UN member has one vote. However the strong nations did not want small countries to have too much say in world affairs from the onset. For this reason they gave the real power in the UN to the Security Council.

#### **The Security Council**

The Security Council has five permanent members – the USA, the USSR, and three of their main allies in the Second World War – Britain, France and China. Ten other members (six up to 1966) serve on the Security Council for two years at a time.

The Security Council can be called together at a moment's notice to deal with serious disagreement between countries especially if they look like leading to war. It can call upon other members of the UN to lend it soldiers from their armies to carry out its decisions. This may make the Security Council sound very strong but in fact it has a big weakness.

#### **The veto**

The "Right of veto" means to Say No. The permanent members of the Security Council have the right of veto. The original Security Council rules said that it could only order action when all five of its permanent members agreed. This meant that any one of them could stop the UN from acting by using its right of veto. Russia however abused its veto, using it over 100 times before 1950. Since then every permanent member used this power to protect its own interests. When the UN was founded, both the USSR and the USA insisted upon this right of Veto. This was because neither of them wanted the United Nations voting to take actions which might be against their interests. In the years after 1945, the USA and the USSR were by far the

strongest countries in the world – “superpowers”, as they came to be called. They also became enemies in the “cold war.”

Sometimes quarrels between the superpowers nearly brought war. This appeared over Berlin in 1948 and in Cuba in 1962. Over both Berlin and Cuba, the UN was by passed like the League of Nations had been over Czechoslovakia in 1938. The right of veto has weakened the power of the council, but this has been partly overcome by the Assembly’s “uniting for peace” decision.

The council has a military staff committee and has power to raise an armed force under UN control. This armed force was used in Korea, the Congo, Palestine and Cyprus. The Council may also order the imposition of economic sanctions against offending nations. This power was used in South Africa during the Apartheid Era and in Zimbabwe during the colonial rule.

The Council controls the election of the Secretary General and the admission of new members and it has power to send commissions to investigate problem areas such as Kashmir, Indonesia, DRC and the Darfur region of late. It has also responsibility of organizing plans for world disarmament.

### **The Secretariat**

All the work of the UN is supervised and co-ordinated by the Secretariat. The Secretariat is a team of thousands of Secretaries, clerks’ translators and other officials. Its job is to organize the day- to- day work of the U.N. And to see that its decisions are carried out. The Secretariat runs its headquarters in New York. The head of the Secretariat is the Secretary – General. The Secretary General is appointed when the General Assembly agrees to a name put forward by the Security Council.

NB: The Secretariat brings problems before the Security Council, draws up an annual report of the organisation’s work and runs the technical aid schemes and funds for the many specialized agencies.

### **Specialised Agencies**

The job of the UN’s specialized Agencies is to help the people of the world improve their lives. Each agency tackles human problems of a particular kind. Each agency is organized like the main body of the UN. It has an Assembly, a council, a Secretariat and a Director General or Secretary – General. The success of their work depend on the co-operation of people from various nations. Each calls on experts and resources from every country.

### **Examples of specialised agencies**

- i) WHO – World Health Organisation
- ii) FAO – Food and Agriculture Organisation
- iii) ICJ – International Court of Justice
- iv) ILO – International Labour Organisation
- v) IMF – International Monetary Fund
- vi) UNICEF – International Children’s Emergency Fund.

NB: There are many more specialized Agencies of the UN.

### **Activity**

- a) Compare and contrast the League of Nations and the United Nations. What has led to the UN being more successful than its predecessor?
- b) Describe the functions of the various organs of the United Nations

**Functions of some of these agencies:**

**WHO- World Health Organization-** is responsible for fighting diseases. WHO tries to reduce human suffering and increase the sum of human happiness. WHO provides the staff, the centres and the equipment, medicine and drugs which have been used against Cholera epidemics in Egypt (1949) as well as providing aid for starving and sick children, attacks on preventable disease such as STD's (Sexual Transmitted Diseases), and the spreading of knowledge and medical skills among people in the underdeveloped world (with the help of UNICEF and UNESCO).

**FAO – Food and Agricultural Organisation**

It runs its Headquarters in Rome. It teaches better ways of farming.

In the 1970's, the FAO led a so-called "Green Revolution" in the World's poorer countries.

It developed better kinds of seeds and new ways to tackle pests and disease.

Some of its more important projects have included the combating of locusts in South America, the introduction of school meals in Greece, the development of irrigation and improved farming techniques in South East Asia and the introduction in 1961, of an experimental world food programme to deal with chronic malnutrition and food emergencies. In 1969 it worked out a new world plan for agricultural development to benefit a billion people by 1985. In 1970 its World Food Programme was helping 4½ million people in 75 countries and there were 385 food producing projects in 78 countries being paid for by contributing nations.

**ILO- International Labour organisation**

ILO was actually taken over from the League of Nations. As part of its responsibilities, ILO produced agreements on such matters as the proper inspection of labour conditions in agriculture, paid holidays, minimum wages, youth employment and training schemes for Industrial development. The ILO Assembly meets every year at Geneva with two government, delegates, one employers' delegate and one workers' delegate from each member state.

**IMF – The International Monetary Fund**

IMF was set up shortly after the Second World War in 1946. It was meant to provide the money needed to help countries which had balance of payments problems. Member nations put a ¼ of their own currency into the Fund. They are allowed when in difficulty to draw up to four times that amount in gold whenever they have a balance of payments crisis.

**UNICEF – International Children's Emergency Fund.**

UNICEF often works in collaboration with some other agencies like FAO or WHO or UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation).

**It has provided aid for children:**

- i) Suffering because of war, for example in Nigeria and Vietnam.
- ii) Suffering from epidemics and hunger.

- iii) Suffering from preventable diseases. It has organized the vaccination of 280 million children against Tuberculosis and the treatment of 32 million against malaria.
- iv) In developing and underdeveloped countries it has set up over 40,000 health centres and so helped the work of the WHO.

### Activity

To what extent has the U.N brought about Peace in the Middle East region?

### UN Activities: Failures and Successes

Soldiers from many different countries have seen action as members of UN forces since 1945. Compared to the League of Nations, the UN has been more successful in its peace-keeping efforts, especially in crises which did not directly involve the interests of the great powers, such as the civil war in the Congo (1960- 1962) and the dispute between Holland Indonesia, West New Guinea.

On the other hand, it has often been just as ineffective as the league in situations-such as the Hungarian and Czech Crises-when the interests of one of the great powers, in this case Russia, seemed to be threatened when the great power chose to ignore or defy.

**KOREA.** In 1950, South Korea was attacked by North Korea. The UN sent armies, under American commanders, to defend it. The fighting in Korea went on until a cease-fire was arranged in 1953.

The US President, Truman, sent American soldiers and war planes, mostly from nearby Japan, to fight for the South Koreans. Truman persuaded the UN Security Council to support him. The Russians missed their chance to veto UN support for Truman. They were absent from the Security Council when the vote was taken so the Korean war was largely a UN operation. Sixteen nations including Britain, sent troops to fight for the UN. It should be noted that the war was mainly an American affair. Nine out of every ten soldiers in Korea were American. In fact the whole Korean war was commandeered by an American General, Douglas MacArthur. North Korea had the support of China – a communist nation like her, ruled by Mao Zedong. Mao believed that, if all Korea came under American control, they will use it as their base. The Chinese drove back the advancing Americans. So now the war was mainly between the USA and China. However none of the two officially admitted this.

The Korean War dragged for two and half years before ending in July 1953. The Death of Stalin (leader of Russia) was one reason the Korean War ended. He had been encouraging the Chinese to fight on.

The new American leader President Eisenhower also hinted that he might use atomic weapons if the Chinese did not sign a cease – fire.

The ceasefire left Korea still divided. Yet both sides claimed that they had won a kind of victory. The Chinese said that they had proved that nobody need be afraid of standing up to the Americans. The Americans said that they had shown communists everywhere that it did not pay to try to spread their rule by force. 33 000 Americans had died.

Over 100,000 more had been wounded. Containment in Korea had been expensive. But the Americans felt that it had worked.

- b).**The Congo** - In 1960, the Congo now popularly known as the DRC became independent. Before 1960 Congo was a colony of Belgium. The Belgians had done nothing to prepare the Congo's peoples for independence. The government broke down almost at once. Its



soldiers mutined. The Belgians encouraged the richest part of the country, called Katanga, to break away so that they could still control its rich copper mines.

### **The Security Council rushed UN Soldiers to the Congo.**

Dag Hammarskjöld, the UN Secretary General flew out himself to try to help. He was killed in an aeroplane crash there in 1961. In Congo, the UN tried to protect people's lives and to try to hold the country together. But the Congo's problems were too complicated and there was too much interference from other countries, for the UN forces to solve them. In 1964 the UN forces withdrew and left the Congolese to try to sort out the difficulties for themselves.

NB: It should be noted that the UN failed to register any significant achievements in the civil war in the Lebanon (1975 – 6) and the frontier struggle which followed in southern Lebanon between Palestinians and Lebanese Christians (aided by the Israelis). The UN Interim force in Lebanon numbered 7 000 in difficulties trying to deal with constant battles, assassinations, terrorism and seizing of hostages. During the Falklands war between Argentina and Britain (1982), both sides ignored UN attempts to find a negotiated solution, though the war lasted only three months before the British recaptured the Islands. In the Gulf war between Iran and Iraq which began in 1980 all UN efforts at mediation failed and hostilities dragged on into the eighth year.

### **Activity**

- a) Examine the Role of the Security Council in the activities of the United Nations.
- b) To what extent has the United Nations promoted development in the third world countries?

### **Examination type Questions**

- 1(a) Name any five specialised agencies of the UNO. [5]
- (b) Describe the works of WHO and UNICEF. [12]
- (c) To what extent were the two agencies successful in achieving the aims they were set for? [8]
  
- 2(a) State any five aims of the UN. [5]
- (b) Describe the successes and failures of the UN. [12]
- (c) To what extent was the UN able to achieve its major aims? [8]
  
- 3(a) Identify any five weaknesses of the UN. [5]
- (b) Describe failures and successes of the UN. [12]
- (c) To what extent were the weaknesses of the UN responsible for its failures? [8]

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## **CHAPTER 28**

### **THE COMMONWEALTH**

#### **Chapter Objectives:**

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- a) Describe the structure of the commonwealth
- b) Discuss the role of the commonwealth in international relations
- c) Assess the achievements of the commonwealth.

The Commonwealth is a loose association based on voluntary co-operation in which all member states are equal partners. There is very little formal machinery except the secretariat (set up only in 1965), Regular biennial commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conferences discuss pressing problems and plan mutual aid.

Originally, the commonwealth was an association of Britain and her domains, Canada, Austria, New Zealand and South Africa, drawn up by the 1931 statute of Westminster. Some people used to refer to the commonwealth as the "white man's club."

The Commonwealth changed with the admission of the new Asian and African states, into a multi-racial organization.

#### **Functions of the commonwealth**

The Commonwealth gives an International Forum in which problems of politics, under-development, world peace and environment protection policies can be raised and discussed at the highest level.

The Commonwealth Heads of Government Meetings (CHOGMs) are held every two years. There are also regular, though less frequent meetings of Foreign Education and Finance Ministers. Personal and informal relationships can be made and developed between leaders. Problems can be discussed and new goals set, as well as concrete methods of achieving them in an informal atmosphere. Political causes can be advanced, such as, the ending of white rule in Southern Africa. Since Britain is the most powerful member of the commonwealth, much time is then spent trying to influence Britain to adopt policies that will benefit members.

#### **Structure of the Commonwealth**

A Commonwealth of government meetings (CHOGMS)

CHOGM meetings are held every two years in different commonwealth countries. When Zimbabwe was still a member of the Commonwealth, a CHOGM meeting was held in Harare in 1991. Zimbabwe is currently not a member of the Commonwealth.

The Agenda for the CHOGM meeting is prepared by the Commonwealth Secretariat.

#### **The Secretariat**

The main responsibility of the Secretariat is to organize meetings of Ministers and Heads of Government and provide the necessary information for these. The Secretariat also organizes and supports the growing number of services in the field of development assistance and co-operation. The Secretariat works on an informal and flexible basis, has a small staff and its running costs are also small. The Secretariat staff were appointed for their skills and acceptability to the widest range of members.

### **Divisions of the Secretariat**

- i) The INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS division, organizes meetings and matters of a political nature.
- ii) HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT group, runs various education and training schemes on matters such as Management, Health, Women and Development and Youth.
- iii) THE TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE, administers the commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation.
- iv) THE ECONOMIC AFFAIRS- focuses on developing trade links and export markets, food production and rural development.

### **Heads of Governments Meetings (CHOGM) Since 1971**

1971	-	Singapore
1973	-	Ottawa (Canada)
1977	-	Kingston (Jamaica)
1977	-	London (UK)
1979	-	Lusaka (Zambia)
1981	-	Melbourne (Australia)
1983	-	New Delhi (India)
1985	-	Nassau (The Bahamas)
1987	-	Vancouver (Canada)
1989	-	Kuala Lumpur (Malaysia)
1991	-	Harare (Zimbabwe)

### **Some Commonwealth Members and Dates of Membership**

1.	Australia	-	1931
2.	New Zealand	-	1931
3.	Canada	-	1931
4.	United Kingdom	-	1931
5.	Trinidad and Tobago	-	1976

6.	Somalia	-	1960
7.	Kenya	-	1964
8.	Zimbabwe	-	1980 (but not a member at the moment)
9.	Singapore	-	1965
10.	India	-	1948
11.	Ghana	-	1957

NB: Although the British Monarch remains as the Old Commonwealth, at the Head of the Organization, of late it is only as a titular head without any effective power.

### **The Commonwealth and crises**

Since its foundation, the commonwealth has been confronted by and has had to deal with a number of political crises. Some of the problems threatened to split the organization apart. In 1961 South Africa was forced to leave the Commonwealth because of its Apartheid policies. In 1987 Fiji was suspended after the government which had seized power in a military coup, began to discriminate against Fijians of Indian origin. The Commonwealth played a crucial role in Zimbabwe (1979), India and Pakistan (1965). Both members of the commonwealth went to war with each other.

NB: The most dramatic demonstration of the determination of the Afro- Asian countries to boycott sporting activities with South Africa occurred in the 1986 Edinburgh commonwealth games when African countries boycotted the games in protest against the British Prime Minister Mrs. Margaret Thatcher's unwillingness to impose economic sanctions on South African runner Zola Budd in the British team. Nigeria, Ghana, Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania and India boycotted the games. Pressure by the Afro - Asian countries in the commonwealth as well as in the United Nations, probably contributed significantly to the end of apartheid in South Africa.

### **Activity**

- (a) Outline the work of the Commonwealth of Nations in member countries.
- (b) To what extent has the Commonwealth of Nations cemented cultural ties within the former British colonies.

### **Weaknesses of the commonwealth**

- i) There is great inequality of the members Britain is still the most powerful member together with Australia, New Zealand and Canada (the Old dominions). They are very much wealthier than the rest of the members.
- ii) Divisions within the organization have taken a North – South character, such as in the conflict over South African sanctions.
- iii) The Commonwealth, as seen by many, is merely a way of Britain maintaining a hold over its former colonies and benefiting from maintaining old familiar commercial links and a dependence on British training, cultural values and technology.

**Activity**

- i) Why did Zimbabwe withdraw from the Commonwealth of Nations? What were the effects of such withdrawal to Zimbabwe's international relations?
- ii) How valid is the claim that the Common Wealth is an attempt by Britain to maintain influence over its former colonies?
- iii) Compare and contrast the work of the commonwealth and the United Nations. What weaknesses and strengths do they share n common?

**Examination type questions**

- 1a) Identify five Commonwealth members up to the present date. [5]
- b) Describe the weakness of the Commonwealth of Nations. [12]
- c) To what extent have Africans benefited from the Commonwealth of nations Membership? [8]

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**Glossary**

This section provides working definitions and explanations for the common terms encountered in the teaching and learning of History.

**Social organisation**

This entails a structural set up of a society. It includes values, ethics, norms and taboos of a group of people. Social organisation also includes how people were living in a particular society including their cultural and religious values.

**Political organisation**

This has to do with the system of government for a particular state, the political hierarchy in the state and it also includes duties and responsibilities of their leaders as well as an explanation of the ideological and political control apparatus.

**Economic organisation**

This covers the economy, economic branches, and activities. The role of different societal sections in the general economic set-up as well as the handling of resources for societal development.

**Decline of the state**

This has to do with the fall of a state or its collapse. Factors promoting the fall should be analysed in terms of their relevance. These factors may be internal, external, structural or any other.

**Origins of the state**

This has to do with the formation of a state. Basic questions aiding understanding under this section include; who formed the state? when, how and where?

**Expansion of the state**

Expansion is synonymous with development. It should include factors accounting for the rise of a state and its development from one stage to another.

**Course of a war**

A description of how a war was fought. It includes information on weapons used, leadership belligerents as well as methods of fighting adopted at specific battles.

**Foreign Policy**

These are principles which guide external or international relations between states.

**Domestic Policy**

These are intended programmes within the domains of a state by its leader(s), (Internal plans)  
NB: Domestic policy and foreign policies are normally guided by national political ideologies e.g communism, socialism, capitalism etc.

**Aims**

This term is common in international organisations. It implies long term objectives.

**Achievements**

These are also called successes. They are normally measured in line with the inten