**HISTORY FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL**

**COMPETENCE BASE CURRICULUM**

**LESSON NOTES**

**FORM ONE**

**2024**

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**MEANING, IMPORTANCE AND SOURCES OF HISTORY**

**Meaning of History**

History is the study of events and processes which happened in the past and which might influence the present. These events and processes are about social, political and economic developments of people and society at large. Through studying History, we can able to answer the questions, such as;

* What happened in the past?
* When did the events happen?
* Why did the events happen?
* Who took part in those events?
* How did those events affect people’s lives?

**Importance of studying History**

1. **Understanding our origins**. History enables us to understand our societies and their origins. It gives us a sense of belonging to our community. In this way, History influences us to love our country and its people. Also History helps us to know how and why our present societies differ from those of the past.
2. **Promoting tolerance**. History helps us to see the lives of the people in the past with their struggle. It shows us their actions, courage, wisdom and unity. In this way, we understand the culture and behavior of other people. We also learn to respect and tolerate the differences between people and societies. History teaches us to tolerate those differences.
3. **Learning from past actions**. History teaches us that the actions of one person may affect other people. For example, our ancestors discovered crop cultivation and animal husbandry as well as discovering of fire and iron tools. These activities continue to benefit people up to now. This means that, through studying History, we learn that, events that happened in past societies may have influence other communities
4. **Encouraging search for evidence**. History is based on information collected from various sources. When we get a piece of information, we should ask ourselves questions pertaining to, for example, its source, whether the source is trusted and whether the information might have been distorted and then we our own conclusion.
5. **Appreciating other people’s culture**. History helps us to know that people develop their culture depending on their environments and contacts with other people. Through such contacts, they come to understand the ways of life of other people. Therefore, through studying History, people learn and appreciate the cultures of others in the world.
6. **Promoting patriotism**. History plays a very important role in promoting patriotism. Patriotism means the love of one’s country or nation and willingness to defend it. History promotes this because it teaches how the past and present generations offered their lives to build the nation and to defend it from the enemies.

**SOURCES OF HISTORICAL INFORMATION**

Sources of historical information refer to the various methods that can be used to get the fact of historical information. These sources provide someone with historical knowledge; however none of these sources is self-sufficient in reconstructing the historical facts, they depend one another due to their advantages and disadvantages. These sources include Oral sources, Historical Sites, written records, museums, archives, linguistic, archaeology and anthropology. It is important to remember that, none of these sources is self-sufficient; they depend with one another because each source has advantages and disadvantages.

1. **Oral sources**

These are the sources of getting historical information via the word of mouth. They consist of two ways, namely;

* **Oral tradition (cultural practices).** These are sources that are transmitted from one generation to another through word of mouth like memorized stories, tales, riddles, narrative, poems, songs and prayers. The information given in oral traditions can be presented differently by different people.
* **Oral testimonies (narrations of events)** which are provided by people who participated or witnessed the events or the process being examined. For example the soldiers who participated in the war can provide oral testimonies about the war

In general, oral traditions and oral testimonies have one similarity. They transmitted orally. The difference between them is that the information provided in oral traditions is about the distant past while the information provided in oral testimonies is about the recent past.

**Functions of Oral sources**

1. **They are used to transmit the knowledge**. Both oral tradition and oral testimonies transmit knowledge about cultural beliefs, traditional value and rituals from one generation to another.
2. **They are used to provide education**. Both oral traditions and oral testimonies are used to provide knowledge and skills to both literate and illiterate people in a society. This is because, oral sources contain teachings such as honestly, respect, trustiness, courage and diligence and teach on how to avoid dangers. The knowledge and skills are passed on from one generation to another.
3. **They are used to appreciate and preserve culture**. Both oral traditions and oral testimonies encourage people to appreciate and preserve their culture. Therefore, oral sources used as the channel through which cultural aspects of a certain community are passed on
4. **They are preserve historical information of society**. Both oral tradition and oral testimonies preserve historical information of a particular society by passing the information from one generation to another.
5. **They are used as entertainment**. Both oral traditions and oral testimonies entertain people during various cultural activities such as weddings, crop harvesting and rituals
6. **They are used to control people’s actions**. Through oral traditions, society can express approval or disapproval of people’s actions. Through riddles or songs help to control behavior of the people

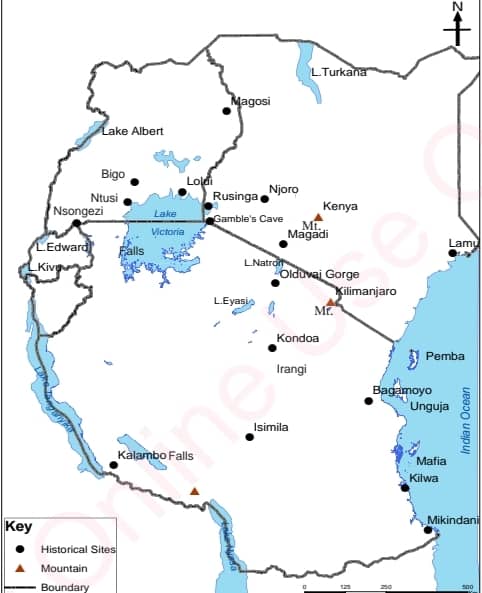
**Advantages of Oral traditions and testimonies**

1. **They encourage people to appreciate and preserve their culture**. Oral tradition and testimonies always preserve and reveals the accurate and important historical information which are not recorded
2. **They involve both literary and non-literary people**. Another merit of oral tradition and testimonies is the involvement of both illiterate and literate people can obtain historical information.
3. **They impart the ethics and values to the next generation**. Within oral tradition and testimonies, there are warning, ethics and teachings which are imparted from the elders to the young
4. **They are less cost**. Oral tradition and testimonies are the easiest and cheapest method of obtaining information which does not need publication of documents.
5. **They are live sources**. Since oral tradition and testimonies involve physical interaction between who intended to acquire information. Where someone does not understand he or she can ask the question to the narrator
6. **They help historians to reconstruct historical information**. Oral sources are the supplement of other sources of historical information. This helps the historians to reconstruct historical information about a certain past event. For instance, a story about a certain king who lived in a certain kingdom can give archaeologists an idea of where to dig in order to get remains of that kingdom.

**Limitations of oral traditions and testimonies**

1. **They need much attention and power of memory**. In both oral tradition and testimonies require too much patience, attention and the power of the memory to the listeners. Its success depend on good memory of the successive generation
2. **False information can be given by a storyteller**. In both oral tradition and testimonies, false information can be obtained. This is because; the narrator can easily distort the information.
3. **Most of its narrations are about people with status**. The narrations of historical events through the use of word of mouth are centered to those people of status such as Kings, Queens and Chief, while talking little about common society or ordinary people such as farmers and watchmen
4. **Sometimes there is problem in language**. In both oral tradition and testimonies, there may be a language problem when narrator uses vernacular language. In this case, the translation of words may be difficult because some languages are not common to all people.
5. **May be difficult to distinguish the real and imaginary information**. In both oral tradition and testimony the narrator may exaggerate the facts, this may cause difficult to the listeners to distinguish what is real and what is imaginary information
6. **Biasness of the information**. In oral sources, information may be biased in favor of a certain thing. For example, the narrator may focus on the success of the community and leave out the weaknesses or failure.
7. **Historical sites**

Historical sites are the places where remains of past human activities and cultures are found. They include remnants of ancient settlements with buildings, dwelling caves and ruins from which various economic activities, as well as dwelling and paintings can be observed. In historical sites we find **man’s physical development, tools** that were made and used from time to time and **past human products and animal bones**. Some of the important historical sites in Tanzania include Olduvai Gorge, Ismila, Kondoa Irangi, Magubike, Bagamoyo, Mikindani, Kilwa, Kaole, Zanzibar Stone Town, Engaruka and Kalambo Falls. In Uganda, they include Nsongezi, Ntusi, Bigo, Magosi and Lolui. In Kenya, they include Lamu, Fort Jesus, Rusinga Islands in Lake Victoria, Olorgesailie, Magadi, Njoro, Gamble Cave and Fort Ternan



*Some examples of Historical sites in East Africa*

**Functions of Historical sites**

1. **They are used to provide important historical information**. Historical sites provide the useful historical information on past human activities. These informations help the historians and researchers to reconstruct the history on past events.
2. **They are used to reveal the knowledge and skills of the past people**. Historical sites provide us the proof on the level of knowledge and skills of the people during the past. Example of such knowledge and skills are rock painting, architecture, ironworks, irrigation tools and food gathering routes.
3. **They are used as entertainment places for the people**. Historical sites act as the place of entertainment for interested people. Accordingly, they may be used as sources of income through tourism.
4. **They act as the symbol of cultural heritage**. Historical sites remain as the symbol of social cultural heritage to the society because they contain a variety of important information about the past human tools, rock paints, buildings, arts etc.
5. **They are used to preserve historical information for the coming generations**. Historical sites help in preserving and passing the information to the next generations. The new generation can learn how to design various tools observed from the historical sites. For example to carve the ornate doors by studying the old Lamu doors or Ngome Kongwe in Pemba.
6. **They are used to retain the original function of the objects**. In historical sites, some of the old buildings retain their original functions up to now. For example, the Roman Catholic Church at Bagamoyo which was built by earliest missionaries in 1872 is still used today for worship and cultural tourism

**Advantages of historical sites**

1. **They preserve evidence of ancient history**. Historical sites preserve evidence of ancient history as they contain different types of ancient information. This helps to reveal past settlement patterns, levels of technology, economic development and political organization reached by the past societies For example, they show us styles of buildings, utensils, working tools and settlement pattern. Good example is the Great Mosque in Kilwa Kisiwani
2. **They preserve ancient objects**. Historical sites are also places for preserving important ancient historical objects. The Historians go in these areas for study and interpret the historical objects found at the site and write the history about the people around the site. In Tanzania, these areas are taken care of by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism through Antiquities Department
3. **They are the centers of tourism**. Some of the historical sites attract both local and foreign tourists who go to these areas for learning about past life. Visiting historical site help people to generate the idea of how life was during the past. Example of the historical sites that are famous tourist destinations in Tanzania are Zanzibar Stone Town, Kilwa, Bagamoyo, and Olduvai Gorge
4. **They are important for conducting historical research**. The historical sites are important for historical research. Researchers obtain useful information for doing research and writing history. In this regard, they use historical sites to complement information collected from other sources of history.
5. **They are important for practical historical learning**. The historical sites are helpful for practical historical learning through observation of past human tools, rock painting. This is important because it transforms theoretical teaching of history to practical historical learning
6. **They are source of income**. The historical sites act as the source of income to both government and individuals. When tourists visit in historical site, they increase the national income through fees imposed to them and individuals increase their income because they have been employed as the tour guiders and in some places other individuals sale the cultural objects to the tourists.

**Limitations of historical sites**

1. **Remoteness of the areas**. Some historical sites are located in remote areas where it is difficult and expensive to visit by roads and other means of transportation. The ancient irrigation system at Engaruka is a good example of such sites
2. **Confusion in interpretation of material remains**. In historical sites there is possibility of creating confusion to interpret the remains found in the historical sites. For example, rock painting in Kondoa Irangi can brings about different interpretations between the historians
3. **Damaged of the material remains**. Some of the remains in historical sites disappear completely. This may be caused by natural and human factors. Natural factors including rainfall, earthquakes, wind, the sun and floods. Human activities including farming and grazing affect the remains in the historical site.
4. **Not everyone can interpret the material remains**. History found in the historical sites cannot be interpreted by everyone, it require a qualified personnel to interpret the information. This bring costful in terms of preservation and management. A professional or expert is needed to manage these sites.
5. **They cannot stand for their own to provide the information**. Historical sites cannot stand for their own to tell the historical facts. This means that historical sites do not fully cater for all historical information required even for societies without documented history
6. **Many of the historical information are based on probabilities**. Many of the historical information found in the historical sites are selected on the basis of probability. For example, it is assumed that early man lived in caves where there was water nearly and plenty of animals to hunt, fish or catch. This therefore brings in the issue of try and fail that in turns becomes costly in terms of time and resources.
7. **Written records**

Witten records are documents that provide historical information. These documents comprise varieties of the written historical information. Through written records the information have been written down in the published documents such as published books, letters, maps, magazines, reports and minutes of meeting. These records are found in various places such as in archives, libraries, museums, offices, individual’s home, religious institutions, educational institutions as well as on the internet. An example of the books written a long time ago is *The Periplus of the Eritrean Sea* that was written by a Greek trader in the First Century CE. Another book is Ptolemy’s *Geography* written in second century CE. These books describe the coastal people of East Africa and their trading activities

**Functions of the written records**

1. **They are used to provide the information about the past events**. Written records provide the historical information about the past events and processes. For example, Maji Maji war and European colonialism in Africa are some of the historical events that were written down on the various historical documents.
2. **They are used to collect and preserve historical information for long period**. Written records are useful in our societies because they preserve historical information for long time. This helps the young generation to understand the activities of their ancestors in struggling to meet their needs. For example in a diary, newspaper or biography.
3. **They help historians to reconstruct the history**. Written records help the historians to write about the past such that the past can be read and understood as history. The historian can built up the history through written records as a source of history.
4. **They are used to store large variety of information**. Written records serve as stores of a large variety of information, including discoveries, government policies, statements, religious beliefs, fashion, speeches and agreement.
5. **They are used to keep records on the reliable evidence.** Written records keep records on the reliable evidence of the information about the historical events happened on the past. This is helpful in preserving the historical information for future generations.
6. **They are used by the readers to reflect the life of the people during the past.** Some of the written records contain real pictures that add meaning and information about the events reported. This provides a graphic picture of a society that gives the reader a mental image of what the lives of people were like at a certain time.

**Advantages of written records**

1. **They can be written and translated into different languages**. The written records can be written and translated into different languages such as Kiswahili, Spanish, Arabic, French and English. Therefore, people in different parts of the world can use them to write history.
2. **They are easily available**. Written records are easily available compared to other sources. This is because; the written materials can be published into many documents and supplied into different parts of the world for the people to read. For example, we can get the newspapers in many town streets such as bus stands and books at the library or bookshop.
3. **They are more accurate.** Written records are more accurate compared to oral traditions as they do not rely on human memory. The information that was recorded in written materials remains as it was recorded. Also, the written material may last for a long time from one generation to another if well kept
4. **They are well organized and logically presented.** Written records are usually well organized and logically. The information in written materials are usually written under specified topics. Thus, make it easy to find the relevant information from them
5. **They are helpful in doing researches.** Written records can be used by the historians and researchers in doing researches. The historians and researchers visit libraries to search for evidence from the written materials and they used them as the references.
6. **They are easier to use.** Written records are relatively easier to use when compared to other sources of historical information like archaeology. The historical information can be obtained easily from the written sources because it involves only reading and taking important notes from the written materials

**Limitations of written records**

1. **They do not contain all the information.** In written records, none of them contains all information in a given topic; it is difficult to read everything from written records. We cannot learn everything from a single written source. Therefore, we must read other sources of historical information.
2. **They are beneficial only to literate people.** Written records are not access to all people in a community; illiterate people cannot get information. People who are unable to read and write cannot use written records for any purpose
3. **They can give wrong information if the author is biased.** The written records are not always reliable; some of them contain wrong or distorted information. They may also promote political, ethnicity, religious or personal interests. For this reasons, written materials must be used with great caution
4. **They can be destroyed if badly kept.** Written records can be destroyed if badly kept. During the disasters, written sources can be destroyed or lost. Disasters like fire, flood, earthquake and war may destroy the written sources. Therefore, special skills and facilities are required to keep them safe.
5. **They may consume time.** Reading written records can be time consuming especially when one needs to read several materials in order to confirm the facts of the information.
6. **They are costful in buying some written materials.** Some of the written materials are too expensive to buy. For example, most of high quality newspapers, academic books and other books are not affordable to many Tanzanians.
7. **Archives**

Archives are the places where, collection of public and private documents and old written records are kept in private or public institutions. They include missionaries and travelers’ records, reports, photographs, old books, colonial records, postcolonial records and files. Archives preserve the documents in order to use for a long time and may be used publicly or confidentiality. There are many archives in Tanzania located in various areas such as Tanzania National Archives- DSM, Zanzibar Institute of Archives and Records, National Record Center-DOM, and Record Centers found in Mbeya, Arusha and Mwanza. Also there are church archives such as Moravian Church Archives in Rungwe and Benedictine Fathers Archives in Peramiho. Currently, archival information may be accessed in two ways which are; manual archives (hard form by visiting the respective archives) and digital archives (online archives)

**Functions of archives**

1. **They preserve historical information**. Archives are used to preserve public and private historical information for public use. These information have enduring value to the society, therefore they are stored safely for the uses of long time.
2. **Records in archives are made available for use by the public**. The public makes the records in archives available for use. However, not all records can be viewed by everyone. There are some that are confidential, but they may later be opened for public use.
3. **They are used to register the records**. The archives staff maintains registers of the records in the archives. These registers make it easy for researchers to establish whether or not what they need is available, and if available where it is in the collection
4. **They are used to restore damaged documents of values**. Archives have facilities for restoring damaged documents of enduring values. This ensures that old but important documents can continue to be used.
5. **They ensure continuity**. The historical information in archives ensures continuity. For instance, company policies from previous years can still guide the employees today.
6. **They ensure important shelters for historical information**. Archives are the most important shelters for historical information. These shelters are specifically designed to reduce the possibility of damage to the materials stored in them from threats by fire, thieves, pests as well as excessive heat and moisture.

**Advantages of archives**

1. **They preserve past and recent documents**. Documents in the archives present information from both recent and distant past. By using these documents, one can trace the continuities of the historical facts or processes over time.
2. **They help people to understand the history of different places**. Usually, archive collect and store the information from different places. This may organize the information that can easily be located or traced by researchers.
3. **They help to give exact and detailed information**. Archives store materials that can be quite detailed, providing in-depth information about people, places, time and events. This helps the people easily to identify the exact time of the historical events.
4. **They are important in providing first-hand information**. Archives are important because they provide first-hand information about individuals and institutions that kept the records. The first-hand information can be obtained from various places.
5. **They are used as the legal evidence**. In the archives, the documents can be used as the legal evidence of the activities and tell us about individual or institution. If there is a legal problem, archives can help. They have official records that can be used as proof.
6. **They keep some documents confidentially**. The documents in archives are confidentially and safely protected because there are some documents that are confidential. This reduces the risk of important material to be missed.

**Limitations of archives**

1. **Archives are expensive to establish and run**. It is costly to set up archives because they involve constructing special buildings. In addition, they need special facilities, skilled personnel and trusted people. There may not be sufficient funds to meet the costs of these requirements.
2. **There are strict regulations to be followed in archives**. Archives apply strict regulations for user to follow. This makes it difficult for the users to obtain and use the records or documents at their own pace.
3. **They are uneven distributed**. Archives are uneven distributed when compared to other sources of History. For example, in Tanzania one has to travel up to Dar es Salaam or Mbeya to visit an archives
4. **They can be time-consuming**. The process of searching information through archives can consume too much time, especially if the documents are not well organized.
5. **They are applicable to the literate people only**. Archives contain old written documents; therefore, those who will be benefited are literate people only. The illiterate people cannot get historical information
6. **Some documents in archives may be damaged or missed**. Some of the documents in archives may be missed or damaged due to the various factors. This may make it difficult for the researchers to get all the information they needed
7. **Museums**

Museums are the places or building in which historical objects are kept. The objects that are kept in museums include; cultural objects relating to religious beliefs and ceremonies, collections of animal and plant fossils such as shells and bones, political objects such as crowns and drums, economic objects such as coins, minerals and cowries and technological objects such as stone tools, iron tools, canoes and clothing. In museums, there are two types of objects, the first type consists of artefacts which include stone tools and iron tools and the second type consists of ecofacts which include human, animal and plant remains. In many countries there are national, regional, district and even village museums. For example in Tanzania, there is the Museum and House of Culture in Dar es Salaam, village Museum in Dar es Salaam, the House of Wonders in Zanzibar, the Maji Maji Museum in Songea, the Natural History Museum in Arusha, the Mwalimu Nyerere Museum in Mara and Arusha Declaration Museum in Arusha. Other museums include the Kalenga Museum in Iringa, the Bujora Museum in Mwanza, and the Moravian Church Museum in Rungwe and the Livingstone Museum in Kigoma.

**Functions of museums**

1. **They are used to preserve objects**. Museums preserve historical objects and artefacts for future generation. For example, some materials may need to be protected from excessive dust, light or moisture.
2. **They used to preserve national heritage**. Museums act as the centers for cultural and national heritage. They also act as the centers for historical information
3. **They are used to exhibit materials**. Many museums have exhibitions of the material objects on public display. They make them available for viewing by the public
4. **They are used to keep varieties of cultural materials**. Museums keep the varieties of cultural materials such as objects and rich information from all over the countries which are beneficial for the present and future generation.
5. **They are used to provide education to the people**. Museums are used to provide education to the people about different cultures. Some of the educational institutions conduct some courses at museums in order to take advantage of the collection. Thus museums help in spreading education.
6. **They are used to conduct research**. Museums are also used to extract much knowledge from the objects collected. Many museums provide the results of the research on their collection

**Advantages of museums**

1. **They provide job opportunities**. Museums are very important because they provide job opportunities to the people. They employ both professional and other workers to perform various duties.
2. **Museums secure artefacts**. Museums are important because they provide security for the artefacts. The artefacts are well preserved so that they cannot be stolen or damaged. These artefacts can be used as sources of historical information for many years.
3. **They are useful in inspiring creativity**. Museums are important because they enable learners to arouse creativity. They stimulate and inspire creativity to the learners and the desire to know more by looking at the items or objects.
4. **They increase national income**. Museums act as the tourist centers in which visitors visit to learn the History of a place. These visitors bring in foreign exchange which helps to develop the region and increase national income.
5. **They are useful in provision of education**. Museums have a wide range of knowledge because of the variety of items available. The visitors can learn about many areas of History. Therefore, museums are useful in providing education to the visitors through informal means.
6. **They encourage love for a History subject**. Museums are the custodians of history, providing a connection to history that can easily be overlooked in the classroom. Visiting to the museums has positive effects to the students on the History subject.

**Limitations of the museums**

1. **They are very expensive to build and maintain**. Museums are very expensive to construct and maintain. The large space is needed to build a museum. Also trained member staff and security of the objects cost a lot of money
2. **Cost efficiency**. It is difficult to all people visit in the museums due to various factors. Not every person can afford to visit museums to due to the cost, distance and museums restriction
3. **Artefacts can be easily destroyed**. Cultural objects kept in museum can be destroyed by many factors such as moisture, dust, insect, rats, and lost its originality. For example the pages of old books may turn yellow. Therefore, much attention is needed to keep material in good conditions
4. **Not all historical objects can be preserved in museums**. Some of the historical remains cannot be preserved in museum due to their nature and size. Examples of such remains are huge commercial ships, ruins of houses and graves.
5. **They consume time**. The historical objects and materials kept in museums do not allowed to be taken out by a historian or researcher for gathering information. Instead, the historians and researchers have to visit several museums with several times for research purpose. This consumes too much time.

1. **Archaeology**

Archaeology is the scientific study of past human activities through material remains. Sometimes, archaeology involves excavating of the remains of man’s past (fossils) in archaeological sites. Such material remains include; pottery, hoes, utensils, bows, arrows, animal bones, seeds, ancient buildings. These remains are called archaeological materials. a person who studies archaeology is called an archaeologist. The famous archaeologists in East Africa were Dr. Louis Leakey and his wife Mary Leakey who worked at Olduvai Gorge in Arusha Tanzania and discovered human skull in 1959 which was named as *Zinjanthropus boisei*

Other Tanzanian archaeologists include Professor Felix Chami, Amin Mturi, Simon Waane, Bertram Mapunda and Audax Mabula.

**Functions of archaeology**

1. **It provides evidence of material culture**. Archaeological remains provide evidence of the material culture during a certain period of History. For example, the tools people used and the clothes they wore
2. **It is used to date materials from the past**. Archaeological methods are used to date materials from the past. This gives a sense of time to historical events
3. **It provides historical knowledge about the past**. Archaeology is used to provide the means to learn of the existence and behaviors of people of the past. Archaeologists use material remains to learn how people lived in a specific time and place.
4. **It is used to reconstruct the history**. Archaeology helps the archaeologists and historians to reconstruct the history of past events using evidence obtained from archaeological activities. For example, past settlements patterns can be reconstructed from excavated remains.
5. **It is used in conducting research**. Archaeology is used to conduct the research about the historical event of a certain area. Archaeologists can work for research organizations in order to provide the evidence of human culture by examining artifacts like tools, buildings, burial sites, pottery and clothing
6. **It is used to identify the changes of human activities during the past**. Archaeology helps the archaeologists and historians to understand the past and how human societies and their activities had changed over time. Through archaeological remains, the archaeologists and historians may understand the diversity of human culture and their interaction with environment

**Advantages of archaeology**

1. **It is useful because it based on actual material objects**. Archaeology uses material remains of things made and used during the past. For that reason, it can describe people’s past cultures more reliably compared with other sources.
2. **It gives details of the material culture of a society**. Archaeology can give details of the material culture of a society. For example, the type of ornaments people wore or money they used during the past.
3. **It helps archaeologists to determining the dates of the objects**. Using archaeological methods, objects can be dated to give an idea of when they were used and therefore when thing happened during the past. Archaeologists use Carbon-14, which is scientific method to determine the date of the objects. This helps us to know when and how people lived in a certain place and at what time.
4. **It complements other sources of History**. Archaeology is useful because it adds some evidence to other sources of History. For example. Some materials excavated by archaeologists can be kept in museums for future generation.
5. **It is useful method of revealing economic and technological activities**. Archaeology helps us to reveal the technology, pastoral, agriculture and commercial activities conducted by people during the past. This is through cross examining the remains excavated by the archaeologists.
6. **It helps us to know the relationship between people during the past**. Through archaeology, we can know the past relationship between different people and their activities such as trading activities, migration, marriage and political relation.

**Limitations of archaeology**

1. **Not all material remains can be recovered**. Some of the cultural remains cannot survive long in the ground. Plants and some bones decay quickly when buried. Therefore, some of the material remains that could tell about the past cannot be found
2. **It is very expensive**. Archaeological research require a lot of money for buying excavation equipments, travel to and from the sites, camping facilities, storage and carrying facilities. The money required to meet these costs may not be available.
3. **It consumes too much time**. Archaeological works is a long process that involves surveying, excavating the site to get the remains and analyzing materials. Therefore, all these processes consume a lot of time.
4. **Lack of equipped laboratories**. Most of the laboratories equipped for analyzing and dating artifacts are found in developing countries. There are few archaeological experts and facilities in Tanzania. For this reason, artifacts from Tanzania often have to be taken abroad to be examined.
5. **Dates may not be accurate**. In archaeological findings, sometimes dating of the artefacts is done by estimation. Therefore, the dates arrived at may not be accurate.
6. **It cannot give out full details of the given historical events**. The remains that are excavated cannot tell the details of a given historical events. So, we cannot depend on archaeology only as a complete source of History.
7. **Historical linguistic**

Historical linguistics is one of the methods of obtaining historical information by studying language and their change. Through this method, the origin of people is traced by studying their language. By doing so, historical linguistic and historians discover past human migrations and interactions. They can even tell when contacts between specific groups of people occurred. For example, Arabic words such as *shukran, madrasa, kalamu, kitabu* and *Alhamis* in Kiswahili reveal the contacts between Arabs and Swahili that occurred along the coast of East Africa before colonialism. The greatest period of contact can be determined by looking at when a good number of Arabic words were introduced into Kiswahili.

1. **Anthropology**

Anthropology is a discipline that deals with the study of cultural practices and patterns of human societies. In particular, it studies human societies in terms of their origin, development, customs, beliefs and taboos. People who study these issues are called anthropologists. They travel around the world to study and record the cultures of existing societies. Anthropologists use long and intensive field work approach by staying in such societies for relatively long periods. Through a deep examination of existing societies, anthropologists give various historical information on matters pertaining to such societies. This information enables historians to reconstruct the past. Good examples are the works done by anthropologists such as Allan Jacobs on the Maasai communities, Monica and Godfrey Wilson on Nyakyusa, John Beattie on Bunyoro, Aidan Southall on the Alur and Simeon Mesaki on the Sukuma

1. **Ethnographic records**

These records are made by people who encountered societies other than their own. They include written records and images recorded on tapes and films. In Africa, these records were mostly made by Europeans who travelled across the continent for various reasons during pre-colonial and colonial times. They recorded information on subjects such as cultural practices and customs observed during their stay on the continent. This was long before the start of anthropology as a discipline. People who recorded this ethnographic information cannot be referred to as anthropologists because anthropological work involves a lot more that the simple recording of cultural practices and customs.

**DATING METHODS IN HISTORY**

Historians divide time into several categories, namely

* **Day**- is a period of twenty four hours (24hrs)
* **A Week**- is a period of seven days (7days)
* **Month**- is the period of four week (4 weeks) or thirty days (30 days)
* **A year**- is the period of twelve months (12 months)
* **Decade**- is a period of ten years (10 years)
* **Generation**- is a period of time that that it takes for children to grow into adulthood and have children of their own (average differences on age between parents and his or her children). This period is usually 30 years
* **Century**- is a period of one hundred years (100 years)
* **Millennium**- is a period of one thousand years (1,000 years)
* **Age-** is a period during which a particular historical phenomenon dominated and it based on man’s economic activities. It may cover several years, decade, centuries or millennia. Known age in history include the Stone Age, the Iron Age, the Nuclear Age and the Digital Age
* **Period**- is determined by one continuous event lasting a number of years. Example includes the period of long-distance trade in East Africa, the period of the slave trade and the period of the colonial rule in Tanzania.

**How to divide time**

In order to divide time, a starting point has been chosen. This is known as year zero. This period from zero onwards is called the Common Era (CE). Initially, this period was known as *Anno Domino* (AD), which meant years after the birth of Jesus Christ, and years starting from lower to higher. Thus, we say Julius Nyerere was born in 1922 and died in 1999 CE. The period before zero years is called Before Common Era (BCE), which was previously known as Before Christ (BC), and the years stated from high to low. Thus, we say the ruler of the Roman Empire, Julius Caesar, was born in 100 BCE and died in 44 BCE

**How to determine dates**

Dates are instrument in a science of history, there are four main ways of determining dates, namely recalling events, language studies, carbon 14 dating and Potassium argon

1. **Recalling events**

In this method, one has to remember important events. Examples of such events are famines, wars, and drought, eclipse of the sun or moon, volcanic eruptions, flood, epidemics, the arrival of strangers, age groups, births and deaths. This method is very useful in studying societies which did not keep written records.

1. **Language studies**.

Dates can also be determined by studying languages. Some names help people to remember dates of some events. For example, foreign names and words have been introduced into Kiswahili over a long period. One of such words is *Karafuu*, which means cloves. Thus, by determining when the words *karafuu* started being used in Zanzibar or along the East African coast, we can tell when cloves began to be grown there.

1. **Carbo-14 dating**

This is the scientific method of determining dates. It is used in finding dates for remains of animals and plants which died over 5000 years but not more that 150000 years ago. Carbon- 14 is an elements found in carbon dioxide which is absorbed by plants and other living things. When living things die, Carbon-14 starts leaving them at a constant rate. In laboratories, scientists measure the amount of carbon 14 that has remained in particular animal or plant remains in order to find out the number of years that have passed since the plant or animal died.

1. **Potassium- argon**

Archaeological materials that last beyond years can be dated using another scientific method known as Potassium- argon. This technique is used to date inorganic materials associated with volcanic remains that lasted beyond 150000 years.

**How to order historical events/showing the order of events**

Historians use illustration to show how historical events followed each other. These illustrations include time lines, time graphs, time chart and family tree.

**Time line**

Time line is a line a long which dates and events are shown in the order they followed in History. Time line can be horizontal or vertical

Samia S. Hassan 2021-to date

John P. Magufuli 2015-2021

Jakaya M. Kikwete 2005-2015

Benjamin W. Mkapa 1995-2005 Samia Magufuli Kikwete Mkapa Mwinyi Nyerere

Ali Hassan Mwinyi 1985-1995 to date-2021 2021-2015 2015-2005 2005-1995 1995-1985 1985-1964

Julius K. Nyerere 1964-1985

*Vertical and horizontal time lines*

**Time chart**

Time chart is a table that shows historical dates and events in the order they followed. Below is the example of time chart

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Year | President |
| 1964-1985 | Julius Kambarage Nyerere |
| 1985-1995 | Ali Hassan Mwinyi |
| 1995-2005 | Benjamin William Mkapa |
| 2005-2015 | Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete |
| 2015-2021 | John Pombe Magufuli |
| 2021-present | Samia Suluhu Hassani |

**Time graph**

Time graph is a drawing that shows how dates and events are related. An example of the time graph indicating the sequence of presidents of the United Republic of Tanzania

Samia Suluhu Hassan

2021 to present

John P. Magufuli

2015-2021

Jakaya M. Kikwete

2005-2015

Benjamin W. Mkapa

1995-2005

Ali Hassan Mwinyi

1985-1995

Julius K. Nyerere

1964-1985

**Family tree**

Family tree is a chart that shows and represents the relationship between members of the family over a period of time in a conventional tree structure. Usually, family tree presented with the oldest generations at the top of the tree and the younger generations at the bottom. Below is an example of the family tree

1918 Great grandmother was born

1911 Great grandfather was born

1908 Great grandmother was born

1910 Great grandfather was born

1916 Great grandmother was born

1913 Great grandfather was born

1918 Great grandmother was born

1904 Great grandfather was born

1936 Zawadi was born

1931 Jumanne was born

1925 Katunzi was born

1933 Bahati was born

1957 Riziki was born

1952 Huruma was born

1977 Koletha was born

**HUMAN EVOLUTION, TECHNOLOGY AND ENVIRONMENT**

**Theories of the origin of the human being**

A theory is a way of explaining something different from other way. There are two theories on the origin of human being, namely the theory of creation (religion theory) and theory of evolution

**Creation theory**

This is the religion theory which explains that, man was created by Almighty God. This theory describes the existence of super natural power that creates the world and everything within it, and all creatures including human being were created by that super natural power who is Almighty God. According to the Holy religious books **QUR’AN (Surah: 32:7, Sajdah)** and **BIBLE (Genesis 1:26),** the first man who was created by Almighty God is **ADAM** and later his wife **HAWA** from his left rib. These two creatures were allowed by God to live in the Paradise, but Satan induced them to do mistake by eating the fruit of a certain tree in paradise. This mistake made them to be released from the Paradise to the earth. These two creatures established their relationship in the earth and this marked the beginning of human family and people in the world increased through biological reproduction. Up to 19th century, no one could challenge or criticize this theory.

**Evolution theory**

Evolution of man is the gradual changes of man from the lower stage to higher stage due to the environment. Evolution theory is the scientific explanation about the classification of humans. This theory states that, human being was from the family (species) of primate with other non-human creatures such as gorillas, chimpanzees, monkeys and apes. All these creatures shared common ancestor known as *Primate* and their body were covered with a lot of air. With time, due to environmental changes human being was identified to be belonged to their class called *Homnid* or *Hominid* (from the word Human) which differentiated human being with other creatures from the same family in terms of biological and genetic features. Human beings split from non-human creatures and started to live in open grassland. Environment forced them to adopt new way of walking. The forelimbs instead of walking become special for tool making and using and the hind limbs allowed man to stand upright. They walked with two limbs which was known as **Bipedalism**. In this theory, human creatures underwent various changes until they became modern humans of today. The founder of this theory was **Charles Darwin**

**Evidence of evolution of human being**

There are two pieces of evidence supporting the theory of evolution, namely; comparative studies of modern animals and fossil evidence.

**Comparative studies of the evolution of human being**

Evidence from comparative studies of the evolution of human teaches us that two groups of animals with similar features have the same ancestor. Therefore, the similarity of the features of humans to those of monkeys suggest that humans and monkeys share a common ancestor

**Fossil evidence of the evolution of human being**

This evidence is based on animal bones that have survived for many years under the ground. They are used to give evidence of the gradual change in the shape of human as well as technological development. Fossil evidence has shown three main groups of the ancestors of human being: *Ardipithecu/Hominids, Australopithecus* and *Homo*

1. ***Ardipithecus/Hominid***

This is the earliest evidence of human ancestor who lived from about 5.8 BCE to 4.4 BCE million years ago. *Ardipithecus* had more ape-like features which were different with other creatures such as strong teeth with small enamel, strong arms, reproduction system and bones. *Ardipithecus* was discovered at the Omo archaeological site in Ethiopia.

1. ***Australopithecus***

*Australopithecus* is another evidence of human ancestor who lived from about 4.2 BCE to 2.0 BCE million years ago after disappearance of *Ardipithecus*. *Australopithecus* means the southern ape. It was discovered in various areas and was given different names such as; it was first discovered in Taung site, South Africa by Raymond Dart and named *Australopithecus africanus*. Other discoveries were in Laetoli, Tanzania and Afar Ethiopia and named *Australopithecus aferensis*, in Swartkrans, South Africa and named *Australopithecus robustus* and in Olduvai Gorge Tanzania and named *Australopithecus boisei*

1. ***Homo***

About 2.5 million years ago the creature called *Homo* appeared. It was discovered and named *Homo* because it was believed to represent the first modern human being*. Homo* differed from *Australopithecus* by having a smaller body size, relying on meat and having a bigger brain size. More importantly, Homo started making and using tools. Genus *Homo* is divided into several species including *Homo habilis*, *Homo erectus*, *Homo sapiens* and *Homo sapiens sapiens*

1. ***Homo habilis***

*Homo habilis* lived approximately between 2.5 BCE and 1.6 BCE million years ago. They were the first human being able to make and use tools. That is why they were nicknamed the ‘handyman.’ Fossil evidence of *Homo habilis* has been found at Olduvai Gorge in Tanzania, Koobi For a in Kenya and Sterkfontein in South Africa.

1. ***Homo erectus***

*Homo erectus* lived approximately between 1.9 BCE million to 300.000 BCE years ago. They were the first to make advanced stone tools called hand axes. Due to their more advanced brain size than that of *Homo* *habilis, Homo erectus* was the first human to learn how to make and use fire for roasting meat and warmth. The fire also enabled them to migrate from Africa and live in other parts of the world. In this case*, Homo erectus* was the first human to move out of Africa into Asia and Europe. Fossil evidences of *Homo erectus* have been found at Olduvai Gorge in Tanzania, Koobi Fora in Kenya, Zhoukoudian in China and Dmanisi in Georgia.

1. ***Homo sapiens***

*Homo sapiens* lived approximately between 400,000 BCE and 70,000 BCE years ago. Some of the sites in Africa where *Homo sapiens* have been found include Leotoli, near Lake Eyasi and Lake Ndutu in Tanzania, Bondo in Ethiopia, Broken Hill in Zambia, Taung Cave in South Africa, Tangiers in Morocco and Taramsa in Egypt. Examples of sites outside Africa include the Tabun cave in Israel, Krapina in Croatia and Saccopastore in Italy

1. ***Homo sapiens sapiens***

These were the forefathers and mothers of modern human beings. Their fossil remains are spread all over the world. They date approximately between 150,000 BCE and 20,000 BCE years ago. They had relatively larger brain size than that of *Homo sapiens*. These modern humans were found in Nasera and Mumba rock shelter in Arusha, Tanzania, Middle Awash in Ethiopia, as well as in Border Cave and Klasies River Mouth Cave in South Africa.

**Human Technology**

Evolution of the human being went together with technological development. This development passed through two common ages, namely; the Stone Age and the Iron Age.

**Stone Age**

Stone Age refers to the period in human history when stone mainly was the main material which was used in making tools and weapons. Human beings mainly used stone tools to meet their needs. Most likely, our ancestors also made non-stone tools by using softer materials such as bones, wood and plant fibers. Stone Age was divided in three phases, namely; Early or Old Stone Age, Middle Stone Age and Late or New Stone Age

1. **Early or Old Stone Age**

This was the first period of Stone Age which was approximately lasted from 3.0 BCE to 400,000 BCE years ago. During this period man made and used simple stone tools for hunting and gathering. They hunted wild animals like antelopes, hares, etc and gathered fruits, roots, mushrooms, wild honey, insects and eggs from the surrounding environment. The Early Stone Age was characterized by use of two types of tools, namely *Oldowan* and *Acheulian.*

***Oldowan* stone tools**

*Oldowan* tools were named after they have been discovered at Olduvai Gorge in Tanzania. They have also been found on shores of Lake Turkana in Kenya and the Omo Hadar valley in Ethiopia. The tools were simple and crude and they were obtained from hard natural rocks; sometimes, little modifications were made. In some cases, such stones were not modified at all; instead they were used to perform certain task as they were picked. The *Oldowan* tools included flakes, choppers and cores. These tools were used for simple activities such as killing, skinning animals, breaking bone to get marrow, breaking nuts and digging roots. The maker of *Oldowan* tools was *Homo habilis*

***Acheulian* stone tools**

*Acheulian* stone tools were discovered first at St. Acheul in France. These tools were more advanced than the *Oldowan* tools because they were made by breaking small sharp pieces of stones from hard bigger rocks. This process is called flaking. The Acheulian stone tools included hand axes, cleavers and picks. They were used for heavy-duty activities such as cutting trees, killing animals and processing meat. The maker of Acheulian stone tools was Homo erectus. Acheulian stone tools are found in Isimila, Olduvai Gorge, Lake Natron and Laetoli in Tanzania. Lake Turkana in Kenya and St. Acheul in France. Apart from making stone tools, Homo erectus lived together in small camps, hunted animals and shared food.

**Physical changes in human being during the Early or Old Stone Age**

In Early Stone Age, the physical changes in human beings involved three stages, namely; *Australopithecus*, *Homo habilis* and *Homo erectus*

***Australopithecus***

1. Was characterized by a hairy body which helped to protect them from cold
2. Had large jaws and teeth
3. Had small brain size but larger than that of chimpanzees which was about 400 cranial capacity (cc)
4. Their bodies were like those of chimpanzees
5. Their leg and pelvis were like those of human beings
6. The body size of women was smaller than that of men
7. They walked in two limbs (Bipedalism) and the evidence of Bipedalism is found at Laetoli in Arusha were *Australopithecus afarensis* left their footprint on volcanic ashes about 3.5 million years ago

***Homo habilis***

The features of Homo habilis during this stage included the following

1. They had modern human shape with large brain than that of *Australopithecus*, ranging from about 500cc to 800cc
2. They had prolonged face and smaller jaws and smaller teeth.
3. They had longer arms and shorter legs than that of modern humans.
4. The males were heavier and taller than females

***Homo erectus***

1. They were complete upright creatures and could communicate through speech
2. They had larger brain than that of *Homo habilis*. It ranged between 700cc to 1,250cc
3. They had a flat face, thicker skull, bones and smaller teeth than that of *Homo habilis*
4. Their arms and legs were similar to those of modern humans

Hunting wild animals and gathering roots, tubers eggs and fruits were the main activities of obtaining food

1. **Middle Stone Age**

The Middle Stone Age covered the period approximately between 500.000 BCE and 50,000 BCE years ago. The main difference between the Middle Stone Age and the Old Stone Age lies in the quality of the tools made. During this period, tools were better and specialized than Old Stone Age tools. They were smaller, sharper and easier to handle. Examples of Middle Stone Age tools included spears, arrowheads, knives, scrapers and stone picks. The makers of tools during this period were Homo erectus and Homo sapiens. The evidence of Middle Stone Age tools have been found at Olduvai Gorge, Lake Eyasi basin, Laetoli, Isimila and Kilwa in Tanzania; Koobi Fora and Chesowanja in Kenya and Swartkrans in South Africa.

**Features of Middle Stone Age**

1. People developed the culture of obtaining food through hunting and gathering
2. People managed to live in different environments such as in grassland, rock shelters, river valley, riverine areas and highlands
3. They did rock painting and personal decoration
4. There was the discovering of fire as the technological development

**Fire discovery during the Middle Stone Age**

At first, man discovered fire through striking stones against each other. Later on, they learnt how to make fire by hand drilling a stick on a dry wood. Man who was scratching pieces of wood using his hands discovered fire. The more he continued scratching, the pieces of wood got heat the smoke come out, the scratch caused friction of scratched wood and led to emission of fire. With fire, man managed to control his environment better than before

**Importance of fire discovering**

1. **It helped human to live in cold areas**. With fire, the human could warmly his body himself by fire and he was able to live in the cold areas
2. **It led to the improvement in tools making**. Fire was used to turn some plants gums into glue, such glue was used to attach spears and arrows sharp point into wooden shafts. This improvement was a significant advancement in hunting techniques.
3. **It enabled human to roast food**. The discovering of fire helped human to eat the roasted food such as meat instead of eating them raw
4. **It enabled human to defend himself dangerous animals**. Fire discovery helped human to chase and kill the dangerous animals such as lion, cheetah, etc
5. **It enabled human being to clear bushes**. Human being used fire to burn trees and bushes in order to drive or kill the animals
6. **It provided light to human**. The fire discovery was important because human being used fire to provide the light during the night

**Physical changes of human beings during the Middle Stone Age**

1. Human beings became more intelligent than before. This is because they had developed bigger brains that ranged approximately between 900cc and 1,300
2. Human beings contained features of both Homo erectus and modern human beings
3. Human beings had larger bodies and heavy muscles
4. Human being had thick chests, well-rounded forehead and smaller teeth than those of the Old Stone Age people

**How human beings obtained food during the Middle Stone Age**

During this period, human beings were able to prepare good tools from stones and woods that enabled them to hunt large animals such as buffaloes, rhinoceros and elephant that provided sufficient food for families and communities. Men also engaged in other activities like fishing and gathering

1. **The Late or New Stone Age**

The Late Stone Age or New Stone Age existed from approximately 50,000 BCE to about 1500 BCE years ago. Tools made in this period were better and more efficient than those made in the Middle Stone Age. They included various types of blades, stone axes, barbed arrows and spears. The makers of these tools were *Homo sapiens sapiens*. In addition to making stone tools, *Homo sapiens sapiens* made non-stone items from bones, beads, feathers and eggshells. The tools during this period were known as *microliths* and some of them were hafted onto wooden shafts or handles to form composite tools which were easier to use and more effective. The Late Stone Age witnessed major cultural and technological improvements. For example, by 6000 BCE, there were settled fishing communities near lakes Edward, Rudolf, Victoria and along Nile river. Such fishermen used barbed bone points and harpoons for fishing. Examples of the Late Stone Age sites in East Africa are Mumba rock shelter, Nasera rock shelter and Kisesa in Tanzania, Gambles Cave and Enkapune ya Muto in Kenya and Magosi in Uganda

**Physical changes of human beings during the Late Stone Age**

1. During the Late Stone Age, human beings had smaller teeth than it was during other stone ages that were adapted to eating softer food.
2. Human beings had a large brain capacity of about 1,300cc-1450cc.
3. The shape of the skull was similar to that of modern human beings
4. Human beings walked upright with two limbs during this period
5. The body of human being had less hair than before
6. Human beings had smaller brows, high forehead, little facial projection, light built jaws and smaller limb bones.

**Major changes in human beings’ way of life during the Late Stone Age**

1. **Development of agriculture**. During Late Stone Age, human beings developed crops cultivation such as wheat, barley, palm oil, millet and yam. Also animals like cattle, sheep and got were kept.
2. **Creation of permanent settlement**. This period marked the beginning of settled communities. Agriculture required farmers to settle and prepare the field plants, weed and harvest. This forced man to build simple houses for shelter.
3. **Creation of labour specialization**. At the family level men hunted and performed activities such as pastoralism and fishing while women were responsible for taking care of the family including domestic activities.
4. **Growth of population**. During the Late Stone Age there was the increase of population. People were now able to get enough food hence population growth occurred.
5. **Development of arts and crafts**. During the Late Stone Age, man developed arts like rock painting, pottery, weaving and carving.
6. **Development of religion**. During the Late Stone Age people were interested to practice traditional religion. People started to be interested in natural phenomena such as season, weather, climate and life after death.

**Iron Age**

Iron Age was the period where human beings started to use iron to make tools and weapons. In Africa, south of Sahara, iron technology developed between 500 BCE to 600CE. Iron tools enabled human being to master the environment more efficiently than during the Stone Age period. Therefore, iron technology was the important technology innovation in pre- colonial Africa. Iron production in Africa, particularly southern Sahara, started in the basins of river Niger and Congo from the first millennium BCE. From there, the technology spread to other parts in Africa. The centers of ironworks were Nsukka and Taruga in Nigeria, Meroe in Sudan, Aksum (Auxum) in Ethiopia, Tunis in Tunisia and Cairo in Egypt. In Tanganyika, iron technology was discovered earlier in Engaruka, Uvinza, Karagwe, Ugweno, Olduvai Gorge, Limbo, Ntuha, Dakawa, Ufipa and Usambara mountains

**The discovery of iron**

It is believed that, iron was discovered when human beings were using fire to burn bushes. The fire melted iron ore that was on the earth surface and the iron ore could be melted when heated and could be hard again when cooled. Later on, human being started to forge the melted iron ore to make tools. Iron forging on the other hand meant processing and shaping smelted iron into usable objects such as hoes, axes, knives and machetes.

**Iron smelting and forging**

Smelting of iron began with the collection of iron ore and charcoal then involved the construction of furnaces and blowpipe (*tuyere*) as well as bellows. Iron smelting furnaces in African societies were of two basic types. The first type was a bowl-like which was dug below the ground. The second type was a construction of circular clay on the ground that was approximately a meter or two meters high. Iron ore and charcoal were put into it through blowpipe *(tuyere*) that was connected to the bellows. Then the furnace was lit while air into it through tuyere that were connected to bellows. Air from bellows entered the furnaces through *tuyere*. There are plenty of remains showing that iron smelting and forging was widespread in Africa. Examples of such remains include furnaces, *tuyere*, bellows, blooms, slags, anvils and iron objects. The people who dealt with iron working were called **Blacksmiths**.

**Advantages of producing and using iron tools**

1. **Expansion of agriculture**. Agriculture expanded because people started to use better iron tools such as machetes, axes and hoes for production that enabled human being to cultivate large pieces of land than before.
2. **Consolidation of settled life**. Expansion of agricultural activities led to the production of sufficient and surplus food. This encouraged the formation of large communities which produced food.
3. **Population increase**. Surplus food production increased population. This was resulted from the immigration of people from different regions to iron producing areas.
4. **Emergence of chiefdom and kingdoms**. The use of iron weapons increased wars among different groups. These situations needed permanent and centralized political organization in the form of state to resolve problems and conflicts. This led to the rise of chiefdoms and kingdoms.
5. **Increased efficiency in hunting**. The use of iron weapons such as arrows and spears improved hunting and made the process more efficient. This is because iron tools were more effective than stone tools in hunting.
6. **Improvement of self-difence**. The use of weapons such as arrows and spears helped people better to defend themselves against wild animals than the time they were using stone tools
7. **Emergence of specialization**. Iron tools increased food production that made other people to specialize in other activities such as basketry, pottery, pastoralism and fishing.

**DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURE IN PRE-COLONIAL AFRICAN SOCIETIES**

**Agriculture**

Agriculture is an economic activity involving crop cultivation and keeping livestock. Agriculture started at the end of the Late Stone Age after human beings had improved their tools for production. The kind of crops cultivated or animals kept in an area depended on the environment and the efficiency of the tools used. Examples of crops cultivated in pre-colonial Africa were maize, sorghum, millet, yams and wheat. Domesticated animals included cattle, goats and sheep. Agriculture started at the end of the Late Stone Age after human beings had improved their tools for production

**Factors that influenced agricultural activities in pre-colonial Africa**

1. **Environmental factors**. Agricultural practices were influenced by environmental factors such as weather conditions, diseases and vegetation cover. These factors determined the types of economic activities undertaken in a given place. For example, crops like banana and wheat were cultivated in areas that received relative high amount of rainfall.
2. **Technological advancement**. Technological advancement improved human lives in a given environment. For example, the discovery of ironworking enabled human beings to develop tools for agricultural production.
3. **Increased of population**. As the human population increased, the natural environment could not provide adequate and regular food. People had to look for and alternative means of getting reliable food supplies.
4. **Change of climate**. Climatic changes such as increased drought and resultant aridity threatened plants and animals life. This meant that, man could not rely on the nature alone for survival.
5. **Availability of plants and domesticated animals**. There were availability of plants and animals in the environment that could be domesticated easily

**Types of agricultural practices in pre-colonial Africa**

There were three types of agricultural practices in pre-colonial Africa. These were crop cultivation, pastoralism and mixed farming.

1. **Crop cultivation**

Crop cultivation is a type of agriculture involving the use of land to grow different types of crops. There were two types of crop cultivation during the pre-colonial period namely, shifting cultivation and permanent crop cultivation.

1. **Shifting cultivation**

Shifting cultivation involves the movement of farmers from one place to another. This type of crop cultivation was common in grassland areas with long dry seasons and scattered trees. An area with such natural vegetation is known as savannah. Ethnic groups that practiced shifting cultivation in Tanzania included Yao, Makonde, Mwera, Sukuma and Nyamwezi. In savannah areas, soils were light and fertile. However, soil fertile in these areas exhausted quickly after a few years of cultivation. Human settlements in these areas were in short time and shifted when their land was exhausted. They moved on to open new agricultural land and settled there to begin crop cultivation afresh.

1. **Permanent crop cultivation**

Permanent crop cultivation involved farming of permanent crops. This was practiced in fertile areas with heavy rainfall and thick vegetation. In this type of agricultural practices, permanent crops such as yams, kola nuts, palm oil, pumpkins and bananas were grown. In Tanzania, some of those crops were grown in Kagera, on the slop of the Kilimanjaro and Meru mountains, Uluguru highlands, Usambara mountains and the southern highland of Tanzania (Mbeya and Iringa). Such crops were also grown in the central highlands of Kenya and the Buganda region in Uganda

**Advantages of permanent crop cultivation**

1. It led to the increase of agricultural production in the communities
2. It stimulated population growth since there was adequate food
3. It stimulated the exchange of goods or trade activities among the people
4. It led to the permanent settlements
5. It led to the emergence and growth of centralized political systems like chiefdoms and kingdoms
6. It encouraged the improvement of farming technology that increased production.

**Techniques invented in shifting and permanent cultivation for improving crop yield**

1. **Terracing**. Terracing are flats step-like areas that are cut into the side of a hill or slop to manage loose of soils in slop regions. This technique was used by Nyakyusa, Shambaa, Sukuma and Nyamwezi. This technique conserved water and prevented soil erosion
2. **Digging water channel**. Also water channels were dug in the gardens to keep rainwater that prevented soil erosion
3. **They made mounds**. Also people made mounds on which they planted crops such as yams and potatoes. Such mounds kept rainwater and prevent soil erosion
4. **Crops rotation.** This involved the seasonal rotation of crops on the same pieces of land in order to increase soil fertility. When various crops used different nutrient from the soil, crops rotation ensured that soil fertility was protected
5. **The use of fertilizers**. People also made and used composite manure as well as manure produced by cattle and goat
6. **Irrigation.** Irrigation is the use of channels or pipes to supply water to a pieceof land. Some people who lived in the highlands such as Chagga, Pare and Shambaa dug irrigation furrows into their farms
7. **Pastoralism**

Pastoralism refers to keeping and grazing livestock. People who practiced pastoralism were called pastoralists. Ancient pastoral communities kept animals such as cattle, sheep, camel, donkeys and goats. Livestock served several purposes. For example, they provided meat, milk, blood, manure and hides or animal skins. In some societies, animals like camels and donkeys were used for transportation (to carry people and goods). In many societies, livestock was a source of wealth. Pastoralism is common in arid, semi-arid and savannah or tropical grassland areas in pre-colonial Africa. There were two types of pastoral societies, namely nomadic and sedentary or settled pastoralists.

1. **Nomadic pastoralists**

These pastoralists often moved from one place to another in searching of water and pastures for their livestock. They lived on milk, meat and blood. They also ate vegetables and food grains such as maize and sorghum that obtained through exchange with neighbouring agricultural communities which needed livestock products. Nomadic pastoralists were war-like people; they were always ready to fight in defence of their wealth. They raided their neighbours for livestock from time to time. Examples of nomadic pastoralists were Tuaregs of North Africa, the Fulani of northern Nigeria, the Somali of Somalia and Kenya, the Karamajong of northern Uganda and the Maasai of Tanzania and Kenya

1. **Sedentary pastoralists**

Sedentary pastoralists did not move from one place to another. Instead, they settled in one place and grazed their animals. They kept fewer animals than nomadic pastoralists who owned big herds. Members of the same family shared meat, milk and animals skins obtained from their herds. An example of such societies is the Sukuma of Tanzania

1. **Mixed farming**

Mixed farming was the type of agriculture which combined both animal keeping and crop cultivation. It was practiced in areas with heavy rainfall as well as in grasslands with seasonal rainfall and woodland savannah. It was practiced by people such as Gogo, Sukuma, Nyamwezi, Hutu, Ankole, Pare and Kimbu. These people grew both permanent and seasonal crops such as bananas, yams, beans and cereals. They also kept livestock such as cattle, donkeys, sheep and goats. The long-horned Ankole types of cattle were kept in the interlacustrine region. The short-horned was kept in the driver woodland savannah and wooded steppes.

**How pre-colonial agriculture changed man’s life**

1. **Increased food production**. Agricultural activities in pre-colonial Africa led to the increase of food production. People produced more food than before they needed for their immediate use.
2. **Increased of population**. The increase of food production made food more available and people were not engaged in collecting food throughout. As a result, they had more time. This led to reproduction of more children and increased ability of feed them
3. **Rise of social conflicts**. Agriculture led to the rise of social conflicts. Due to the population growth, social conflicts emerged.
4. **The rise for the need of leadership**. Social conflicts gave to the rise to the need for leadership to solve conflicts. Leadership also became increasingly responsible for protecting important sources of wealth.
5. **The rise of specialization**. Agricultural activities contributed to the rise of specializations. For examples, while some of the community members engaged in agriculture, others made iron tools or engaged in fishing, basketry and pottery
6. **It led to permanent settlements**. Agriculture led to permanent settlement because farmers had to prepare the land, take care of their farms to prevent them from being destroyed by wild animals and harvest the crops.

# HANDCRAFT AND MINING INDUSTRIES IN PRE-COLONIAL AFRICA

# Handcraft industries

# Industries are the places where raw materials are transformed into various goods. For example, in iron smelting industry, iron ore is smelted and forged to produce iron goods such as knives and hoes. Also people mould and bake clay into pots, bowls and bricks. Handcraft are activities in which hand and skills are used to make objects such as baskets, pots and mats

# In pre-colonial Africa, handcraft industries enabled people to make and obtain tools and other objects. The main handcraft industries included cloth making, iron working, basketry, wood carving and pottery. These industrial activities simplified human life.

# Cloth making

# In pre-colonial Africa, cloth making was an art of making clothes from different materials such as bark of trees and skins of animals. There were many communities in pre-colonial Africa that specialized in cloth making. For example, the Fipa of the Rukwa valley produced cotton clothes using local handlooms, Ganda, Haya, and Nyakyusa made clothes from the bark of certain trees and other societies were used animal skins such as sheep, goats and camels to make clothes

# Uses/ advantages of clothes

# People wore clothes to cover their bodies from nakedness

# People wore clothes in order to decorate themselves

# People wore clothes in order to keep themselves warm

# Clothes were also used on special occasions such as during religious and funeral ceremonies

# Clothes were used as the trade commodity in pre-colonial Africa.

# Pottery

# Pottery is an art of making pots and other items from clay soil. This skills was common in areas with suitable clay soil. In pre-colonial Africa, people who specialized in pottery made items such as pots, pipes and bowls for domestic use and exchange. Pottery was common among Pare people of northeastern Tanzania, the Kerewe of the Ukerewe Island in Lake Victoria and the Kisi on the shores of Lake Nyasa. It was also common in the Nok area in northern Nigeria. Pottery had many uses such as; they were useful for making items for cooking and storing of water, milk and grains, also pottery items became important commodities in both local and regional trade.

# Basketry

# Basketry is the art of weaving palm leaves and other special reeds to make items like fish traps, mats, hates, baskets and ropes. Basketry was practiced by many societies. Example of the societies involved in basketry included Nyamwezi, Gogo, Zaramo, Yao and Buganda. The materials used in basketry were mostly obtained from palm trees, reeds, bamboos and various types of grass that were founded in many places.

# Uses of basketry

# They were used to collect and carry various products

# They were used to store grain and seeds for later use.

# They were used to produce fish traps, which were used to catch fish in rivers or lakes

# Some were used for sitting, sleeping and drying foodstuffs

# There were used to wrap human dead bodies for burial

# Carpentry

# Carpentry involved working on wood logs and poles to make wooden items. It was common in many African communities living in woodland. For example, artisans carved wood to make stools, mortars, doors, canoes and beehives

# Uses of carpentry

# Canoes were used to transport people and commodities as well as fishing

# They are used to carve the figurines, mask, earrings and bracelets

# Others made mortars that were used to pound grains into flour and crash herbs into usable medicines

# Carpentry items were also used for exchange with other commodities in the trade

# Wooden music items such as *marimba* were used for entertainment

# Mining industries

# Mining is the extraction of minerals from the ground. It was practiced in different parts of Africa by people who had knowledge and skills in mineral extraction. Such minerals in pre-colonial Africa included iron, salt, gold, copper, silver and tin.

# Ironworking

# Ironworking started in some of the African communities in the first millennium BCE. In East Africa, this technology started around 500 BCE and widely spread in the region by around 1700 CE. The production of iron tools passed through the following main stages;

# Iron ore was mined from the ground

# The ore was smelted in furnaces in order to purify it

# Pure iron was left to cool and solidify

# The solidified iron was heated until it became red hot. Then it was hammered into different shaped tools or weapons. The processes of hammering iron into tools is known as forging

# The African specialists who processed iron into iron tools and weapons were called Blacksmiths

# Advantages of using iron tools

# It led to the expansion of agriculture. The use of iron tools expanded agriculture which in turn led to increase food production. This is because, iron was used to make agricultural tools such as machetes, hoes and axes which helped to boost production of food

# It simplified the mining of iron and non-iron materials and the making of other handcrafts

# It enabled communities to increase production of different items. This led to the rise and development of trade. In some African areas, people used iron bars as currency

# Iron technology consolidated sedentary or settled life. This was because the technology enabled people to establish homes and use of iron weapons to defend their families and properties against enemies.

# It contributed to the rise of states in some parts of Africa, such as Fipa, Buganda and Karagwe

# The use of iron weapons made great changes in warfare. Societies with iron weapons became stronger. They conquered weaker ones, which were still using stone and wood weapons. These conquests led to the expansion of chiefdoms or kingdoms. It also increased the frequency of wars among rival communities.

# Taboos in ironworking

# Some of the taboos were attached to the process of making iron tools. For example, women were neither allowed to participate in iron smelting nor to observe blacksmiths while at works. Some societies believed that, if women participated or observed the process, the craftsmen would get problems. Other societies believed that, if women were involved in making such tools, iron would get spoiled. Yet other societies believed that, if women came close to the place of work, the blacksmiths could lose attention and get hurt.

# In East Africa, ironworking developed among the Meru, Kerewe, Haya, Fipa and Buganda. Also among the Pare, ironsmiths came from the royal Shana clan. Among the Zinza of Geita, iron smelting was taught to anyone who paid a fee to learn that skill. Iron technology also developed among the Venda people of southern Transvaal in South Africa. Others were the Mashona of Zimbabwe, the Mang’anja of Malawi and societies around the Kalambo Falls in Zambia. In West Africa, ironworking societies were found in the Futa Djalon plateau in present day Guinea. In north-eastern Africa, examples included societies in Nubia, Meroe and Auxum

# Salt making

# Salt making were the industries which were engaged in salt making in pre-colonial Africa. Salt making was among of the earliest industries in pre-colonial Africa.

# Methods of obtaining salts

# Salt extraction from salty reeds. Salty reeds were burnt and their ash was dissolved in water. The solution was filtered and boiled until all water evaporated. The remaining residue was used as salt. This method was common among the Mang’anja people near shores of Lake Nyasa. In East Africa, it was practiced among the people of the interlacustrine region among Buganda and Buhaya tribes

# Leaching. Leaching is a method by which water was drained through rocky soils that had a high content of salt. It was sieved and boiled to obtain salt crystals. Spring water containing salt was boiled and finally salt was obtained. The method was practiced at Uvinza in Tanzania and Bilma and Awil in West Africa.

# Salt mining from rocks. In this method, people directly mined salty rocks. Then the rock crystals were used as salt. This method was used by people around Bangwelo and Luapula rivers in Central Africa. In West Africa, the method was used at Taghaza, Idjil and Taoudeni.

# Evaporation. In the evaporation method, salty ocean water was trapped in pans and left to dry under the heat of the sun. After drying, salt crystals remained in the pans. This method was and is still common along East African coast. For example, saltpans are found along the coastline of Tanga, Bagamoyo and Lindi

# Uses of salt

# It served as a food ingredient as well as a food preservative. Foods like beef and fish lasted longer when salted

# Salt was also used as a medium of exchange because it was a rare commodity in many societies. Therefore, it became an important commodity in trade. For example, salt from Uvinza was a commodity of exchange all over the Great Lakes region

# It was used for treatment of wounds. In some societies, people used salt as medicine for curing wounds

# Salt was also used for preserving dead bodies from decaying. This was common among the ancient Egyptians. This practice of body preservation using salt is called mummification

# Gold mining and processing

# In pre-colonial Africa, gold was mined and processed mainly in different parts of the continent. In Southern Africa, it was mined along River Sabi in Mozambique and River Zambezi in Zimbabwe. In West Africa, it was mainly produced in areas such as Bambuk, Bure, Lobi and the forest area of Asante. The methods used to obtain gold differed from one place to another

# Methods of obtaining gold

# The pinning method. In this method, people collected alluvial gold found along the streams or river beds. They used pans to separate gold from sand or rocks. The method was mainly practiced along the tributaries of River Sabi in Mozambique and River Zambezi in Zimbabwe

# The shaft method. Some of the areas contained underground gold veins. In order to obtain gold, people dug out rock contained gold. The rocks were then taken to furnaces where they were burnt to obtain pure gold. This method was used in the Mashonaland of Zimbabwe and Asante in Ghana

# Uses of gold

# It was used as a commodity or trade item

# It was also used as a medium of exchange or a form of currency

# It was used to make symbols of authority for African rulers. For example, in Ashanti/Asante of Ghana, the king’s stool was made of gold

# Gold was used to make jewellery, ornaments and decorative materials

# It was used to make golden utensils like cups and plates as well as handles of knives and swords

# Gold served as a symbol of wealth for those who possessed it

# Copper mining and processing

# Copper was produced mainly through smelting of copper ore. Ores containing copper were smelted and made into pieces of pure metal shaped like a brick. Mining of copper took place in many areas of pre-colonial Africa. These included the Kafue in Zambia, Gwai River in Zimbabwe and Katanga in the Congo region. Others included the Sinai Peninsula in Egypt and the land of Igbo and Yoruba in Nigeria.

# Uses of copper

# It was used to make items like ornaments, bowls, copper wire, daggers and helmets

# It was also used as a medium of exchange especially in West Africa

# It was used to make fish hooks. This was mainly done in Egypt.

# TRADE IN PRE-COLONIAL AFRICA

**Meaning of trade**

Trade is a system of buying and selling goods or commodities and services between people in a community. In pre-colonial African societies, trade was among the economic activities that facilitated interactions within communities and beyond. Initially, trade was mainly practiced through a barter system.

**Barter system (Barter trade)**

Barter trade was the system of trade in pre-colonial Africa which involved the exchange of goods by goods among the traders, this means that, people exchanged commodity with another commodity. This trade ensured that commodities which were not available or not sufficient in one community were obtained from another community. Eventually, various objects such as cowrie’s shells, gold and copper were used as a medium of exchange (money) in order to simplify trade

**Reasons for the development of trade in pre-colonial African societies**

1. **Demands of the certain goods in some societies**. Trade was developed among the communities in order to ensure the supply of goods and services that were not available in a given area. For example, the Chagga of northern Tanzania produced beans and banana. They exchanged them for meat, milk and skins with Maasai who raised cattle, goats and sheep.
2. **Specialization in economic activities**. Specialization also led to the development of trade in pre-colonial African societies. Some of the people became blacksmiths, while others became farmers, potters, fishermen or carpenters. In such cases, farmers exchanged their farm products with other groups. Similarly, blacksmiths exchanged their tools with farmers, livestock keepers, fishermen and carpenters.
3. **The availability and use of animals for transportation**. The availability and use of animals such as camels and donkeys for transporting people and goods led to the development of trade among the people in pre-colonial Africa. For example, the trade between West and North African societies was facilitated by the use of camels for transportation.
4. **Emergence of socio**-**political structures**. The development of trade also was influenced by the development of socio-political structures such as chiefdoms and kingdoms. The rulers needed requirements such as food, salt, gold and weapons, these goods motivated the rulers to encourage the trading activities. For example, Chief Mkwawa of Hehe traded with Bwana Heri from coastal area and Arabs from Middle East
5. **Presence of several trade products**. In pre-colonial Africa, trade activities began when people started to increase surplus production. Surplus production especially agricultural production contributed to the availability of the several goods that were used as the trade items.
6. **Increase of population**. Economic activities such as agriculture contributed to the immigration of people from different places. Therefore, population increase created reliable markets for the trade goods that were produced and resulted in to the development of trade

**Types of trade in pre-colonial Africa**

There were two types of trade in pre-colonial Africa, namely local trade and regional trade.

**Local trade**

Local trade was the exchange system that developed among people living in the same area. There were no specific market days or places during early stages of the trade. Traders exchanged goods from door to door. For example, a woman who needed salt, but had some beans, approached her neighbour who had salt and exchanged beans for salt. Sometime this trade was not for profit gain but just to obtain essential goods only.

**Effects/impacts of local trade**

1. **Emergence of local market centers**. Local trade led to the emergence of local market centers such as Timbuktu, Zanzibar, GAO, Pate, Kilwa and Lamu. These were towns and market centers that grew out during the trade. Some of these centers developed into large trading centers and towns where buyers and sellers met
2. **Population increase**. Population increased since many people were attracted to settle along the trading routes and trading centers.
3. **Emergence of groups of people who specialized in trade**. The main activities of these groups were to buy goods from different producers and sell them for profit. For example Yao of southern Tanzania, Chewa and Bisa of Central Africa, Imbangala and Vimbundu of Angola and Dyula of West Africa.
4. **Introduction of money as a medium of exchange**. Due to the increased of volume of trade, there was the introduction of money as the medium of exchange in trade activities. For example Kilwa Kisiwani minted its own currency on 11th to 14th centuries.
5. **It encouraged communities to expand production of goods**. During the local trade the production of goods was increased due to the high demand in the trading centers. People were highly motivated to engage in trade activities through increasing the production of goods. The increase of production enabled people to get commodities that they did not produce from communities produced them.
6. **It united people within the same area**. Local trade strengthened the bonds between the people within the same area. This was enhanced by social relations between the people in a certain community. For example, in Bunyoro-Kitara kingdom, the Acholi, Alur, Iteso, Langi, Basoga, Kumani, Banyankole, Baganda and Congolese interacted as a result of trade.

**Regional trade/Long distance trade**

This was the trade which was conducted between societies in a large geographical area or across different region. These geographical regions included East Africa, Central Africa, South Africa, West Africa and North Africa. Therefore, regional trade was an extension of local trade. Examples of regional trade in pre-colonial Africa were Trans-Saharan trade in northern Africa and Long distance in Eastern and Central Africa.

**Regional (long-distance) trade in Central Africa**

In Central Africa, regional or long distance trade was developed by 7th century CE. By that time the Shona of Zimbabwe were exporting gold to the Venda in exchange for iron tools. They were also exporting gold to Katanga in exchange for copper. Similarly, trade between eastern and central Africa had started. The commodities involved in this trade were agricultural products, copper, ivory, hides and clothes

By the 10th CE, the Chewa of Malawi and Yao of southern Tanzania were exporting ivory to the East African coast. Likewise, the Shona of Zimbabwe exported gold to East African coast. These commodities from central Africa were re-exported overseas to the Middle East. From Middle East, traders from East African coast imported glassware, beads, daggers, cowry shells, silk, spices, clothes and proclaim utensil

**Regional (long-distance) trade in East Africa**

Long-distance trade in East Africa dates back to the 5th century BCE. It greatly expanded from 15th to 19th centuries. Traders from the interior moved to and from the coast to sell and obtain commodities. The most important traders were the Yao from the southern route, the Nyamwezi from the central route and the Kamba from the northern route. Likewise, the Swahili and Arab traders travelled to and from the interior to sell and buy commodities. Famous traders from the coast included Rumaliza, Tippu Tip and Mohara. Similarly, chiefs and kings in the interior participated actively in regional trade by organizing trade, protecting sources of wealth as well as controlling trade routes and caravans. Such rulers included Mirambo of Nyamwezi, Nyungu ya Mawe of the Kimbu, Machemba of the Yao and Kabaka Mutesa of Buganda

**Major trade route of long-distance trade in East Africa**

There were three main trade routes of long-distance trade in East Africa, namely; northern route, central route and southern route

**Northern route**

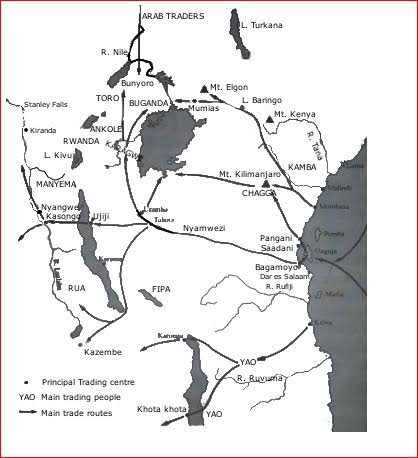
This route started from ports of Pangani, Tanga and Mombasa and went to Taita. Then it split into two branches. One branch went through Kilimanjaro up to the shores of Lake Victoria. The other branch proceeded through the north-west part of Mount Kenya and crossed the Rift Valley to Buganda. It stopped at the slopes of Mount Elgon. Commodities obtained from the interior and sent to the coast were animal skins, iron, ivory, slaves and grains. This route was dominated by the Kamba

**Central route**

This route started from the ports of Bagamoyo and Saadani and went through Zaramo and Gogo areas to Tabora. At Tabora, it was divided into two branches. One branch went north-west to Karagwe, Buganda and Bunyoro. The other branch went to Ujiji on shores of Lake Tanganyika up to eastern Congo. It proceeded to the south west part, around the southern shores of Lake Tanganyika where it branched into two routes. One of these routes crossed the lake into eastern Congo. The other route rounded the southern tip of Lake Tanganyika into Katanga. The central route was dominated by the Nyamwezi.

**Southern route**

This route started from the ports of Kilwa, Lindi and Mikindani. It passed through the land of the Yao, Makua, Makonde, Mwera and Ngindo and went as far as the shores of Lake Nyasa. It was the main route for exporting slaves, ivory and gold from Mwenemutapa. This route was dominated by the Yao



***Major trade routes of long-distance trade in East Africa***

**Effects of long-distance trade in East Africa**

1. **Socio-Cultural effects**
2. **Introduction of Arabic and Islamic culture**. Some of the Africans adapted Arabic dressing styles. People started to wear white cap, gowns for the men (*kanzu*), sandals and black gown for the women *(baibui*) and veil. Also people of East Africa adopted Asian architecture as well as Arabic marriages and burial ceremonies that were based in Islamic culture.
3. **Introduction of Islamic religion**. Islam was introduced firstly along the coast of East Africa. It slowly spread to the interior as Arabs and other coastal traders penetrated inland. In the interior, it was first introduced in the main Arab trading centres such as Tabora, Ujiji, Kondoa, Ushirombo, Tunduru and Buganda
4. **Development and spread of Kiswahili into the interior**. The penetration of Swahili traders into the interior of East Africa resulted in the use and spread of Kiswahili. This language became common for many people and traders. As a result, Kiswahili borrowed many Arabic words such as *wakati, shukran, kitabu, swala* and *salaam*
5. **Intermarriages.** Intermarriages between Arabs and African people resulted in the emergence of people of mixed race. Intermarriages strengthened the social relations between foreign traders and local people.
6. **Economic effects**
7. **Introduction of foreign goods and crops**. Foreign goods such as firearms, beads, cotton clothes and porcelain utensils were introduced. Similarly new crops like mangoes, rice, pineapples, sugarcane, clove and coconut plantation were introduced
8. **Growth of commercial centres**. Long-distance trade led to the growth of trading centres and coastal city states. For example of coastal city states included Lamu, Mombasa, Bagamoyo, Malindi, Kilwa, Mikindani, Zanzibar and Pemba. In the interior, the trade centres established include Tabora, Urambo, Kondoa and Ujiji. Their development largely depended on slaves and ivory trade.
9. **Linkage between East African and the world economy.** Long-distance integrated East and central Africa to the external world. It was turned into the producer of commodities for European and Asia countries. In turn, Africa received various commodities manufactured in other countries.
10. **Exploitation of East Africa.** Long-distance trade laws unequal exchange. East Africa produced and exported items of great value such as ivory, copper, iron and gold. In exchange, East Africa imported unproductive and less valuable commodities such as alcoholic drinks. Beads, porcelain, guns and gunpowder
11. **Rise and expansion of states.** Long-distance trade in East Africa led to the rise and expansion of centralized states. This was because trade enabled rulers to acquire weapons such as guns and ammunition. Rulers used these weapons to conquer rivals, accumulate wealth and build or expand their states. Examples of these states were Bunyoro, Buganda, Nyamwezi and Karagwe

**The Trans-Saharan Trade**

The Trans-Saharan Trade was the trade which was conducted between West Africa and North African societies across the Sahara desert. This trade flourished from 8th century up to the 15th century. It involved traders from the West Sudanic states and Forest states in West Africa as well as traders from North Africa and the Mediterranean region. Western Sudan was the region between the Nile River and the Atlantic Ocean, south of the Sahara desert. The Forest states covered the areas of ancient Dahomey, Oyo, Benin and Asante. Northern Africa is the area covered by Morocco, Libya, Tunisia and Egypt.

Traders used camels as the means of transport across the Sahara desert because camels could endure the hard conditions of the desert. The expansion of trade led to the establishment of permanent trade routes to the important trade centres of West Africa such as Timbuktu, GAO, Jenne, Kano, Walata and Kumbi Saleh which were developed during this trade.

**Commodities used during Trans- Saharan Trade**

In the beginning of the trade, barter system was used as the method of exchange. The increase of trade volume and became more complex, a need for a medium of exchange arose. Items such as salt, cowrie shells, copper and gold became the medium of exchange in different parts.

From North Africa, Muslim Arabs, tribes such as Berbers and Tuaregs brought in manufactured commodities such as cotton, woolen textiles and garments and were exported to West Africa across the Sahara desert. They also sold copper, silver, spices, salt, dates, horses and camels to West Africa. Also beads, glassware, porcelain, utensils and silk were exported to Western Sudan. People from West Africa imported firearms and ornaments from Europe through northern Africa. From the Sahara desert, salt and dates were produced and sold at Taoden, Taghaza and Bilma. Similarly, gold was mined, refined and sold at Wangata and Audoghast.

From Western Sudan which were divided into three zones or belt i.e. Forests zone, Savannah belt and Desert zone

In Forest zone the Yoruba were weaving and spinning clothes which they exchanged with the Akan people who specialized in gold mining and processing. Other commodities which were produced in this region were palm oil, honey, beeswax, gum, indigo, salt, kola nuts, ivory, slaves and animal skins

In Savannah belt, crops were grown and animals were reared. Commodities which were produced were grains, fish, kola nuts, ostrich feathers, leather goods, clothes, yam, salt and dates. These goods were exchanged with products from the forest zones

**Trade routes:**(a) Western route- From Sijilmasa, Fez in Morocco passed through Taghaza, Taodeni, Walata, Audaghost, and Kumbi Saleh to Timbuktu.

(b) Central route- This passed Tunis, Ghat, Ghamese, Kano, GAO and Hausa land.  
(c) Eastern route- This began in Tripoli, Marzul and Bilma.

**Factors that led to the growth of the trans-saharan trade**

1. **Political stability**. Both North African and Western Sudan zone were politically stable. For example, leaders like Sundiata Keita and Mansa Musa collected taxes and established guides on trade routes. This enabled the people to conduct trade without fear. Up to the end of the 15th century AD, many traders were motivated to come to Western Sudan for trade.
2. **Honesty and trust among the traders**. The Berbers of North Africa and the African traders of Western Africa trusted each other. Traders brought in commodities without fear of theft and robbery, enabling the trade to flourish.
3. **The use of camels as the means of transport**. Camels were suitable and able to survive in the desert conditions. These animals could not only carry more commodities than horses and human porters, but also endured desert conditions. Camels can survive without water for a longtime. This convenient means of transport strengthened the development of the Trans-Saharan trade.
4. **Spread of Islam and Arabic language**. These developments led to the growth and expansion of Trans-Saharan Trade. Islam united traders because their beliefs regarded each other as brothers. At the same time, Arabic language became the main medium of communication among the traders.
5. **Availability of valuable commodities**. The availability of valuable commodities for the sale attracted traders to participate in trade. The vast area covered by the Trans-Saharan Trade produced various goods needed both within and outside which were used in the exchange during this trade.
6. **Availability of foodstuffs**. The Trans-Saharan Trade took place in areas with plenty of foodstuffs. Availability of foodstuffs enabled traders to travel long distance without fear of food shortage.

**The decline of Trans-Saharan Trade**

1. **Changing of political condition in the Sahara desert**. The introduction of Christian religion led to the emergence of religions conflict among the Muslims and Christians. This situation resulted into the emergence of political unrest and religious wars known as Jihad which were led by famous Muslims like Uthman dan Fodio, Alhaj Umar and Samori Toure. This resulted into the decline of Trans-Saharan trade because the trade routes were no longer safe to used by the traders.
2. **The introduction of slave trade by the European**. The introduction Trans Atlantic Slave Trade led to the decline of Trans-Saharan Trade. This factor caused the transportation of slave who was taken to America to work in mines and plantation such as sisal and coffee. This situation caused the emergence of depopulation to the decline of Trans-Saharan Trade.
3. **The attack from Tuaregs.** The Trans-Saharan Trade declined because of attacks from Tuaregs. These attacks were dominant after the decline of the Songhay Empire because Songhay Empire initially provided the security to the traders across Sahara desert.
4. **Fall of Western Sudanic States like Mali, Ghana and Songhai**. These were trading centers for Trans-Saharan Trade and the source of market for the commodities from North Africa. Hence the trade was no longer developed.
5. **Shortage of water**. The increase of trading activities between West Africa and North Africa across the Sahara desert, dried up the Oasis; consequently it became difficult to get water for different uses by the traders
6. **Strong desert wind**. The Trans-Saharan Trade declined due to the strong desert winds. The traders could not withstand the hazards of sand storms. Many of them abandoned the trade as a result.

**Effects of Trans-Saharan Trade**

1. **Growth of commercial centres and towns**. The trade led to the emergence of many trade centres which eventually developed into towns. The towns developed along the trade routes. Such towns included GAO, Sijilmasa, Taghaza and Timbuktu.
2. **Spread of Islam and Arabic culture**. Most traders from North Africa were Muslims. They brought Islam and Arabic culture in West Africa. Therefore, many people in the Western Sudanic states were converted into Islam.
3. **Emergence and growth of states**. Trade made some people, especially rulers and traders, wealthy and powerful. They used their wealth to influence the growth of states which they defended using strong armies. Examples of such rulers were Sundiata Keita and Mansa Kankan Musa of the Mali Empire. Others were Askia Mohamed Toure and Sunni Ali of the Songhay Empire
4. **Intermarriages among people of different race**. The Trans-Saharan Trade led to intermarriages between Africans and Arabs. This in turn gave rise to people of mixed race which are known as Mulattos (half cast)
5. **Unequal relation in trade**. There were unequal relations between the people of Africa and those from the Far East, the Middle East and Mediterranean Europe. This is because Africans exported valuable trade items such as gold, copper and iron products; in contrast, they imported less valuable commodities such as beads, wines, spices, mirrors, daggers, cloth and guns
6. **Development of new technological skills**. The Trans-Saharan Trade led to the development of new technical skills among the West African people. For example, people started processing leather and other items
7. **Integration of West Africa to the outside world**. Prior to this Trans-Saharan Trade, the interior of West Africa was unknown to Europe and Asia. Subsequent to the trade, the situation changed; the region attracted people with different cultures and nationalities from Europe, the Middle East and Far East.

**DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL AND POLITICAL SYSTEMS IN PRE-COLONIAL AFRICA**

**Non- centralized political system**

Non-centralized or decentralized social and political systems were forms of organization which had no central authority. In non-centralized states, the basic unit of political organization was the clan in which various societies in a clan were loyal to clan authority. The clan head was chosen from among the clan elders when he merited the qualities of leadership such as his influence, which was determined by age, wisdom and wealth

**Characteristics of non-centralized states**

1. They did not have a central ruler known as king or chief
2. The political leadership was not hereditary
3. They had no clearly defined territorial boundaries
4. Political leaders were mainly clans heads who were assisted by council of elders
5. Political power and authority were shared among the council of elders and clan heads

**Forms of non-centralized states**

There were two forms of decentralized states, namely

1. Kinship/Clan organization
2. Age-set system

**Kinship/Clan organization**

Kinship/Clan organization was the organization which comprised of the several close and blood related families with the same or common ancestor.

Kinship/Clan organization involved two forms, namely patrilineal and matrilineal system

**Patrilineal system** is the one in which children take and follow the clan names of their fathers. Example of societies that followed the patrilineal clan system included Nyakyusa, Ndali, Hehe, Sukuma, Gogo, Chagga, Shambaa, Haya, Nyamwezi, Bena, Kurya etc

**Characteristics of patrilineal societies**

1. Men on the father’s line dominated social, economic and political relations
2. Men made important decisions on issues concerning family or clan members
3. Men owned and determined the use of the major means of production such as land
4. Men decided on the amount and distribution of dowries for their daughters
5. Children inherited the names of their fathers

**Matrilineal system** is one in which children belong to their mother’s clan. Therefore, children take and follow the clan names of their mothers. Thus, clan inheritance was based on the mother’s clan. Most of the societies that followed the matrilineal system were found in the coastal, southern and south-eastern parts of Tanzania. They settled around the basins of rivers such as Rufiji, Kilombero, Mmbwemkulu and Ruvuma. They included Makonde, Yao, Luguru, Pogoro, Zaramo, Matumbi, Ngindo, Ndonde and Makua

**Characteristics of matrilineal societies**

1. Females dominated social, economic and political relations in the households and communities
2. Fathers had no power over children in the family relations
3. Uncles made all important decisions concerning their nephews and nieces, including deciding on dowries for these children

**Characteristics of clan or kinship organization**

1. **A clan or kinship had common rituals, taboos and customs**. These cultural characteristics helped to create stability, strength and uniqueness of each clan in relation to other forms of social organizations. They helped to bind members of the clan together and to forge a community
2. **Clans or kinships were self**-governing, but they had no rulers, chiefs or kings. The absence of these leaders meant that they had neither centralized political administration nor state instrument power. They were also classless societies that regarded as forms of non-centralized or stateless societies. They were a social and political organization without a government to enforce laws. Clan leaders had limited political and military power.
3. **Clan or kinship communities were small and simple**. The populations of clan or kinship communities were small and their levels of economic and technological development were low. They relied on simple economies such as hunting, gathering, fishing and cropping. They also used simple technologies such as stone and wooden tools. Some of these communities acquired simple iron tools from neighbouring societies through barter trade
4. **They had enough land and lived in closely united clan units**. There was less competition for basic resources such as livestock, agricultural land, minerals and water. Therefore, there was no marked economic differentiation in terms of wealth or property ownership

**The social, political and economic organization of clans or kinships**

1. **Economic organization**
2. The family was the basic unit of production
3. Land was the major means of production and it was belonged to the whole clan
4. Tools or instrument of labour belonged to the individual family
5. The clan head and elders did not own the major means of production, their responsibility was to allocate the land for use to other members of the clan and guided the members in the production process
6. The products which were obtained were shared according to the needs of each member
7. **Politically**

Politically, clans or kinship organization revolved around the position of clan heads that provided leadership for the group

**Responsibilities of clan heads**

1. Regulating political, economic and social relations in the community
2. They performed various function in the community
3. They settled disputes in the community.
4. They proposed the spouses and arranged the marriages for members and performed clan rituals
5. They allocated land to members of the clan or to immigrants
6. They acted as the guardians of all communal properties such as land, forests and water sources
7. **Socially**

Clans were settled communities. The closeness of family units ensured the existence of the kinships or clan. This closeness was enhanced by cultural elements such as rituals, values, customs and taboos. These connected individuals and bonded them together as members of th clan. Each clan made efforts to transmit these cultural elements from one generation to another in order to ensure its continuity across time and space.

**The age-set system**

The age-set system was an organization of the society where, the division of labour was based on age and sex groups. In the age set system, one’s age group determined his or her position and responsibilities in the community. This was another form of non-centralized society that existed in Africa before and after the colonization. The age-set system was practiced among the pastoral societies such a Maasai and Datooga in Tanzania. Also some agricultural communities practiced age-set system such as Nyakyusa in the southern highlands of Tanzania

**Social, political and economic organization in the age-set system**

There was no overall authority under the age-set system. Leadership consisted of the council of elders. In this system, children of almost the same age were initiated together and taught the values of their community. During initiation, such children were taught about their culture, history and responsibilities. After initiation, they were given their group name. from then onwards, they performed special social functions and responsibilities together as an age-set unit.

Each age-set consisted of members who belonged to a particular generation. Age groups were determined by initiation, rituals and cultural ceremonies. Seniority in each age group depended upon one’s age, wisdom and good character. Leaders in each age group were older than the rest, more hardworking and reliable. Obedience was an important aspect of life in an age group. The wrongdoers were punished by the community. Decisions on day –to-day issues were made by the members of each age group

**Age-set organization in pastoral communities**

Pastoral communities such as Maasai and Datooga were nomadic. They lived in areas with little rain covered by short grass. This environment allowed them to engage in pastoralism as a major economic occupation. As nomads, they kept moving from one place to another with their herds of cattle in search of good pasture and water. They did not live in large communities but small and simple ones. Such pastoral societies relied on rivers, streams and rain to get drinking water for people and for their livestock. They also depended on the surrounding vegetation for pastures. Furthermore, pastoralists required safe place for both people and their livestock

**Division of labour in pastoral societies**

The age-set system in pastoral societies, the division of labour was based on age-set and gender because the economic activities were based on harsh environment. The responsibilities were assigned and fulfilled on the age-set and gender basis

1. **Duties and responsibilities of women and children**

Women stayed and worked at home. They were assisted by the children in fulfilled the following responsibilities

1. They cooked food for the family
2. They milked the livestock
3. They grazed the calves
4. They took care of the children
5. **Duties and responsibilities of the youth**

Males’ responsibilities were distributed according to the following age groups;

1. ***The youth of about 9 to 18 years***

This group had the following duties

1. Grazing the livestock during the afternoon
2. Assisted their mothers to do household duties when they returned from grazing
3. ***The youths of about 15 to 35 years***

This group was known as Moran and it consisted of the middle-aged youths among the Maasai. This group acted as the soldiers of the whole community. It had the following responsibilities

1. Defending the whole society from the enemies
2. Protecting the livestock against thieves and wild animals
3. Increasing number of their herds by raiding their neighbouring communities
4. Driving cattle to new grazing land
5. Collecting tribute from traders who passed on the Maasai territory
6. Surveying their neighbouring areas for pastures and sources of water
7. **Duties and responsibilities of elders**

This age group was comprised of most senior men who guided the society with wisdom. They were the senior age set and hence they were respected by other age groups in the society. They had the following responsibilities

1. They made important decisions concerning their society
2. They mediated conflicts and solved social problems
3. They were the guardians of livestock and other types of communal properties
4. They were owners of cattle in their respective households

Among the Maasai society, the most senior elder was called ***Laibon***. The head of council of Laibon in the ethnic group is known as ***Laigwana***. He is chosen among the senior Laibon in the ethnic group

**Duties and responsibilities of Laibon**

1. He commended special respect as the topmost cultural, political and religious authority
2. He presided over major cultural and religious ceremonies
3. He was chosen to link between his people and the gods

**Age-set organization in agricultural communities**

The Nyakyusa were among the agricultural communities who practiced the age-set system. The Nyakyusa population tended to rise very rapidly. This led to the dense concentration of people in small areas. However, the Nyakyusa owned vast areas of fertile land that could be used for agricultural production activities. In order to prevent overpopulation in small areas, they adopted the age-set system. In this case, the youth of certain age groups were allocated a completely new land to occupy and establish their own settlements. Each age group cleared its land and established its own settlement. Each age-village was headed by ***Amafumu***. A ceremony called ***Ubusoka*** was held to mark this occasion of the passage of a new age-set into adulthood

**The *Ntemi* system**

*Ntemi* is a Sukuma word which comes from the verb *kutema* which means to cut. This system was based on the practice of clearing land for cultivation and settlement. The *Ntemi* system was established in northern and central Tanzania by the Sukuma and Nyamwezi. Gradually, it was adopted by their neighbouring ethnic groups like the Nyiramba, Kimbu and Gogo. Each *Ntemiship* was ruled by *Mtemi*. A successful *Mtemi*, therefore, was the one with many people under him. More people meant enough labour force, which led to increased production, wealth and power.

**Political, social and economic organization in Ntemiship**

**Politically**

Ntemiship evolved due to the united of many clans under one leadership who was *Mtemi*. He was elected by the elders who were clan heads. Mtemi was elected due to his wisdom, experience, courage and leadership and his advisors and assistance were the clan heads that were known as state elders. State elders among the Sukuma were known as *Banangoma* who advised *Mtemi* on important matters of the *Ntemiship* system. Below *Banangoma* were the headmen who were called *Banangwa* and they performed day-to-day duties of leading subjects in the clan

**Mtemi**

**Council of elders**

**Headmen or clan heads**

**Laboring men and women**

**Economically**

Ntemiship organization was supported by the growing economy that adapted to the environmental conditions. The important economic activities were crop cultivation and livestock keeping which were supported by climatic conditions. Other activities included hunting, honey collection and fishing. Food production were hugely produced that sustained annual needs due to the use of iron tools that were obtained from the neighbouring communities.

**Socially**

*Mtemi* was closely guarded to ensure stability in the community. He could have many wives from the specific families and chiefdoms, but the first was more respected than others. *Mtemi’s* mother was regarded as an important person because she was also one of the chief advisors of *Mtemi.*

The social, economic and political relations of Ntemiship revolved around Mtemi and his power and influence determined the stability of the children. *Mtemi’s* health was an indicator of stability and wellbeing of a community, therefore, poor health of *Mtemi* perceived by his people as a bad sign for the welfare of *Ntemiship.* Ntemiship was hereditary when Mtemi passed away

**Roles and responsibilities of Mtemi**

1. **He provided overall leadership of the organization**. Mtemi was the top-most authority in all political and judicial matters. For example, he could declare war or make peace with advice of the council of elders. He opened plant season and enforced proper use of the resources
2. **He was the overseer of the state’s grain reserves**. These were used to reward subjects or receive famine in areas with food shortages. He used the reserved food to assist people hit by war, drought, floods or locusts
3. **He collected tribute from his subjects**. This was in the form of grains or livestock. Hunters paid part of what they got from hunting such as meat, ivory and animal skins. Artisans paid part of their wares such as hoes, spears and knives
4. **He collected taxes and duties from the trade caravans**. Mtemi collected taxes and duties in the form of cloth, cowries, beads, Chinese ware, salt and gold from the traders passed through the community area.
5. **He settled disputes and provided judgment on cases**. Mtemi settled disputes and judged complex cases such as murder, witchcraft, treason and arson. Simple cases were handled by junior officials in the council of elders and headmen
6. **He performed the religious roles**. Mtemi also performed the religious roles such as offered sacrifices and presided over religious ceremonies. Therefore, he was regarded as a link between his people and the gods

**The state organization**

State is an occupied geographical area with the power to exercise some political authority over its people and resources. A state is always under one political authority. Important elements of state include population, territorial boundaries, freedom from foreign rule and government

**Centralized states**

Centralized states were political units under one central authority. Rulers of such states were kings or chiefs who had great powers. They also had permanent armies to enforce rulers and protect sources of wealth such as land, minerals, ivory, cattle, traders and trade routes. A good example of a centralized state in pre-colonial Tanzania was Karagwe. Other state included Fipa, Hehe, Shambaa, Pare, Buha, Sangu, and many others.

**Factors for state formation**

1. **Conquest**. Some powerful states conquered the weaker societies and therefore making them strong and expand. For example, Buganda conquered Bunyoro in the interlacustrine regions.
2. **Trade**. Trade interactions were among of the factors for state formation. Trade such as the Long distance trade enabled the society to become strong and powerful. For example, Nyamwezi under Mirambo and Yao under Machemba rose due to the trade.
3. **Good climate and fertile soils (soil fertility**). This led to the increase of food and assurance of feeding which led to population increase, a factor that was very important for the state formation. For instance heavy rainfall and fertile soil enabled production of more food and surplus in Buganda.
4. **Strong leadership**. Some African rulers were strong and ambitious to expand their empire so they organized their people and got support from them for example: Kabanga of Buganda.
5. **Development of iron technology**. Iron promoted agricultural products and was used for making war weapons, which in turn became most important for conquering other states.
6. **Ngoni migration**. This was a complimentary factor for the rise of state in south and central Africa. Ngoni brought new technology and skills which were used to expand and strengthen the new societies concerned. The expansion of Ngoni made some societies to defend strongly themselves from the conquest.

**Karagwe Kingdom**

Karagwe kingdom was established by the Nyambo people. Its founders are believed to have migrated from the northern part of the kingdom. The kingdom was established in 15th century by King Ruhinda I and it grew in early 1800s under the leadership of King Ndagara I. The kingdom reached its apex in the 19th century under the leadership of King *Rumanika Orugundu I* who ruled from 1855-1882. The legend of Karagwe Kingdom who was termed as a hero was **Ruhinda I** who created a single kingdom in 1450. The neighbours of the Nyambo were various Bahaya chiefdoms to the South and the kingdom of Rwanda to the West. Other areas located near Karagwe were Biharamulo, Bukoba, Kiziba and Koki. The title given to the king of Karagwe was *Omuggabe.*

**Factors for the rise of Karagwe Kingdom**

1. **Development of iron technology**. Iron tools helped the people of Karagwe to produce more food that favoured the growth of population. Iron was also used to manufacture weapons for the defence of the kingdom
2. **Long-distance trade**. Trade routes from the coast of East Africa passed through Karagwe. The Arab and Swahili traders paid tributes and taxes to the king in terms of beads, guns, clothes and others. From this trade, the Karagwe state accumulated wealth that strengthened the kingdom
3. **Presence of strong leadership**. The kingdom had strong leaders who were respected by their people because they were thought to possess divine powers. The kingdom was divided into sub-dynasties with leaders each and they helped to create unity among the people in the kingdom
4. **Strong army**. Rulers acquired guns from the East African coastal traders. They used these weapons to strengthen their army. In turn, the army was used to defend the kingdom and conquer weak states for territorial expansion.
5. **Agricultural activities**. Agricultural activities facilitated the rise and growth of the Karagwe Kingdom. The Nyambo practiced mixed farming that formed the base of the economy of the kingdom.

**Factors for the decline of the Karagwe Kingdom**

1. **The influx of immigrants from the North**. Bantu group from Ankole, Toro and Bunyoro migrated to the kingdom that brought plenty of cattle and new crops. This created conflicts over land, which the king could not settle. Consequently, the people lost trust in him and their loyalty to him declined
2. **Occupation of Karagwe by the Bahinda**. The Bahinda removed Nono from power. These new rulers shifted the capital into Bwehange in which they established seven new Bahinda sub-dynasties. These new dynasties were Ukerewe, Nasa, Busiba, Ihangilo, Kyamtwara, Gisasa and Buzinza
3. **Disputes over succession after the death of Ruhinda**. When Mukama Ruhinda died, the Karagwe Kingdom broke up into independent states, each retaining its power. The new states became stronger because they brought the cult of divine royalty. Each leader acquired symbols of power, notably drums and spears so that their authority could not be challenged
4. **The outbreak of rinderpest epidemic and small pox disease.** The rinderpest epidemic and the outbreak of smallpox in the early and mid-1890s reduced further the already dwindling human and animal population of Karagwe. This made the kingdom into a decline from which it was never able to fully recover.

**STATE ORGANIZATION IN PRE-COLONIAL AFRICA**

**Centralized states in East Africa**

A number of centralized states developed in East Africa. They included Buganda, Bunyoro, Rwanda-Urundi, Nyamwezi, Chagga, Hehe, Sangu, Sukuma, Pare, Shambaa, Kamba and Zanzibar Sultanate.

**The Bunyoro Kingdom**

The Bunyoro Kingdom can be traced back to the kingdom of Bunyoro-Kitara founded by the Bachwezi people in 13th century. By 16th century, Bunyoro-Kitara started to decline and gave rise to new and smaller kingdoms. One of the new kingdoms which emerged was Bunyoro. The title of the king of Bunyoro was *Omukama.* Bunyoro Kingdom declined in the 19th century

**Factors for the rise of Bunyoro Kingdom**

1. **The influence of traditions**. Traditions had great influence in choosing the *Omukama* who was chosen from among the chiefs who came from the ruling family. This practice helped to reduce disputes over power succession among the chiefs who called Saza
2. **The role of strong kings**. Bunyoro Kingdom had strong leadership under famous kings like *Omukama* Kabalega Kamurasi who created Bunyoro’s standing army which consisted about 20,000 soldiers who were called *Abarusura*. Army helped to defend the kingdom and raided neighbouring empire to extend the expansion of their kingdom
3. **Good geographical condition**. The climatic condition of Bunyoro was good which enabled the people to grow various types of crops and raise livestock. It was fertile area in which people used it to produce enough food which supported their society.
4. **Strong political system**. The Bunyoro Kingdom had divided into several provinces in which each province was ruled by chiefs (Saza) who were appointed by Omukama. The chiefs were loyal to king and controlled provinces, distributed land and cattle herds and collecting tributes and promoting peace and unity among the people on behalf of the Omukama
5. **Increased of population**. Increase in the population led to the rise of Bunyoro Kingdom. The population increased due to the increased of food supply that led to its expansion
6. **Raided their neighbouring societies**. Bunyoro Kingdom carried out successful raids against their neighbours. This conquest led to the expansion of the Kingdom

**Factors for the declined of Bunyoro Kingdom**

1. **Expansion size of the kingdom**. The increased geographic coverage of Bunyoro made it difficult for the king to control the kingdom effectively. This led to the lost of important provinces because sometimes, the chiefs revolt against the central government and broke away. Examples of provinces that broke away were Buddu, Toro, Busoga and Koki
2. **Disputes in the ruling family**. Members of the ruling family sometimes quarreled over kingship succession. For example during the rule of Omukama Kyebambe Nyamutukura III, one of his sons called Kaboyo rebelled against his father and established Toro kingdom
3. **Limited king’s control over regional chiefs**. Provincial chiefs had certain degree of independence from Omukama. for example, they could raise their own provincial armies. This was dangerous to the unity of Bunyoro Kingdom because some leaders used this opportunity to revolt against the central government.
4. **Invasion from the British forces**. British forces invaded Bunyoro in 1893. By 1899, when Bunyoro resistance was finally broken, much of Bunyoro’s best rangeland had been transferred to the neighbouring societies. This created depopulation in the kingdom, hence declined.
5. **Loss of important iron working province**. The iron rich deposits of Kooki were taken away by the Buganda. This situation led to the decline of the kingdom because Bunyoro could not make enough arrows and spears for the defense.
6. **Expansion of Buganda Kingdom**. In the late of 19th century, Buganda Kingdom started trading with the Arabs who supplied weapons that helped to strengthen the army of Buganda. This situation, made easy for Buganda to defeat Bunyoro, hence declined.

**The Buganda Kingdom**

The Buganda Kingdom was one of the centralized states in East Africa which was located in interlacustrine region in southwest of modern Uganda. The Kingdom started as a small state in 16th century and began to expand in 17th century and up to 19th century Buganda became strongest state in interlacustrine region after the declined of Bunyoro Kingdom. The title of the king of Buganda was called *Kabaka*

**Political organization of the Buganda Kingdom**

The organization of the Buganda was among of the best political systems in the interlacustrine region. The administrative hierarchy was as follows

***Kabaka***

He was the top leader of the kingdom. He was an overall political leader and the final decision maker

**Chiefs**

Chiefs helped Kabaka to spread his authority throughout the kingdom

***Lukiiko***

This was the *Kabaka’s* main advisory council which was made up of the Prime Minister *(Katikiro*), the treasury general *(Omuwanika*) and the chief justice *(Mugema*). Members of Lukiiko were appointed by Kabaka

**Factors for the rise of Buganda Kingdom**

1. **Development of agriculture**. Agriculture led to the growth of Buganda Kingdom because people produced surplus food that favoured the growth of population. Food security enabled people to concentrate on productive duties, which led to the development of the kingdom
2. **Formation of strong army**. Strong army enabled Baganda to strengthen and expand their kingdom. The army was also used to protect the wealth of the society and to conquer neighbouring societies
3. **Clear system of leadership succession**. Buganda’s administration was centralized that practiced hereditary system of leadership. In this system, leadership passed from the father to the son. This helped to prevent and resolve disputes over succession of leadership
4. **Control of trade**. Buganda participated in the East and Central African long-distance trade. This trade enabled *Kabaka* to collect tributes that were used to strengthen his kingdom because trade provided the kingdom with commo0dities.
5. **Strong link between the state and clans**. The political system of Buganda reduced conflicts and maintained peace within the state. *Kabaka* married wives from several different clans something that created alliance among the different clans. This created unity and harmony within the kingdom
6. **Religious practices**. Buganda practiced ancestral worship and *Kabaka* was a spiritual leader who presided over religious functions. *Kabaka* was regarded as a semi-divine person and he was surrounded by religious leaders from different clans. Thus, religion was one of the pillars that encouraged socio-political unity and maintained power relations within the kingdom
7. **Development of iron technology**. Iron was used to produce weapons and tools that enabled Buganda to conquer weak empires as well as to engage in production activities. Both led Buganda to surplus food production.

**Factors for the decline of Buganda Kingdom**

1. **Establishment of colonialism**. The establishment of colonial rule undermined political power and authority of Kabaka. The Buganda agreement of 1900 allowed British governors to control Buganda. This situation made the kingdom to loss its independence because was no longer free and the power of Kabaka was reduced
2. **Religious differences and conflicts**. There were three conflicting religious groups, namely Islam, Christianity and traditional religion. The conflict divided Buganda Kingdom into many religious groups. This situation made Buganda gradually lost its internal unity and stability among the people in socio-political entity.
3. **Introduction of colonial economy**. The introduction of peasant economy in Buganda changed the production system and brought disintegration of the kingdom. The production of cash crops reduced the production of food crops. This created the shortage of food, and the available food could not sufficient to feed the entire population in the kingdom
4. **Conflicting administrative interests**. Since Buganda was ruled by *Batongole*, some of the provincial chiefs made efforts to gain absolute power and authority over their subject. These efforts resulted in administrative misunderstandings and conflicts between Batongole and Kabaka that ultimately led to the downfall of the kingdom
5. **Weak leadership**. Buganda Kingdom experienced the problem of weak leadership which led to its downfall. Lack of able leadership especially after the death of *Kabaka Mutesa I* in 1884 led to the decline of the kingdom
6. **Lack of standing army**. Buganda did not have a professional standing army which was caused by social classes within the kingdom. Social classes created disunity and internal conflicts especially power struggle

**Western Sudanic states**

The earliest centralized states in the western Sudanic zone were Ghana, Mali and Songhay

**Ghana Empire**

Ghana Empire was centralized kingdom which was located in the southern border region of modern-day Mauritania and Mali between the bend of the Niger and Senegal rivers. The founders of Ghana Empire were Soninke people whose first leader was *Tunka Manin*. The empire rose from 5th century after several states were brought together through war. The capital of Ghana Empire was **Kumbi Saleh** and the title of the king was Tunka or Ghana. The towns located near Ghana were Walata, Audaghust (Audoghast), Timbuktu, Tichitt and Jenne. Remember that, its original name was Wagadou, Ghana was simply a tittle given to the King. Arabs and western historians have grown to call it Ghana.

**Factors for the rise of Ghana Empire**

1. **Good geographical position**. Ghana was at the intersection of many Trans-Saharan Trade routes. It played an intermediary’s role in this trade. All trade goods from the South, North and East passed through Ghana and the *Koya* or king controlled trade routes and taxes were collected. Its position also encouraged agricultural production which ensured sufficient food.
2. **Availability of gold**. Ghana produced a lot of gold which was the main item of trade and a form of currency. Trade in gold made the empire politically strong and economically rich
3. **Efficient administrative system**. Ghana Empire was divided into provinces. The king appointed provincial chiefs in each province. Those chief provided support to the king in their respective areas. In this way, he managed to control the entire kingdom
4. **Military strength**. Ghana Empire had strong permanent army of about 200,000 men. The army had the duty of fighting weak chiefdoms and defending the kingdom from external attacks
5. **Development of iron technology**. Iron technology produced both military weapons for defence and farming tools that helped to improve agricultural activities that increased food production and made food more available. The availability of food led to the growth of population which strengthened the kingdom
6. **Development of trade**. Ghana Empire grew rich from Trans-Saharan Trade in gold, textiles, food and salts that allowing larger urban development. This encouraged territorial expansion to gain control over different trade routes.

**Factors for the decline of the Ghana Empire**

1. **Attacks by Almoravids**. Almoravids were the Muslim from Morocco who attacked the empire till it fell. Ghana was frequently attacked by the Almoravids from 1076 to 1077. These attacks aimed at spread Islam and reclaiming Audaghust, which was a major source of salt and gold. These attacks weakened the empire and led to its decline
2. **Dissatisfaction of traders**. Gold traders in Ghana were complaining about the king’s monopoly of gold trade and heavy taxes, making trading activities unprofitable. Many traders diverged their activities to other growing states such as Mali. This weakened the kingdom and contributed to its decline
3. **Dissatisfaction of vassal states**. Different vassal states refused to pay tributes while others declared themselves independent of the kingdom. The vassal states in the empire wanted freedom, so they fought for complete independence. This weakened the kingdom and contributed to its decline
4. **Economic decline**. The Ghana Empire was heavily dependent on the Trans-Saharan Trade by selling salt and gold. However, the empire’s control over these trade routes began to wane in 11th century due to the rise of new trading states such as Mali which competed with Ghana for the control of trade routes. This led to the decline of the kingdom due to loss of trade revenue.
5. **Vastness of the empire**. The Ghana Empire was too large, hence it was difficult to control. The size of the empire was so large that it became impossible to control their vassal states. This led to the decline of the empire.
6. **Conquest from Mali**. Sundiata Keita who was the founder of Mali Empire conquered ancient Ghana Empire and established the kingdom of Kangaba, which later became the ancient Mali Empire. Initially, Kangaba was the vassal of Ghana Empire since 1056.
7. **Bad climatic condition**. During the 12th century, the empire was affected by climatic change. Drought was become hostile in the production of food. The land became barren and wasted. This led to its decline

**Mali Empire**

The Mali Empire was the centralized state in West Africa which was formed in 1214 by Sundiata Keita after the decline of Ghana Empire. Initially, the empire stated as small state known as Kangaba and it believed that Kangaba was the vassal of Ghana Empire. In 13th century, Sundiata Keita succeed to defeat Sumanguru of Sosso in the battle of *Kirina* near present day Bamako and took control of all the Soninke people and built a large empire called Mali. The capital of Mali Empire was called **Niami**. The title of kings of Mali was Mansa and the famous ruler of the empire was *Mansa Kankan Musa*, the ninth king of Mali who ruled between; 1312-1337. *Mansa Kankan Musa* was famous because he was believed to be the wealthiest person in History of Africa and during his reign, the empire reached its peak and became the largest empire in West Africa

**Factors for the rise of the Mali Empire**

1. **Strong standing army**. Mali was protected by a well-trained army that ensured full security of the empire. The rulers, especially Mansa Kankan Musa kept a large standing army under a battalion of commanders. The army was used to protect the empire from outside attacks. It was also used to patrol trading routes and to ensure that district chiefs paid tributes to the king.
2. **The role of Islam**. Islam was used as the state religion and unifying factor among the people in the empire. During the reign of Mansa Kankan Musa, Islamic laws *(sharia)* were used intensively to control the behaviour and attitudes of the people. This brought discipline and unity among them
3. **Development of agriculture**. Mali had a rich and fertile agricultural land that enabled people to produce a wide variety of grains and other crops. They also kept livestock such as cattle, goats and sheep. Farming and cattle keeping ensured the people with enough food which led to the increase of population
4. **Control of gold mines and trade routes**. The empire controlled trade routes passing through its territory and gold mines at Bambuk, Bundu and Wangara. This led to the growth of the major commercial centers of Niami, Jenne, Timbuktu and Gao. Gold trade linked the empire with Morocco, Tripoli, Egypt and also it attracted traders from Europe and the Middle East
5. **Strong leadership**. Mali Empire had strong leaders like Sundiata Keita and Mansa Musa who divided the empire into provinces and appointed leaders in charge of each province. They did not want to exercise total power; instead they left administration of the region to loyal chiefs whom they appreciated. This leadership style promoted loyalty and mutual understanding between king and his vassals.
6. **Conquest other states**. The founder of Mali Empire, Sundiata Keita, or the “Lion King” seized the former capital of Ghana Empire in 1240. Sundiata Keita and his men consolidated control while expand the Mali Empire

**Factors for the decline of the Mali Empire**

1. **Internal struggle for succession**. The empire of Mali faced its downfall due to the poor leadership and disagreements for the throne amongst the family members. These struggles created divisions and separations which weakened the state. The royal succession led to the civil wars as the brothers and uncles fought each other for the throne
2. **Attacks from trade competitors**. The Mosi kingdom from the south and Tuaregs from the North attacked the Mali Empire to get control of Trans-Saharan Trade routes as well as items of trade such as gold, slaves and salt. These attacks weakened the empire and led to its collapse.
3. **The rise of Songhay Empire**. The Songhay Empire was created by Sunni Ali and his soldiers attacked and destroyed Jenne and plundered its wealth. This weakened the Mali Empire because Jenne was the backbone of its economy. The attack and plunder contributed to the decline of the Mali Empire.
4. **Death of prominent leaders**. In 1337 Mansa Musa died and the empire was ruled by Mansa Suleiman. In 1380 Mali begins to decline after the death of Mansa Suleiman. The death of Suleiman created internal conflicts, rebellions and attacks by neighbouring states. this led to the weaken of the empire
5. **Attacks by neighbouring states**. There were attacks on Mali Empire by the Tuaregs in 1433 and by the Mossi people in 1468. Also Sunni Ali of Songhay Empire conquered Mali and the remained of Mali Empire would be absorbed into the Moroccan Empire in the mid- 17th century. This marked the end of the Mali Empire in West Africa.
6. **Broke out of some small states from Mali Empire**. Mali’s power was eventually weakened due to some of the small states broke away from Mali Empire. The first people to achieve independence from Mali were the *Wolof* who resided in what is now Senegal and they established the *Jolof* Empire around 1350.

**The Songhay Empire**

The Songhay Empire was the largest empire in the western Sudanic states which was founded by Sunni Ali in 1464. Gao was the capital city of the empire which also was one of the great centres of trade during Trans-Saharan Trade. The title king was Sunni and the Empire initially was ruled by Sunni Ali dynasty (1464-1493) and later replaced by Askia dynasty under the leadership of Askia Mohamed Toure. Gao, conquered neighboring states under the leadership of Sunni Ali and formed the large empire of Songhay. Gao became its capital earlier on around the 11th Century and remained the capital under the empire.

**Factors for the rise of the Songhay Empire**

1. **Control of trade routes**. Some of the important Trans-Saharan Trade routes passed through Gao. Gao used this opportunity to tax traders who passed by. The wealth collected from taxes enabled the empire to create and support large permanent army.
2. **Strong leadership**. Songhay Empire was led by successful leaders, Sunni Ali and Askia Mohamed who expanded the territories of the empire. By 15th century, the empire had expanded to cover the whole area between Kebbi in the East and Jenne in the West. In the North, the empire had reached Timbuktu while in South, it had reached Hombori
3. **The role of Islam**. The adoption of Islam was important factor for the rise of Songhay Empire. Rulers used Islam to unify people and to justify wars of conquest (Jihada)
4. **The strength of the army**. Sunni Ali had a strong army that helped him to protect and expand the empire. His army was comprised of well-armed horse riding forces that were used to conquer and defend the kingdom
5. **Development of agriculture and industry**. Increased agricultural production assured the civilians and soldiers of sufficient food. Industries produced tools that led to an increase in the production of different goods and weapons. All these activities were vital to the growth of the empire.
6. **Conquered other states**. Sunni Ali used his military power to expand the empire through conquering other neighbouring states. For instance, cities of Timbuktu and Jenne were the urban centred trade. They were conquered in 1468 and 1475 respectively

**Factors for the decline of Songhay Empire**

1. **Succession disputes after the death of Askia Mohamed**. The death of Askia Mohamed created some misunderstanding in the ruling family. After the death, a period of weak and unskillful leadership followed. This led to frequent unrests in turn undermined the stability of the empire.
2. **Resistance to heavy tributes**. Peasants and artisans resisted the heavy tributes demanded by the king. They disobeyed the king and refused to implement decisions made by him. This weakened the empire.
3. **Change of trade routes**. During 16th century, the direction of trade routes shifted towards the Atlantic coast where European merchants had established themselves. This shift resulted in the decline of the Trans-Saharan Trade which was the backbone of the Songhay Empire.
4. **The Moroccan invasion**. The Sultan of Morocco wanted to monopolize the West African gold trade. His army attacked and conquered the Songhay Empire. This invasion weakened the Songhay Empire and the empire collapsed after it was defeated at the battle of Tondibi in 1591.
5. **Economic decline**. The Songhay Empire was heavily reliant on trade, particularly in gold, salt and other resources. However, as trade routes shifted and other empires gained control of important trade routes, the empire began to decline economically. This affected the stability of the empire to maintain a strong military and infrastructure, which further weakened its power.
6. **Drought and famine**. The Songhay Empire was located in region that was prone to drought and famine. During periods of drought, the empire’s agricultural output decreased, which led to the shortage of food. This led to weakened of the empire and further decline.

**The Forest states of West Africa**

There were number of states developed in Forest region in West Africa. The most important states were Asante, Oyo, Dahomey, Benin and Ife.

**The Asante Kingdom**

The Asante was founded by the Oyoko people, one of the Akan clans in the 17th century. The Oyoko first founded five small chiefdoms of Kumasi, Nsuta, Kokofu, Bwekai and Dwaben which later on united into one powerful kingdom of Asante. By 1670, Kumasi was the greatest and most powerful. ***Obiri Yeboa*** was the first ruler of the Asante Kingdom and he made Kumasi as the capital and unifying centre of the Asante Kingdom. The title of the king of the Asante Kingdom was Asantehene.

**Factors for the rise of the Asante Kingdom**

1. **Soil fertility**. The Asante Kingdom evolved from an area that was endowed with soil fertility. This fertility supported agriculture which was the main economic activities of the kingdom in which crops like grains, palm and millet were cultivated. Agriculture ensured the availability of food for the people, rulers and soldiers
2. **Military strength**. The kingdom developed a strong military force which was formed by a well disciplined army equipped with modern weapons such as guns. These were obtained from the Trans-Saharan Trade and the Atlantic Slave Trade. The army fought wars of conquest and expand the size of kingdom
3. **Participation in the long-distance trade**. The kingdom actively participated in the West African long-distance trade and established trading centres along the Atlantic coast. Trade was mainly based on the export of slaves and gold from the forest region. The kingdom imported beads, clothes and firearms for security purpose. The wealth collected from trade were used to strengthen the kingdom
4. **Strong leadership**. The kingdom grew due to the presence of strong leaders of Obiri Yeboa, Osei Tutu and Opokwu Ware. Those leaders unified and united people in the kingdom. The unity brought by the leaders was used to conquer the surrounding states. The unity was brought by the many factors such as presence of Golden Stool as a symbol of unity, introduction of religious festival known as *Odwira* and demanded payment of tribute from every adult member of the empire. All these measures helped to strengthen political unity and economy of the empire.
5. **Military conquest of neighbouring states**. The Asante Kingdom succeeded to conquer neighbouring states of Denkyira and other Akan states during the reign of Osei Tutu. By 18th century, he controlled most goldfield of the Forest zone
6. **The influence of traditions**. During the reign of Osei Tutu, Okomfo Anokye, a traditional priest, made Osei Tutu the occupant of the Golden stool and became a religious and political leader. He became link between the people and the gods.

**Factors for the fall of Asante Kingdom**

1. **British imperial activities**. The British frequently attacked the kingdom between 1871 and 1901. This undermined peace and security of the kingdom as well as trading activities. British activities affected the prosperity of the Asante Kingdom, hence declined.
2. **The abolition of slave trade**. The campaign of abolition slave trade led to the end of slave trade in West Africa which ruined most of the forest state including Asante Kingdom because the powers of these states depended on the slave trade and most of the kingdom including Asante lost revenues.
3. **Increased size of kingdom**. By the 19th century, the size of the kingdom grew and became bigger. This growth partly caused the decline of the Asante. Some of the conquered territories gradually rebelled against central government of Kumasi and developed into self-governing states.
4. **Conflicts with Fante**. In 1807, the kingdom leader Osei Bonsu occupied southern Fante territory something that created conflicts and war. During the Asante-Fante war, the British supported the Fante to fight the Asante, thus weakened the empire
5. **Internal weaknesses**. The kingdom inherited internal weaknesses that led to its decline. The kingdom had constitutional weaknesses that led to loose federation of autonomous states that were brought together by military. The weakness started to allow each state to establish its own army which was sent to become part of the kingdom army in times of war.
6. **Weaknesses in administration**. Asante made no attempt to suppress the local nationalism of the conquered states. This created rebellions and eventually led to the conflicts and then declined.

Other forest states to be discussed are Ife, Oyo, Dahomey and Benin)

**Central African kingdoms**

(The kingdoms to be discussed are Kongo, Mwenemutapa, Luba and Lunda)

**South African kingdoms**

(The kingdom to be discussed is Zulu kingdom)

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