



HISTORY AND CITIZENSHIP

Student's Book

2

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FOREWORD

Dear Student,

Rwanda Basic Education Board is honoured to present to you History and Citizenship book for Senior Two which serves as a guide to competence-based teaching and learning to ensure consistency and coherence in the learning of History and Citizenship subject. The Rwandan educational philosophy is to ensure that you achieve full potential at every level of education which will prepare you to be well integrated in society and exploit employment opportunities.

The government of Rwanda emphasizes the importance of aligning teaching and learning materials with the syllabus to facilitate your learning process. Many factors influence what you learn, how well you learn and the competences you acquire. Those factors include quality instructional materials available, assessment strategies for the learners among others. Special attention was paid to activities that facilitate learning process develop your ideas and make new discoveries during concrete activities carried out individually or with peers.

In competence-based curriculum, learning is considered as a process of active building and developing knowledge and meanings by the learner where concepts are mainly introduced by an activity, a situation or a scenario that helps the learner to construct knowledge, develop skills and acquire positive attitudes and values. For effective use of this textbook, your role is to:

- Work on given activities which lead to the development of skills
- Share relevant information with other learners through presentations, discussions, group work and other active learning techniques such as role play, case studies, investigation and research in the library, from the internet or from your community;
- Participate and take responsibility for your own learning;
- Draw conclusions based on the findings from the learning activities.

To facilitate you in doing activities, the content of this book is self-explanatory so that you can easily use it by yourself, acquire and assess your competences. The book is made of units whereby each unit comprises: the key unit competence, followed by the introductory activity before the development of History and Citizenship concepts that are connected to real world situation.

I wish to sincerely extend my appreciation to REB staff who organized the editing process of this textbook. Special gratitude also goes to lecturers, teachers, illustrators and designers who supported the exercises throughout. Any comment or contribution is welcome for future improvement of this textbook.

Dr. MBARUSHIMANA Nelson

Director General, REB



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**Joan Murungi,
Head of CTRLD**

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read "Joan Murungi".

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UNIT 1

KINGDOMS OF EAST AND CENTRAL AFRICA: BUGANDA AND KONGO KINGDOMS

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to describe the factors that led to the rise and decline of kingdoms in East and Central Africa: Case study of Buganda and Kongo kingdoms.



Introductory Activity 1.1

Using textbooks or internet, draw the map showing the kingdoms of East and Central Africa and answer the questions asked in groups of five students.

1. Identify and locate those kingdoms on the map of Africa.
2. Discuss on the main reasons for the rise of East and central African Kingdom
3. Identify the reasons for the gradual breaks up of Eastern and central African Kingdoms.

There were many kingdoms in the east and central African region before the colonial era. Among the most established kingdoms were the Buganda and the Kongo kingdoms. This unit explores the origin, rise of each of these two kingdoms. It concludes by studying the reasons for the decline of these two kingdoms.

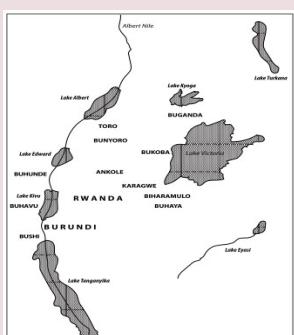


Fig. 1.1: Map showing Kingdoms in East Africa Fig. 1.2 : Map showing Kingdoms in central Africa

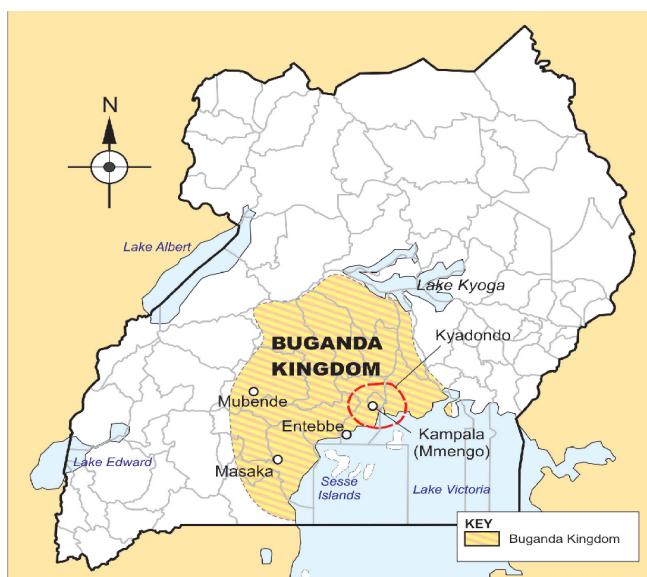
➤ Buganda Kingdom

Introduction

This was one of the most developed and highly centralised states in the interlacustrine region in the middle of 19th Century. It covered the area between Lake Kyoga and Lake Victoria in the north and south respectively. To the west she was boarded by Bunyoro and extended as far as River Nile to the east.

There are two theories that explain the origin of the Buganda Kingdom. The first theory is based on traditions in Buganda. These traditions suggest that the founder of Buganda was Kintu. Kintu was an immigrant from Mount Elgon region. He is believed to have organised the Buganda clans in one centralised organisation with himself on top of administrative hierarchy. This theory is popular among the Baganda and is believed by about thirteen clans.

The other theory that explains the origin of Buganda is the Kimera theory. Traditions in Bunyoro assert that Buganda Kingdom was formed by a sub dynasty of Babito. They argue that after the Chwezi Empire disintegrated, different provinces founded their own kingdoms. Traditions say that the founder of Buganda kingdom was Kato Kirema, a twin brother of Isingoma Rukidi Mpuga. Isingoma Rukidi was the founder of Babito Dynasty in Bunyoro Kingdom. What is important is that by the middle of the 16th Century, a kingdom emerged in the area north of Lake Victoria. The kingdom later expanded in all directions.



1.1. Factors for the rise and growth of Buganda Kingdom.



Learning Activity 1.1

1. State any two factors that led to the rise of Buganda Kingdom.
2. By the 19th century, Buganda was at the peak of its greatness. Let us now discuss some of the factors for its rise and growth.

a) Strong and ambitious leaders.

Around the 14th and 15th centuries, the small Buganda Kingdom experienced rapid growth and expansion. Initially, the kingdom was made up of smaller kingdoms of Busiro, Kyadondo and Mawokota. This growth came about as a result of powerful and ambitious kings of Buganda at that time. Such kings captured new areas towards the end of the 16th century. They added them to the existing Buganda Kingdom. At the same time, it can rightly be argued that the kingdom had weaker neighbours such as Bunyoro Kingdom.

Examples of such strong leaders are Kabaka Kateregga, who raided Bunyoro and conquered Ggomba, part of Butambala, southern Ssingo and part of Busunju. This was around the 16th and 17th centuries. However, Kabaka Kyabaggu made raids into Busoga but was later forced to withdraw.

Another successful and ambitious leader was Kabaka Jjunju, who annexed Buddu, Kooki, parts of Kiziba and Karagwe from Bunyoro in the 18th Century. He also made Buhaya pay tribute to the larger Buganda Kingdom. Kabaka Ssemakokiro, in the last quarter of the 18th Century, got Buwekula and Bulemezi. He also forced Busoga to pay tribute to Buganda. Kabaka Mawanda, in the 18th Century, got Karagwe, which lay to the northeast of Bulemezi and northwest of Singo.

b) Centralised administration.

Buganda was a highly centralised state under a king known as *Kabaka*. He ruled with the help of the traditional parliament called *Lukiiko*. Apart from the *Lukiiko*, the king was also assisted by three important officials: the prime minister (*Katikiro*), the treasurer (*Omuwanika*) and chief justice (*Omulamuzi*). The king was a source of power from the head of the administrative unit to the bottom level. Important to note is that a decision by the *Lukiiko* as well as Kabaka's word was final in settling disputes and initiating development projects.

c) Smooth succession of leaders.

Succession of leadership in the kingdom was well laid out. Before the kabaka died, he had to name his successor. If he did not, the katikiro and the clan heads would be responsible for choosing the capable kabaka. This reduced conflict that could arise out of succession. In general, this promoted stability and peace in the kingdom.

d) Trade.

Buganda Kingdom participated in trade with its neighbours such as Ankole, Bunyoro, Karagwe and Rwanda. It traded in bark cloth and iron. Generally, the trade boosted its economic progress. The kingdom also participated in Long Distance Trade that was being carried out between the East African Coast and Central Africa. The Arabs from the coast brought guns in exchange for slaves and ivory. The kingdom used these guns to conquer her neighbours and further expand her territory.

e) Strategic location.

Buganda Kingdom was strategically positioned with natural features. For instance, Lake Victoria on the south, Lake Kyoga on the north and River Nile on the east. These natural features provided defense against her neighbours.

f) Fertile soils and favourable climate.

The kingdom supported agriculture. This is because it lay on land that was fertile. Together with favourable climate that it experienced; it produced good harvest that supported the population. Matoke was their staple food. They also kept livestock such as cattle, sheep and goats.

g) Strong army.

The kingdom had an army equipped with iron weapons such as spears, bowls and iron arrows. There also existed royal bodyguards that maintained the Kabaka's court and constantly protected it. The army defended the kingdom and protected its boundaries. Every able-bodied male adult had a responsibility to protect it. The army was well organized, trained and disciplined.

h) Unifying language, religion, ancestry and culture.

The Kingdom of Buganda had several unifying factors. Among these was their language, others being their traditional religion, a common ancestry and similar culture. All these factors led to the kingdom's rise, growth and expansion. For instance, the Buganda Kingdom was a homogenous society with the Bantu whose language was Luganda.

This made communication easy and swift throughout the kingdom. The Kabaka among the Baganda on the other hand was not only an administrative leader, but also a spiritual leader. He was believed to be the overall mediator between his people and their god, Lubaaale. Their culture also emphasised respect for authority and elders. This minimised cases of disobedience and internal revolts.

i) Began as a small state.

At first, the Kingdom of Buganda was small. This made it possible to be easily administrated and controlled. Communication throughout the kingdom was also fast and effective.



Application Activity 1.1.

1. Discuss the factors that led the rise and growth of Buganda kingdom.
2. Present the findings.

1.2. Factors for the decline of Buganda Kingdom



Learning Activity 1.2.

Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow:

Contrary to what many think, leadership is about ‘carrying’ other people’s load. It requires patience, tolerance, wisdom, fairness and dedication.

In some cases, a leader must be strict, even if other people will oppose him or her. The most important thing is that the strictness should be based on fairness and service to all.

A good leader should always be ready to attend to the needs of the people he or she leads. While doing so, he or she must prioritise the needs. That is to say that some needs may require urgent attention than others.

If leadership is left to weak, undecided, immoral and corrupt leaders, a state fails. Many states have collapsed due to leadership wrangles or incitement. In some cases, tribalism has led to collapse of regimes and deaths of innocent citizens.

1. According to the passage, explain what leadership entails.
2. Identify some of the factors that can lead to collapse of a regime as mentioned in the passage.

a) The coming of Europeans.

The location of the kingdom made it open to foreign interference. For example, it was located along the trade routes which were used by Europeans. These Europeans consisted of explorers, missionaries, chartered companies and, later on, colonialists. They signed treaties with the Kabaka and chiefs and stopped slave trade and slavery. They also abolished traditional religion, introduced Christianity and reduced the powers of the Kabaka. This led to the decline of the kingdom.

b) Big size of the kingdom.

The kingdom expanded to its great height to annex Busoga and Bukedi and other vassal states. The big size due to expansion came with administrative loopholes, rebellions and inefficiency in control. For instance, distant administrative areas like Busoga broke away, weakening the kingdom as well as reducing its size.

c) Religious conflicts.

The coming of Christian missionaries in Buganda brought some negative effects. For instance, there were some religious conflicts among Catholics, Protestants and Muslims. These religious conflicts divided people along religious lines.

d) Weak military.

The large areas that the kingdom occupied made it difficult for it to maintain a large enough army to protect it. With further expansion, the kingdom's military system weakened. It also had no standing army to defend the kingdom on a daily basis except the royal guards that maintained the king's security. This led to its decline. With the coming of the Europeans, the Buganda army was unable to protect the kingdom. This was because they had less powerful guns from Arabs as compared to those of the colonialists.

e) Succession disputes.

In the early 19th century, a man called Mutebi tried to become the kabaka of Buganda. He had the backing of a number of chiefs for the throne. This was disputed by his brother, Kamanya, who had similar interests. What followed was a bitter succession war between these two brothers. The dispute caused the death of Mutebi in the hands of his brother, Kamanya. Kamanya was so paranoid he even killed his own sons.

Another succession dispute was witnessed between Apolo Kaggwa, supporting Daudi Chwa and Daudi Mwanga. The dispute started shortly after Mwanga's father had been forced out of his kingdom and into exile

in the Seychelles Islands. The dispute lasted between 1888 and 1892, culminating in the Battle of Mengo. Apollo Kaggwa defeated a Muslim supported Daudi Mwanga and saw the installation of a Christian backed one-year-old Daudi Chwa. Kaggwa ended up being one of the three of kabaka's regents.

f) Decline of trade.

Trade in Buganda kingdom declined or collapsed especially with the coming of Europeans. The Europeans stopped long distance trade with its main item, slaves. This led to a reduction of the kingdom's revenue, consequently leading to its downfall.

g) Death of strong leaders.

The kingdom of Buganda lost capable, brave and strong leaders such as Kabaka Mwanga and Kabaka Mutesa. These leaders had special and natural skills of administration. This brought a gap in the kingdom in terms of re-organisation hence leading its decline.

h) External attacks.

Buganda Kingdom kept on declining and became less feared by its neighbours. This caused the neighbouring kingdoms that were assumed to be weak, before to attack it. Such an attack was mounted by the Bunyoro Kingdom. From such attacks, Buganda experienced damages and losses.

i) Disunity.

The kingdom became disunited because of religious conflicts and divisions. The subjects started hating and fighting themselves. This led to the kingdom's decline.

j) Political instabilities.

The coming of the British caused political instability in the Buganda Kingdom. This is because their interests in the kingdom were mainly economic. To effectively benefit from this new-found economic entity, they had to devise a way of disturbing the unity that had kept the kingdom together. They therefore opted for 'divide-and-rule' policy, as a way of hindering the people's relations in order to prevent potential political alliances and uprisings. The people of this former prosperous kingdom found themselves clustered in regions and tribal communities.

The divide-and-rule policy was so effective that it prevented Africans from taking part in the national political arena. This in turn suppressed any form of unity in coming up with political movements that could oppose their selfish maneuvers.

The British also introduced Christian religion in the kingdom, which caused serious divisions amongst the people. For instance, when Mutesa died in 1884, his son Mwanga succeeded him. Mwanga was a young man when he took the throne. Unfortunately, he lacked the leadership qualities of his late father. Soon, the kingdom became unstable as a result of the rivalries between the various religious camps. With the kingdom in turmoil, the religious groupings effectively became political affiliations. Each of these affiliations confronted the king militarily. Mwanga was deposed by the armed converts, forcing him to flee the kingdom in 1888.

In the civil war that ensued, Muslims emerged successful. They proclaimed an Islamic state and installed Kiwewa, a prince who had converted to Islam, as king. However, the Christian converts ganged to fight the Muslims and defeated them. The Christians installed Kalema, a prince who was in support of their efforts.



Application Activity 1.2.

Assess factors which led to the decline of Buganda kingdom. Present them to the class.

➤ **Kongo Kingdom.**

Introduction.

The Kingdom of Kongo was located in west central Africa. It covered the present-day northern Angola, Cabinda and the Democratic Republic of Congo. It stretched to the southern part of Gabon. The kingdom extended to reach the Atlantic Ocean in the west and to the Cuango River in the east. Further, it stretched from the Congo River in the north to the Kwanza River in the south. The kingdom consisted of several core provinces ruled by the 'Manikongo', meaning lord or ruler of the Kongo Kingdom. However, the Kingdom extended to neighbouring kingdoms such as Ngoyo, Kakongo, Nsoyo and Matamba.

The Kingdom of Kongo largely existed from 1390-1862 as an independent state. From 1862-1914, it existed as a vassal state of the Kingdom of Portugal. In 1914, the titular monarchy was forcibly abolished, following the Portuguese victory against a Kongo revolt. The remaining territories of the kingdom were assimilated into colony of Angola (colonized by Portuguese), Belgian Congo (colonized by Belgians) and French colony of Congo.

About its origin, the kingdom of Kongo was also known as Kongo dya Ntotila or Wene wa Kongo. According to the kongo traditions, the kingdom's origin lies in the very large and not very rich area of Mpemba Kasi located just South of modern day Matadi in DRC. The founder of Kongo Kingdom was said to be Lukeni Lua Nimi.



Fig. 1.3: Map of Kongo Kingdom towards the end of the 19th Century

1.3 Factors for the rise of Kongo Kingdom



Learning Activity 1.3.

Learning activity 1.3.

1. Explain 3 factors that led to rise of Kongo kingdom
2. Identify the countries that Kongo trades with.
3. Discuss how agricultural resources of Kongo have helped it to grow.

Write a report from your findings for class presentation.

The following are the factors that led to the rise of Kongo Kingdom:

a) Presence of River Congo.

The river provided a good fishing ground for the locals. Fish not only provided food but also served as a commodity for trade with neighbouring communities.

b) Trade.

Kongo Kingdom practised trade with its locals and the neighbouring states. The items traded included iron implements, slaves, agricultural products and handcraft industry products. For instance, people mined iron and copper for their use and for trade. They also produced pottery and clothing. They traded in these items and the income was used to grow and expand the kingdom.

c) Contributions from vassal states.

The centre of the Kongo Kingdom was its capital city, Mbanza. From there, the Kongo rulers established a highly organised kingdom. The village was the basic political unit of the kingdom. A group of villages made up a district. Districts were grouped together into six provinces. The king required the provinces to pay as tributes to the kingdom. The tributes were ivory, fish, minerals and meat used to expand the kingdom.

d) Availability of minerals.

The Kingdom of Kongo was rich in minerals such as ivory, copper and iron. These items were traded with the Portuguese. The kingdom earned a lot of income from the minerals.

e) Agriculture.

Agriculture was the basis of production in the Kongo Kingdom. The soil was fertile and favoured growth of crops. People cultivated cassava, maize, beans and sweet potatoes. The kingdom did not experience serious famine. In the villages, land was owned communally. The harvests were divided among families, with some set aside for payment of taxes. Towns were reliant on forced labour to farm plantations.

f) Art and craft.

Many people in the kingdom had skills in pottery and weaving. They made pots and pipes and wove fine cloth from barks of some trees. They traded these items with the people of Atlantic Ocean in exchange for seashells and salt. This helped the kingdom stabilise and rise.

g) Strong leaders.

Kongo Kingdom had able, strong and brave leaders who organised the kingdom under effective control. The leaders ensured that there was peace and prosperity in the kingdom. Some of the notable kings were King Afonso and King Alvaro I.

h) Strong army.

The kingdom had an army equipped with iron weapons such as spears, bowls and iron arrows. The army defended the kingdom and protected its boundaries.

i) Absence of external and internal attacks.

There were little external threats to the kingdom. This was because the neighbouring states were weaker than Kongo. The king also had a strong army which he commanded. King Alfonso even used the Portuguese mercenaries and guns to exert direct control over defence, tribute collections and the long-distance trade.



Application Activity 1.3.

State at least five factors for the rise of Kongo kingdom. Present your findings to the class.

1.4 Factors for the decline of Kongo Kingdom



Learning Activity 1.4.

Assess three important factors that led to the decline of Kongo Kingdom. Afterwards present your findings to the class.

a) Internal and external conflicts.

There were significant struggles over succession after Afonso's death in 1542 and many times after that. Particularly in 1568, as a result of such a struggle, Kongo was temporary conquered by rival warriors from the east known as the Jagas. Adding to Kongo's troubles in the early 1600s was a general dissatisfaction among the Bakongo with their rulers, some of whom were greedy and corrupt.

Internal conflicts from time to time became so much common after the death of King Antonia in October 1665. The king died without the heir apparent. Many of the men who could have taken his place either died or were captured, including his seven-year-old son. The ruling house of Kinlaza and the opposing house of Kimpanzu fought furiously over the throne. This devastating war ended up weakening the kingdom. It took 40 years to rebuild it.

b) Civil war in the kingdom.

After the death of Afonso, Kongo declined rapidly and suffered major civil wars. The Portuguese shifted their interest southward to the kingdom of Ndongo and helped Ndongo defeat Kongo in 1556.

c) Effect of the Jaga Wars.

The Jaga wars, which all but destroyed the Kongo kingdom in 1568, brought a Portuguese military invasion. This brought with it a new class of self-reliant traders, adventurers and rogues, who established themselves in a kingdom which, in their eyes, owed them a debt of gratitude.

d) Death of able leaders.

The Kongo Kingdom had several able leaders who had inspired its growth and expansion. Death of such leaders caused its decline. Such a leader was Alvaro II. After his death in 1614, conflicts arose between Kongo and the Portuguese colony of Angola over land that was agriculturally productive. Eventually, in 1622, the Portuguese governor of Angola launched an attack on Kongo. They captured many slaves from the Kongo Kingdom, weakening it in the long run. This was not the end. Due to the conviction that there existed silver and gold mines in Kongo, they later launched a series of invasions against the Kongo Kingdom for the next half century.

e) The Ambuila Battle between 1665 and 1678.

Some neighbouring kingdoms such as Angola, supported by the Portuguese, invaded southern Kongo in 1622. Continued disputes between Kongo and Portugal over similar areas in the region led to skirmishes in the small district of Ambuila, ending up in the Battle of Ambuila on 29th October 1665. This Battle was mainly over areas where copper was being mined in the Kongo Kingdom. The Portuguese invaders killed King Antonio I and cut off his hand.

They transported it to Portugal. Most of his nobles, court officials and 5,000 Kongolese troops were also killed. Although Kongo continued to exist, from this point on, it ceased to function as a unified kingdom. Instead, it dissolved into small chiefdoms and never recovered.

f) Slave trade.

Slave trade being conducted by the Portuguese was instrumental in bringing the kingdom to an inglorious end, as it became depopulated by the growing demands for slaves. The Kongo Kingdom has been since viewed as being one of the major channels where slaves were picked from, which lasted about four centuries. This resulted in the relocation of millions from the hinterland. The slave trade, which undermined the social structure of Kongo, continued to weaken the authority of the manikongo.

g) Integration of the kingdom into the Portuguese colony.

In 1641, Manikongo Garcia II allied himself with the Dutch in an attempt to control Portuguese slave traders. However, in 1665, a Portuguese force decisively defeated the army of Kongo. From that time onwards, the manikongo was little more than a vassal of Portugal. The kingdom disintegrated into a number of small states, all controlled to varying degrees by the Portuguese. The area of Kongo was incorporated mostly into Angola and partly into the Independent State of the Congo.

Like any other kingdom in Africa, Kongo did not survive the scramble and partition of Africa. The Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 decided the sharing of Kongo Kingdom between three countries. These were France, Belgium and Portugal. This marked the end of Kongo Kingdom. Much later on, a revolt against Portuguese rule and complicity of the kings led by Álvaro Buta between 1913 and 1914 was suppressed. This triggered the eventual collapse of the Kongo Kingdom by being fully integrated into the Portuguese colony of Angola.

h) Weak army.

The Kongolese army became so weak because of internal and external attacks that were constant. The Kongolese army mostly relied on Portuguese mercenaries who became of little help because of their personal demand.

i) Big size.

The kingdom of Kongo had become too big to be administered by the already weak leaders. The army too was not so strong enough to protect and defend the kingdom from internal and external attacks.



Application Activity 1.4.

Discuss the factors for the decline of Kongo kingdom. Present in class.



End of unit assessment

1. Discuss the factors that led to the rise and growth of Buganda Kingdom.
2. Examine the factors that led to the rise of Kongo Kingdom.
3. Identify the reasons that led to the decline of Kongo Kingdom.

UNIT 2

THE LONG DISTANCE TRADE

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to explain the rise, effects and decline of the long-distance trade.



Introductory Activity

Use dictionary, textbooks, internet to answer the following questions:

1. Find out the meaning of the word 'distance'.
2. From your knowledge of Entrepreneurship, define trade.
3. Now link the two, to explain what long distance trade is.

This trade was conducted over long distances between the interior of central and East Africa and the East African coast. This trade involved long distances. In most cases, it entailed travelling thousands of miles from one region to another through hostile environment. This trade was done by well prepared traders, usually organised with sophisticated means of transport. The traders were also armed with firearms for fighting or defending themselves in case of danger or attacks on the way. It was led by experienced men who knew the routes and territories where traders passed.

Long distance traders were both locals and visitors from the coast and beyond. The locals included the interior African tribes such as the Yao, Akamba, Nyamwezi, Baganda, Bisa, Banyoro, Ganda and Kikuyu. These tribes provided commodities and security to the traders. Visitors to the interior whose aim was to trade were the Arabs and Europeans. They brought manufactured products. The interior African tribes provided the following commodities to traders: ivory, gold, slaves, ostrich feathers, leopard and zebra skins, copper and rubber while The Arabic/foreign goods included guns, gunpowder, clothes, iron products, knives, beads, plates, sugar, saucepans and mirrors.

2.1 Factors for the rise of the long-distance trade



Learning Activity 2.1.

Discuss the factors that must have promoted the rise, expansion and growth of the long-distance trade in the 19th Century.

Present your findings in class.

The following are the reasons for the rise, expansion and growth of the long-distance trade:

Let us now look at the reasons that led to rise, expansion and growth of the long-distance trade of the 19th Century.

a) Availability of goods in the interior of both East and Central Africa.

Long Distance Trade thrived because of availability of goods for trade.

The goods included gold, ivory, animal skins, slaves and ostrich feathers. These goods, especially ivory, were highly demanded in India for making bangles. In Europe and America, the goods were used for making piano keys and ornaments.

b) Increased demand for slaves in Europe and America.

Slaves were in high demand in Europe and America. This led various dealers to intensify their search in the interior for slaves. The ready market and improved ways of exporting them encouraged the traders involved.

c) The vital role played by Indian and other Arab merchants in Zanzibar.

Most Indians and Arabs were professional traders. This contributed to the growth and expansion of the professional caravan traders. The traders were greatly motivated to carry out adventures in the interior of East and Central Africa.

d) Increased demand for slaves in the French sugar industries.

The French sugar industries on the Islands of Mauritius, Madagascar and Re-union also played a big role in the expansion of slave trade. It was this cheap, free labour in combination with Island climate that favoured the growth of sugarcane. In addition, capturing slaves had been made easier by the introduction and availability of firearms.

Availability of firearms made it easier for Chokwe, Bisa and Nyamwezi people to acquire captives.

e) Division of labour.

Specialisation in some interior communities boosted the rise and development of the long-distance trade. Communities such as Chokwe and Nyamwezi practised division of labour. After preparing the land for planting, men would leave the work of harvesting to women. Men would then travel far off looking for ivory and transacting trade for several months without coming back home.

f) Introduction of cowrie shells as a medium of exchange.

Initially, long distance trade was conducted on barter system. Later on, cowrie shells were introduced to act as a medium of exchange. This solved problems such as cheating, and divisibility of some goods experienced during barter trade. This led to further growth and expansion of the long-distance trade.

g) The hospitality of interior societies.

Some African societies such as the Baganda warmly welcomed the traders. The Yao guided and offered food and shelter to the traders. Other tribes such as the Akamba, Nyamwezi and Buganda related well with coastal people. This good relationship helped the trade to develop.

h) Favourable climate.

The interior of East Africa was characterised by two types of climates, wet and dry. March to November was a wet season, allowing people to practise agriculture. December to February was a dry season. During this period, the interior communities engaged in long distance trade.

i) Increased demand for goods.

The increased demand for goods by the locals and slaves by the traders promoted trade. The people in the interior needed goods such as guns, clothes, glasses and saucepans. Coastal traders on the other hand needed gold, slaves, copper, skins, feathers and agricultural products (including honey and tobacco) which could only be obtained from the people in the interior parts of Africa.

j) Political stability in the interior of East Africa.

The East African coast was peaceful and politically stable, creating a conducive environment for trade. This was characterised by a period of peace brought about by the rise of powerful African leaders such as Nyungu ya Mawe, Mirambo, Seyyid Said and Mutesa who provided security and accommodation to traders. These African leaders organised

trade caravans and provided security to traders. The presence of firearms also promoted political stability as they were used to provide security to the traders.



Application Activity 2.1.

Explain some of the reasons that may lead to the rise of trade in your locality then Compare them with the factors that led to the rise of the long-distance trade

Make oral presentation.

2.2. Reasons for the decline of the long-distance trade



Learning Activity 2.2.

Ishimwe has been in the business of selling new clothes in Kigali City for six years now. However, in the recent past, she has been experiencing low sales.

Discuss some of the reasons that may have led to this situation. Compile a report for class presentation.

a) ***The trade became less profitable.***

Just like in the case of Ishimwe, there are some factors that negatively affected long distance trade. For instance, long distance trade attracted traders which resulted into competition for market. This led to the flooding of goods forcing traders to lower prices. This reduced their profit, discouraging them from continuing. This caused their goods to fetch low profits.

b) ***Constant interstate wars.***

Recurrent interstate wars increased insecurity. For example, wars caused by the Nyamwezi who were using the Ruga Ruga warriors was a threat to the continuity of this trade. This made many traders to abandon this trade for fear of being killed.

c) ***The death of some trade tycoons.***

Rich and prominent people in this trade such as Mutesa I and Mirambo died in 1884. Seyyid Said died in 1846. These kings did not only control but also financed the organisers of the trade. Their death deprived this trade of security, hence its downfall.



Fig. 2.1: Seyyid Said.

d) ***Exhaustion of some vital goods.***

The dwindling supply of important goods and commodities such as ivory, gold, salt, zebra skins, rhino horns and ostrich feathers led to decline of this trade. These goods were purchased in large quantities due to high demand. With time, they got depleted due to the increasing demands for ivory the hunters killed many elephants eventually the number of elephants reduced, and the supply of ivory declined.

e) ***The role played by Seyyid Bargash.***

He attempted to overthrow Seyyid Said as the leader of Oman at the East African Coast (Zanzibar). This resulted into fierce fighting between the supporters of Seyyid Bargash and those of Seyyid Said. This forced Seyyid Said to close the Zanzibar slave trade market.

f) ***Abolition of slave trade.***

Slaves were at the centre of the long-distance trade. The abolition of slave trade by Britain and Belgian parliaments caused a sharp decline in the supply of slaves.

This resulted into reduced slaves in the market. Since many traders were interested in the slaves, abolition of slave trade culminated into the collapse of the long-distance trade.

g) Poor means of transport.

Even with experienced traders, roads were poor in the interior. This deterred the transportation of goods from the interior to the coast and vice versa. This was partly caused by physical difficulties due to deep valleys, rivers, lakes and mountains. This provided an obstacle in the transportation of goods to East African Coast.

h) Overtaxation.

African chiefs such as Mirambo and kings such as Kabaka charged a lot of taxes because they wanted to get rich in a short time. This led to reduced profits in the trade and consequently discouraging traders from the trade. They finally pulled out of the long-distance trade.

i) Scramble for and partition of Africa.

The colonisation of Africa resulted into final collapse of the long-distance trade. This is because the political, social and economic life of the Africans was under the control of Europeans. Colonial masters put a stop to long distance trade. This is because they too required African labour to develop their colonies.

j) Flooding of European cheap goods in the African market.

The industrial revolution in Europe led to mass production of goods. These cheap quality products sold more than those traded in during the long-distance trade. This, too, led to the collapse of the trade.



Application Activity 2.2.

Make oral presentation on the reasons that led to the decline of The long-distance trade.

2.3. Effects of the long-distance trade



Learning Activity 2.3.

Use textbooks to discuss the effects of the long-distance trade. Present the findings.

a) Social effects.

- i. The trade led to interaction of people from varied backgrounds and cultures in East and Central Africa. For example, the interaction of

interior people with Arabs at the coast led to the origin of Kiswahili language and adoption of Islam as a religion.

- ii. Long distance trade helped to improve relationship between some African societies which had been enemies before. For example, the Akamba and the Nandi tribes in Kenya had to ignore their traditional differences in order to trade freely.
- iii. The trade depopulated many places. It involved, among others, selling of people as slaves. Many people were killed as they tried to defend themselves against the slave traders. Others were captured, enslaved and sold.
- iv. As trade expanded in East and Central Africa, the old trading centres developed into major towns. These towns included Kilwa, Tabora, Ujiji and Zanzibar.
- v. Famine was experienced in some areas. This was as a result of slave raid which forced people to flee their homes looking for safer areas. This disorganised the agricultural activities and earlier economic ventures set up by East and Central African people.

b) Economic effects.

- i. It led to the introduction of new commodities in the interior of East and Central Africa. Such commodities included guns, beads, porcelain materials and clothes.
- ii. The trade revealed how productive the interior of East and Central Africa was. It had a lot of ivory, copper, gold, tortoise shells and rhino horns. Europeans developed an interest to control East and Central African areas for easy exploitation of the unexploited resources.
- iii. The use of cowrie shells as a medium of exchange increasingly became important in East Africa. For example, they were used in the kingdoms of Buganda and Bunyoro. By the end of 19th Century, Indian Rupees had spread to Buganda. This greatly undermined the old system of barter trade.
- iv. The trade stimulated the production of local foodstuffs. A lot of foodstuffs were required to meet the food demands of caravan traders. The traders did not carry food supplies along with them during their long journeys. This gave the natives along the various trade routes in East and Central Africa an opportunity to have an income from sale of food.

- v. The demand and sale of ivory led to the depletion of elephants in East Africa. Through this trade, there was misuse and exploitation of African people and animal resources.
- vi. It led to emergence of people with skills. People such as Mirambo, Nyungu ya Mawe and Tippu Tip made names as traders and pioneers in large economic activities of East Africa.



Fig. 2.2. Tippu Tip

c) Political effects.

- i. The firearms strengthened security in some African communities. A lot of African societies that were weak before were able to stage strong resistances against the invading colonialists in the later years.
- ii. The Bunyoro, Hehe and the Nandi resisted colonialism during and after long distance trade.
- iii. Long distance trade led to state formation of East Africa. This came about as a result of individuals who acquired wealth and other opportunities from the trade. The trade helped leaders such as Nyungu ya Mawe, Mutesa I, Mirambo and Misri to build larger political kingdoms.
- iv. The trade led to the collapse of some weak African societies. For example, Ngindo and Tonga of southern Tanganyika declined as a result of the long-distance trade activities.
- v. Communities that were involved in the long-distance trade managed

to establish large armies which were used to expand their territories. For example, the Nyamwezi had Ruga Ruga, trained army that protected and defended the kingdom. The Banyoro also built its army known as Abalusura. Nyungu ya Mawe's army was called Mviti. These armies helped their kingdoms to rise and expand.

- vi. The trade discouraged the production of local commodities such as beans, iron implements, salt and bark cloth. This was mainly because local commodities proved less profitable than slaves and ivory. Moreso, imported commodities such as clothes, shoes and saucepans proved quite superior to local ones.



Application Activity 2.3.

Discuss the effects of the long-distance trade and make an oral presentation of the results to the class.



End of unit assessment

1. Explain the meaning of the long-distance trade.
2. Discuss the reasons that led to the rise and growth of the long-distance trade in East and Central Africa.
3. Give reasons that led to the collapse of the long-distance trade in East and Central Africa.
4. With examples, identify the effects of the long-distance trade in East and Central Africa.

UNIT 3

CAUSES AND IMPACT OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to explain the causes and impact of the American Revolution.



Introductory Activity

1. Discuss the causes of the 1990 liberation war in Rwanda. Use the knowledge gained from internet, textbooks and other sources of information in your discussion. Let one of you compile a report for class presentation.
2. From the causes provided, give the meaning of the American Revolution.

Introduction.

The American Revolution was a socio-political and economic upheaval that took place in America between 1765 and 1783. Thirteen American colonies rejected the British monarchy and dictatorship. They overthrew the authority of Great Britain and founded the United States of America. The American Revolution is also known as the American war of independence.

The thirteen former British American colonies were Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, Maryland, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Delaware, North Carolina, South Carolina, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Georgia.

These American colonies had been under British control for a long period of time. They wanted to be independent.



Fig. 3.1: Map of America showing the thirteen original states in 1776

During the period of colonisation, the colonies united against the British Empire. They took up arms and started the revolutionary war. This culminated in the declaration of independence in 1776. The thirteen states defeated the British in the battlefield in October 1781. They were led by George Washington as the first American president.

3.1. Causes of the American Revolution



Learning Activity 3.1.

Refer to Introductory Activity, pick out points that you think were the same causes of the American Revolution. Present your findings in class. Let us now study the causes of the American Revolution under the following sub-headings:

- Political causes
- Economic causes
- Social causes.

➤ **Political causes**

- **The rise and growth of nationalism among the Americans and need for independence.**

This was promoted by nationalists such as Samuel Adams, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson. They argued that if the British governed themselves, why not Americans? This awakened the need for self-rule among the Americans hence leading to the revolution.

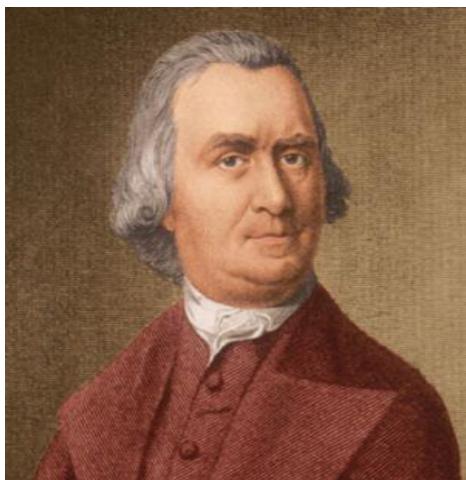


Fig. 3.2 (a): Samuel Adams (1722 - 1803)



Fig. 3.2 (b): George Washington (1732 - 1799)



Fig. 3.2 (c): Benjamin Franklin (1706 - 1790)

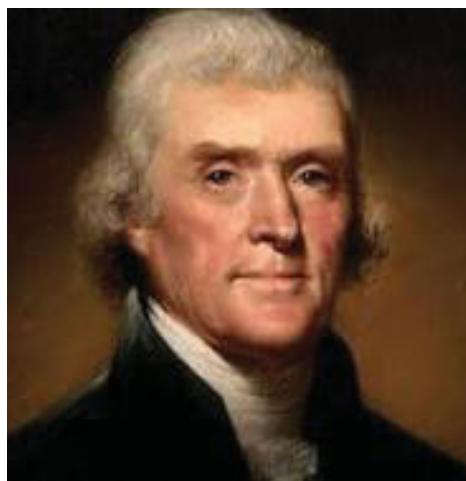


Fig. 3.2 (d): Thomas Jefferson (1743 - 1826)

Fig 9.2: America's founding fathers.

- **The effects of Anglo-French war of 1756-1763.**

During this war, France was fighting with Britain over profitable colony of Canada. The war ended with the defeat of France by Britain and taking over Canada. The effect of this was that it weakened Britain financially and encouraged the Americans to revolt against her. Britain also raised taxes to solve financial crisis at home. Americans protested against the tax increment.

- **The role played by revolutionary leaders.**

The most notable one was George Washington. He organised the minutemen and mobilised foreign support to fight for their independence.

- **The passing of intolerable acts.**

These included the Stamp Act whereby revenue stamps were put on printed materials and commercial documents like news papers. It was replaced by Townshend Act whereby the British chancellor levied taxes on lead paper, paint, glasses and tea. These were received with negativity by Americans making them to begin a war of independence.

- **The character of King George III of England.**

He came to power in 1760. Unlike the former kings, he wanted to bring American colonies to closer control. In order to achieve this, he introduced a number of harsh laws. He was also so rigid that he refused to change the taxation system.



Fig. 3.3: King George III (1738 - 1820)

- **The oppressive rule of the British government.**

The British leaders such as Greenville, Townshend and Rockingham were harsh to the Americans. They did not allow freedoms such as of speech, press and worship. There were no fair trials in courts of law. All these annoyed the Americans.

- **The Boston massacres of 1770.**

After the Townshend Act, the Americans started shouting and throwing snow and ice to the English troops. The troops responded by firing and killing them at Boston. This is what came to be known as the Boston massacres. It drove the Americans into a war of independence against the British.

- **Undemocratic nature of the British leadership.**

The Americans were not given chance to participate in the politics of their country. This made them inferior. Only the rich were elected to the colonial assemblies as opposed to the poor. This was opposed by the majority hence leading to the revolution.

- **Inter-colonial congress at Philadelphia.**

In 1774, representatives from all colonies met at Philadelphia. It was there where they started preparing for war. They chose George Washington as the leader of the revolution. They trained soldiers known as minutemen and started seeking assistance from other countries.

Other causes were *the unfair judicial system of Britain* and *the restriction for colonies to occupy new lands of Ohio and Louisiana*.

For a country's political, social and economic development, peace is a requirement. For every country to achieve set goals, its youth must work hand in hand with government agencies to promote peace in our country.

➤ **Economic causes.**

- **Poor economic policy of the British.**

The Americans were not allowed to set up their own industries in America. This was intended to force them to continue buying expensive British manufactured goods. This was viewed as a move to subject them to endless poverty. They opposed the policy.

- **The Boston Tea Party in 1773.**

This was when the Americans dropped boxes of tea from Britain into water at Port Boston at night. This made the British government furious. The government decided to close the Boston harbour. It also punished Americans so as to pay back the tea. This too led to the American Revolution.

- **Trade monopoly by the British.**

In America, trade was exclusively done by the British. All European goods imported to the colonies had to pass through England for taxation.

The British benefitted while the Americans did not. On top of that, the imports were expensive compared to exports. This exploitation made the Americans to revolt for their independence.

- **The unfair taxation system.**

In North America, Britain raised taxes in order to meet her debt expenses and to solve financial crisis at home. Both direct and indirect taxes such as like stamp tax, sugar tax and currency tax were introduced. Other economic causes were:

- Exploitation of American resources
- Inflation
- Forced labour
- Unemployment

➤ **Social causes**

- **The role of political philosophers.**

These were intellectuals and great thinkers who exposed the wrongs of the British government to the Americans. Philosophers such as Thomas Penn and Patrick Henry inspired and awakened Americans to fight for their independence. They used newspapers such as New York gazette, American Mercury and The Boston Newsletter.



Fig. 3.4: Thomas Penn (1702 - 1775)



Fig. 3.5: Patrick Henry (1736 - 17909

- **Foreign support.**

The Americans got foreign support from other countries such as France, Germany and Spain. These countries gave Americans military, moral and financial support. This increased the determination of Americans to fight for their independence.

- **Religious intolerance.**

There were religious differences between the Americans and the British. Americans had many religions which were different from the British Anglicans. The British forced Americans to adopt their religion against their will. The protestant religions practised by the Americans included Lutherans, Puritans, Huguenots and Presbyterians. Americans strongly opposed it thus leading to the revolution.

Remember: In most cases war has negative effects on social, political and economic aspects of the society. Therefore, it is very important that non-violent approaches such as peace talks be used to settle conflicts. The world needs peace.

America has the most developed economy in the world. This is partly because she was able to attain her self-rule which led to self-reliance in the long run. It is therefore important that we cooperate towards defending our country's independence. We can only achieve this by working hard to achieve self-reliance as a tool for economic development.



Application Activity 3.1.

The above reasons justify the causes of American rebellion against British oppressors from 1776-1803 which finally succeeded. They got independence with George Washington as the first American president.

Categorise the above factors into two parts; immediate and long term factors.

3.2. Effects of the American Revolution both in America and the rest of the world



Learning Activity 3.2.

Use different sources such as films, textbooks to give the consequences of the American Revolution.

The American Revolution had a great impact on today's world political, social and economic systems. Let us now look at its effects:

1. The revolution led to loss of lives. Many people including soldiers, civilians, Americans, the French and the British died in the war.
2. It led to destruction of property such as buildings, roads, bridges and communication lines.

3. It led to the inclusion of blacks into Americans citizenship, a privilege which had earlier been denied to them by the British.
4. The monopoly of the protestant church was removed and after the revolution. There was freedom of worship among the Americans. It increased religious freedom in all states of America. The citizens were no longer forced to join Protestantism. Many churches came up. Other Americans became Muslims.
5. It led to the 1789 French Revolution due to the effects it had on the French government. For example, there was a financial crisis in France. There was also the spread of revolutionary ideas by the ex-soldiers of the American Revolution such as General Lafayette.



Fig. 3.6: General Lafayette (1757 - 1834).

6. It led to the granting of independence to the American colonies. At Paris treaty of 1783, the British king recognised the colonies of America to be free, sovereign and independent. The 13 states were now free to join together and become the United States of America.
7. There was liberalisation of trade after the American Revolution. The Americans were free to carry out trade without the British monopoly. The British limitations on American trade were removed, allowing the marine merchants to trade freely.
8. It created good diplomatic relationship between France and America. This was due to the assistance rendered by the French

- to the Americans against the British imperialists. France provided Americans with arms and a combat army to serve under George Washington. They also sent a navy that prevented the second British army from escaping from Yorktown in 1871.
9. It increased the status of women and subsequent women emancipation. Women now took control of the families and catered for school going children. Men were away fighting for independence. The revolutionary war affected women by placing them in non-traditional roles. As men went off to war, women were left to fill jobs typically fulfilled by men. This in turn changed society by showing the world that women could do what men can do.
 10. The American Revolution increased the status of George Washington for his role in gearing the struggle for independence. During the American Revolution, he led the colonial forces to victory over the British and became a national hero. Its success was attributed to him. He later became the first president of America.



Application Activity 3.2.

With the help of your teacher, debate on the positive impact of the American Revolution.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Explain what you understand by the term 'American Revolution'.
2. Account for the outbreak of the American Revolution in 1776.
3. Discuss the consequences of the American Revolution both in America and Europe.
4. Assess the significance of the American Revolution in world affairs.
5. Identify the economic causes of the American Revolution.

UNIT 4

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to explain the causes and consequences of the industrial revolution, technical inventions and their inventors.



Introductory Activity

1. Use a dictionary or Internet to find out the meanings of the following words:
 - i. Revolution
 - ii. Industry
2. Use an atlas to locate England on the map of Europe.

You must have realised that **revolution** is a change that takes place in a given society. The change may affect the social, political and economic aspects of that society. It is also defined as the process that permanently changes the state of affairs and the way of doing things.

The industrial revolution refers to the changes in the methods of production where machines replaced human labour. It led to greater changes in the whole economy of European countries. It began in England in the 1850s and later spread to other countries. Before the industrial revolution, Europeans had low standards of life, they were living in rural areas, poverty, war, plague and poor hygiene resulted in high death rates, clothing was made locally, they practiced subsistence farming, they used simple tools, among others.

4.1. Situation in England before the industrial revolution Political, economic and social



Learning Activity 4.1.

1. Use a dictionary or Internet to find out the meanings of the following words:
 - i. Revolution
 - ii. Politics
 - iii. Economy
 - iv. Social
 - v. Industry
2. Use an atlas to locate England on the map of Europe.

Use the dictionary or Internet to find out the meaning of the word revolution again. What do you notice?

You must have realised that **revolution** is a change that takes place in a given society. The change may affect the social, political and economic aspects of that society. It is also defined as the process that permanently changes the state of affairs and the way of doing things.

Industrial revolution refers to the changes in the methods of production where machines replaced human labour. It led to greater changes in the whole economy of European countries. It began in England in the 1850s and later spread to other countries.

Before the industrial revolution started, Britain was quite different from the way it is today. Industrialisation brought with it new types of roads, trains and many other forms of communication. All these never existed in Britain prior to industrialisation.

Before industrial revolution began, it was very hard to keep in touch with people in other parts of the country. News was spread by travellers or through messengers. Goods were distributed largely within the locality in which they were produced.

In the 1750s, UK Government was a constitutional monarchy with a parliament. However, only wealthy male landowners were allowed to vote (about 5% of the total population). The poor had no representation in the government and were offered little protection from authorities.

Politics were based on land ownership and military honours won. Women and ordinary men were given few rights. As a result, life was a constant battle against famine, wicked landlords, overwork and sheer bad luck.

Majority of the people lived in the countryside. They depended on agriculture. Subsistence farming was still very common. A family would have a small farm which provided for their own needs, and would sell any surplus produce. Other people would work as labourers on larger commercial farms.

In the domestic system, Britain relied on cottage industries. An example of a cottage industry was weaving. Most weavers worked in their own homes. Weaving was a predominantly male occupation during that time. Women and girls did the carding and spinning of wool into thread. The whole family was involved. Everything was powered by hand, animals, windmills or water-wheels. This system could only produce goods in small quantities. As manufacture was by hand, with items being made individually, it was a slow process. With the rapidly growing population of this period, the domestic system was not able to produce the amount of goods required.

Most people in preindustrial England lived on a subsistence level, with little or no savings. Most peasants struggled simply to meet the basic needs of their families. In England, between the 15th and 18th centuries, 70% to 80% of household income went to buying food.

For centuries, the English diet consisted mostly of bread and porridge, with very little meat. As a rule, Europeans ate few fruits or vegetables. They believed that the fruits and vegetables could cause disease, depression and flatulence. Most people were illiterate and rarely bathed. Their idea of healthcare was that physical suffering from an illness was God's divine way of purifying the soul.

Many children worked in the family farm or business. Others were trained to either become traders or go into domestic service. If they were servants, they would normally live in the home of their employer.

Daily life in pre-industrial times changed very little for Europeans. Almost all people lived and worked in the countryside. Things changed from 1300 to 1750. For the average peasant, people's work and social life mixed. Families lived on small plots of land, growing crops mostly for home consumption. Children learned to milk cows, churn butter and tend to farm animals. For many years, rural families relied on tools such as wooden ploughs. They also depended on beasts of burden to pull them.

Transport was mainly on foot, on horseback and in horse drawn vehicles. People also relied on water transport by 1750. Roads were horrible. It took over two weeks to travel from the top to the bottom of the UK by road. People used ships (via the ocean and, later, canals) to move quickly or to transport goods but still it was slow.

The wealthy had their own horse-drawn carriages. There were also public coaches, which often carried both mail and passengers. Ordinary people used them. For local journeys, most people walked several miles to a town or to visit friends and relatives.

Education was variable. There was no compulsory education in England. Children of the poor could only get a little elementary education at a charity school or 'dame' school. Many children were taught to read and write at home. Literate mothers often gave children their first lessons.

Grammar schools educated middle class boys such as the sons of tradesmen and farmers. Private tutors and governesses sometimes educated the children of the upper classes at home. Sometimes they went to boarding schools.

For boys, Latin and Greek were still very important. Latin and Greek were at the centre of grammar school and boarding school curricula. Girls' boarding schools often concentrated on fashionable accomplishments such as music, drawing, embroidery and French. However, some had more demanding curricula.

Clothing was made locally with animal hides and fur. Nylon had to be used. Cotton was not imported in large quantities until developments enabled mass production of goods.

Another clear trend in pre-industrial society was the slow growth of population from generation to generation. Poverty, war, plague and poor hygiene resulted in high death rates, especially among young people. Even in the 1600s, approximately 25% of newborn children died before their first birthday. Another 25% died before their tenth birthday.

Life was for the bulk of the population, the farmers. By the 18th Century, the feudal system was long gone. It was replaced with a system in which the people were as reliant upon each other and their masters as before.



Application Activity 4.1.

1. Compare modern Rwanda with England before the industrial revolution.
2. Discuss in detail each of the following condition that existed in pre-industrial revolution in England:
 - i. There was no use of fertilisers.
 - ii. There was no use of tractors.
 - iii. There was land fragmentation.
 - iv. Europeans were using poor tools.
 - v. Animals such as pigs, goats, cows and sheep were kept together.
 - vi. Most farmers built their houses far away from farms.
 - vii. There was no fencing of the land.
 - viii. There were no low standards of living.
 - ix. There was scarcity of goods.
 - x. All Europeans were lazy.

4.2. Factors that led to the industrial revolution.



Learning Activity 4.2.

1. By using the internet or history books in school library, identify three factors that led to the Industrial Revolution.
2. Discuss the reasons that led to the industrial revolution in England. Present your findings to the class.

4.2.2. Factors that led to the industrial revolution in Britain.

(a) **Lack of internal custom barriers.**

Britain had no internal custom barriers that would discourage investors to invest in industrialisation.

(b) **Political stability.**

Britain had enjoyed a period of relative peace and stability unlike Germany, Italy and France. Britain kept off from European conflicts as well.

(c) Presence of a strong naval force.

Britain had a strong naval force which protected her from external attacks. She used her navy to protect her merchants from foreign competition and to guard her trade routes.

This was something that encouraged foreign investors to invest their money in the industrial sector.

(d) Improved transport system.

This included roads, railways and water transport which were much developed. Canals were constructed linking existing rivers and lakes. During the second half of the 18th century, roads and railways were constructed to link industrial centres. They were to transport raw materials and finished products to their destinations as well. It eased connectivity in terms of sources of raw materials, transportation of workers, industrial centres and markets.

(e) Favourable government policy.

The government of Britain lowered taxes on profits to support the business class. This also encouraged industrialisation to take place.

(f) The impact of the 1789 French Revolution and Napoleonic wars.

This discouraged industrialisation in France. On the other hand, it motivated Britain to industrialise and supply France with industrial goods.

(g) Existence of natural harbours.

Britain had good natural harbours which could not freeze even in winter. This facilitated the transportation of goods throughout the year.

(h) Good geographical location of Britain.

Britain was located at the centre of less industrialised states that provided market for her finished goods. She also had navigable rivers such as Thames. All these were instrumental for the beginning of the industrial revolution.

(i) Dominant position on over sea trade.

Britain controlled a big part of Europe's overseas trade mostly in the 18th Century. This helped her get cheap raw materials to feed her industries. She also got a market for her finished goods.



Application Activity 4.2.

1. Identify the factors that led to the industrial revolution in Europe.
2. Listen to your teacher as he/she reads for you some more points on Industrial Revolution. Point out the key elements which led to Industrial Revolution .

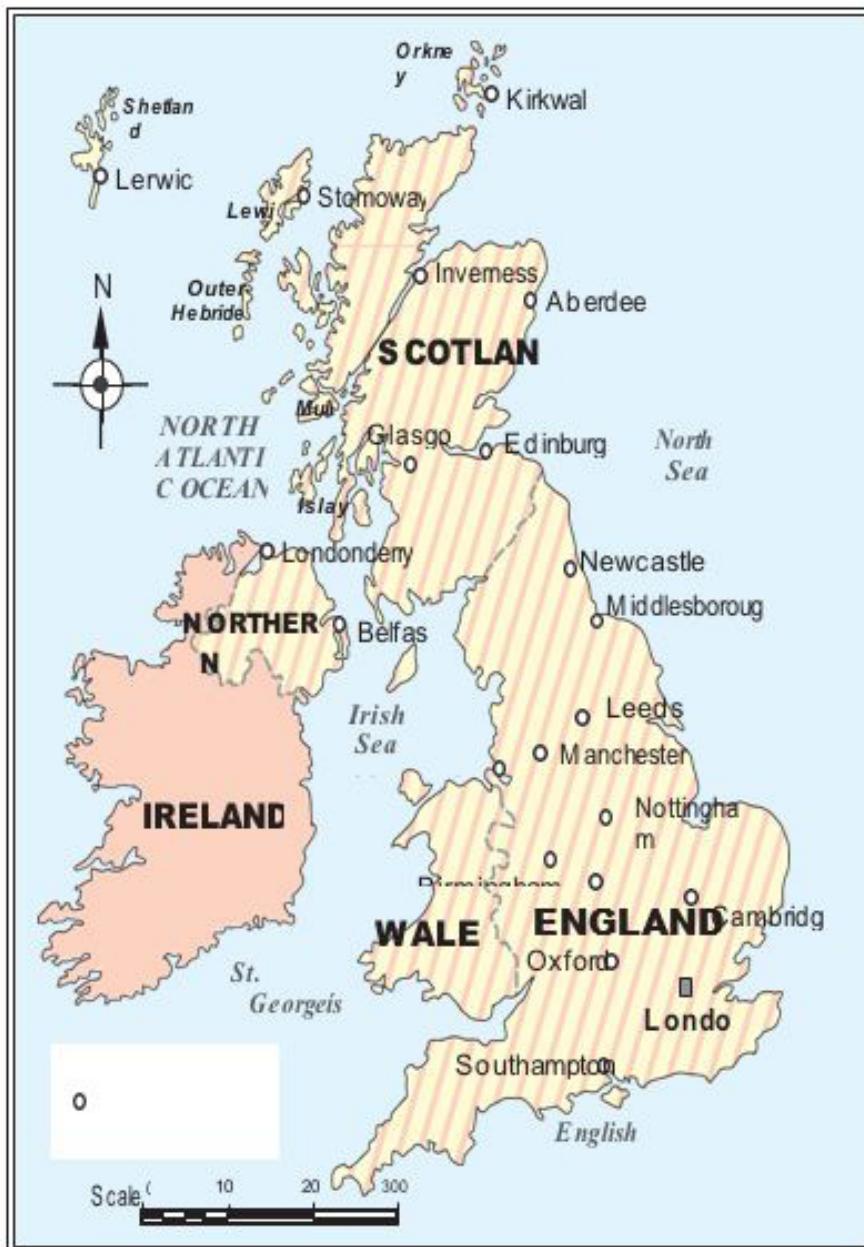


Fig. 4.1: Map of England showing major industrial areas in the 18th Century

4.3. Effects of the industrial revolution



Learning Activity 4.3.

1. Discuss the effects resulting from industrial growth.
2. Present the findings.

The following were some of the effects of the industrial revolution:

- New machines which were used led to unemployment of many people.
- There was expansion of international trade as countries produced different goods.
- Industrialisation led to the need of market and raw materials from Africa and subsequent colonisation of Africa.
- It led to the development of modern transport and communication systems. Many roads, railway lines, bridges and canals were constructed during this period.
- It led to increased utilisation of idle natural resources that were not in use before.
- The industrial revolution led to urbanisation, that is, urban centres developed due to industrial activities.
- The industrial revolution increased the demand for services provided by lodges, hotels, banks, insurance companies and schools.
- It led to the collapse of feudalism in Europe. This was because landlords sold their land to the members of the middle class.
- It helped the middle class to get political power. This later promoted democratic rule in Europe. People could now vote for leaders of their own choice.
- The industrial revolution led to the rise of socialism. People advocated for state ownership of property to replace private ownership and income inequality.
- It increased the number of middle classes for these owned factories and mines. Some started sending their children to upper class schools.
- It led to rural-urban migration leading to overcrowding and accommodation in towns.
- The fumes from industrial centres led to environmental degradation. The industries produced bad smell leading to air pollution.
- It led to the increase in population in Europe. Population in many

European countries tripled due to better living conditions. There was good shelter as well as improved medical care that reduced diseases that previously killed people.

- The industrial revolution led to exploitation of workers by industrial owners. People worked for long hours with low wages. There were cases of unfair dismissals which contributed to the formation of trade unions. The trade unions bargained for better working conditions.
- It increased child labour in mines and mills in England. Child labour was the cheapest labour of all.
- Industrial accidents increased. The infant factories were extremely unsafe. People worked without safety regulations and with no protective gears in place. In case of injuries, there was no compensation.



Application Activity 4.3.

1. Draw a table with two columns showing both the positive and negative effects of the industrial revolution from the above points. Share your work with your classmates.
2. Present your findings to the class.

4.4. Factors for the formation of Trade Unions.



Learning Activity 4.4.

Research on the internet the meaning of trade union. Present your findings.

A trade union, also known as a labor union, is an organized association of workers in a particular trade, industry, or profession who join together to promote and protect the rights, welfare, and working conditions of their members.

The following factors contributed to the emergence of trade unions during the industrial revolution:

- i. **Poor working conditions:** The rapid industrialization led to harsh working conditions in factories, including long hours, low wages, unsafe environments, work accidents, poor accommodation, absence of holidays, and illegal dismissal. Workers faced exploitation by factory owners, leading to dissatisfaction and a desire for collective action to improve their working conditions.

- ii. **Low wages:** Factory workers often received low wages that were insufficient to meet their basic needs. The economic hardship faced by workers served as a catalyst for the formation of trade unions to negotiate for better pay and improved working conditions.
- iii. **Lack of workers' rights:** There were minimal legal protections for workers, such as the absence of labor laws, lack of sick leaves, lack of health insurance, among others. Trade unions emerged as a response to this lack of protection, advocating for workers' rights and legal reforms.
- iv. **Job insecurity:** Industrial workers faced job insecurity. Trade unions provided a means for workers to collectively address issues of job security and employment stability.
- v. **Political and social movements:** The emergence of political and social movements, including socialist and labor movements, contributed to the formation of trade unions. These movements advocated for workers' rights and promoted the idea of collective action to address economic and social inequalities.
- vi. **Technological changes:** Advances in technology during the industrial revolution often resulted in the displacement of skilled workers by machines. This displacement created a sense of insecurity among workers, motivating them to organize and protect their interests collectively.



Application Activity 4.4.

Research more information about the factors that led to formation of trade unions.

4.5. Technical inventions and their inventors.



Learning Activity 4.5.

1. Research on the developments made during the Neolithic revolution. Use internet and other History resources.
2. Relate those developments with technical inventions during the industrial revolution.

Let us now briefly discuss the following technical inventions and their inventors:

- i. Spinning mule (Crompton's mule) by Samuel Crompton
- ii. Spinning jenny by James Hargreaves
- iii. Water frame by Richard Arkwright
- iv. Steam engine by James Watt
- v. Flying shuttle by John Kay

i) **Spinning mule (Crompton's mule) by Samuel Crompton.** Spinning mule is a machine used to spin cotton and other fibres. It was invented in 1779 by Samuel Crompton. He combined both the spinning jenny and the water frame to create this machine. It is also known as Crompton's Mule. The machine was widely used between late 18th Century and 20th Century.



Fig. 4.2: Samuel Crompton (1753-1827)

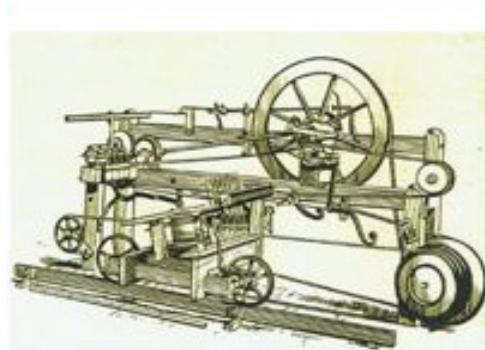


Fig. 4.3: Spinning mule

ii) **Spinning jenny by James Hargreaves.** In 1764, James Hargreaves invented the Spinning jenny. It was a device which allowed one person to spin many threads at once. It helped in increasing the amount of finished cotton that a worker could produce. By turning a single wheel, one could now spin eight threads at once, a number that was later increased to eighty. Unfortunately, the thread was usually coarse and lacked strength. Despite this shortcoming, over 20,000 machines were in use in Britain by 1778.



Fig. 4.4: James Hargreaves (1720 - 1778)

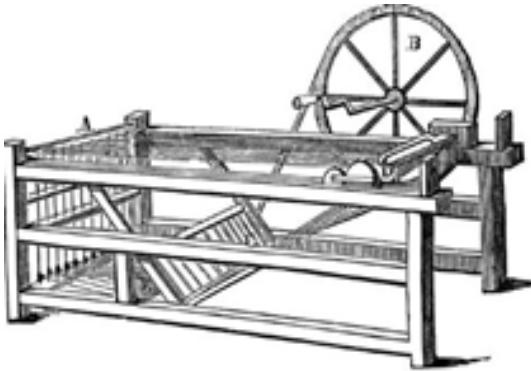


Fig. 4.5: Spinning jenny.

iii) Water frame by Richard Arkwright. In 1764, Richard Arkwright created the Water frame to produce yarn faster. It was initially called the Spinning frame. It was too large to be operated by hand. After experimenting with other sources of power, Richard Arkwright decided to employ the power of a water wheel. His machine came to be known as the Water frame.



Fig 4.6: Richard Arkwright (1732 - 1792)



Fig 4.7: Water frame

iv) Steam engine by James Watt. In 1769, James Watt improved the steam engine and in effect created a new source of power. Early model steam engines were introduced to drain water and raise coal from the mines. The crucial development was the use of steam for power. The first steam engine was actually produced by Thomas Newcomen. James Watt later improved and patented it. The original idea was to put a vertical piston and a cylinder at the end of a pump handle. The next step was to put steam in the cylinder and condense it with a spray

of cold water. The vacuum created allowed atmospheric pressure to push the piston down. Watt made it a reciprocating engine, creating the true steam engine.



Fig 4.8: James Watt (1736 - 1819)



Fig 4.9: Steam engine

- v) **Flying shuttle by John Kay.** Flying shuttle was a machine used in weaving. John Kay, a mechanic from Lancashire, patented the flying shuttle. Using cords attached to a picking peg, a single weaver, using one hand, could operate the shuttle on the loom. With this invention, it took four spinners to keep up with one cotton loom, and ten people to prepare yarn for one weaver. So, while spinners were often busy, weavers often waited for yarn. As such, the flying shuttle effectively doubled a weaver's production of cloth.



*Fig 4.10: John Kay
(1704 - 1779)*



Fig 4.11: Flying shuttle

Other inventions are:

- Grame discovers in 1869 the Dynamo.
- The American, Samuel Mors, invents the telegraph.
- The American Thomas Edison invents the first lamp.

- The Italian Marconi and the French Branly invent the radio.
- The American Bell invents the telephone in 1876.
- The German Roentgen discover in 1896 the phenomenon which allows one to see across an opaque body and there was born the radiography.
- Louis Pasteur discovers that the microbes are small living beings which are the basis for the fermentation of beer and milk. He succeeded in manufacturing a vaccine against rabies, cholera.
- The English man, Davy, discovers aspirin.
- The English man, Harroy discovers the circulation of blood.
- The Russian Mendeleev establishes a classification of all chemical elements Re-covering of roads by John Macadam
- The locomotive was invented by Georges Stephenson
- The railway develops first in England then in the whole of Europe and in America, hence the transportation of many commodities.
- There was mechanization of agriculture through the use of tractors.
- Chemical fertilizers replace natural fertilizers.
- The postal services begin in 1840 and deal with the transmission of mail.

Remember: Industrialisation is of value to a country's economy. It enables people to get employment. It also ensures that there is provision of affordable products of acceptable standards. The government too gets taxes. However, the industrial wastes and gases from industries should be well managed. Good management of the wastes reduces environmental degradation. We will also have good health.



Application Activity 4.5.

Research on internet other inventions and their inventors after 19th century.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Define the term 'the industrial revolution'.
2. Describe the factors that led to the industrial revolution in England.
3. Assess the effects of the industrial revolution.
4. Briefly explain some of the technical inventions and their inventors during the industrial revolution.

UNIT 5

EXPLORATION OF AFRICA

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to explain the causes and consequences of exploration of Africa.



Introductory Activity

Think of a new place that you recently visited. It should be a place that you had never visited before.

1. Why did you visit the place?
2. What was the impact of your visit to the place you visited on you?

Now, get a dictionary to find out the meaning of the word 'exploration'.

From the above activity, it is clear that you visited the place for a reason. That act of travelling to that place can be referred to as exploration. The European explorers in Africa had come as visitors. **Exploration** can be defined as travelling to a place or through an unfamiliar area in order to learn about it.

5.1. Different European explorers and their routes



Learning Activity 5.1.

1. Use the map of Africa to identify the main routes used by different European explorers.
2. Carry out research using different History books in the library and from the Internet to find out explorers who visited Africa in the 15th and 19th Centuries.
3. Prepare a comprehensive report for class presentation. Include a map showing the routes each explorer followed.
4. Let us discuss some of the European explorers and the routes they followed.

1. Infante Henrique of Portugal, Duke of Viseu (Henry the Navigator).

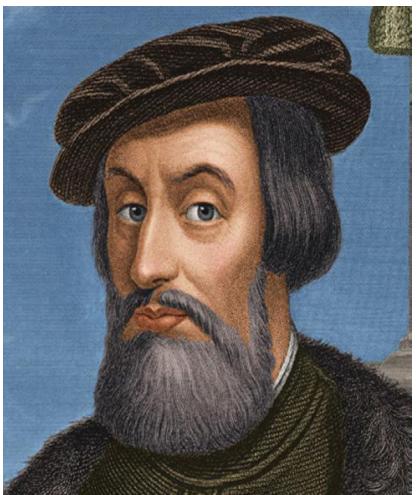


*Fig.5.1: Henry the Navigator
(1394)*

Infante Henrique of Portugal, Duke of Viseu better known as Henry the Navigator was born on 4th March 1394 in Porto, Kingdom of Portugal. He was an important figure in 15th Century Portuguese politics and in the early days of the Portuguese Empire. Through his administrative direction, he is regarded as the main initiator of what would be known as the “Age of Discoveries.” Until Henry’s time, Cape Bojador remained the most southerly point known to Europeans on the desert coast of Africa. Superstitious searers held that beyond the cape lay sea

monsters and the edge of the world. In 1434, Gil Eanes, the commander of one of Henry’s expeditions, became the first European known to pass Cape Bojador.

2. Bartolomeu Dias.



*Fig. 5.2: Bartolomeu Dias
(1450 - 1500).*

Bartolomeu Dias was born in 1451 (although some sources quote 1450 as his year of birth). He was a Portuguese explorer. He sailed around the south.

most tip of South Africa in 1488. He reached the Indian Ocean from the Atlantic Ocean. He was the first European known to have done so. King John of Portugal appointed him on 10th October 1487 to head an expedition. The expedition was supposed to sail around the southern tip of South Africa with the hope to find a sea route to India. Dias was also charged with the responsibility to find the lands ruled by Prester John, a fabled Christian priest and ruler.

Together with his crew, they reached Kwaaihoek near the mouth of the Bushman’s River. He wanted to continue to India, but his crew refused to go further. He was forced to turn back. It was only on the return voyage that he discovered the Cape of Good Hope in May 1488.

3. Vasco da Gama.



*Fig.5.3: Vasco da Gama
(1460 - 1524)*

Vasco da Gama was born on in 1460 (some sources say 1469) in Sines, Portugal. He was the Portuguese explorer who discovered an ocean route from Portugal to India. He was the first European to reach India by sea, linking Europe and Asia for the first time by ocean route.

He sailed from Lisbon, Portugal on 8th July 1497 heading to the east. At that time, many people thought that da Gama's trip would be impossible. This was because it was assumed that the Indian Ocean was not connected to any other sea. Da Gama sailed around Africa's Cape of Good Hope on 22nd November and continued to India. He finally reached Calcutta, India on 20th May 1498. This was after many stops in Africa and problems with many Muslim traders who

never wanted interference in their lucrative business. He died on 23rd December 1524 in Kochi, India.

4. Mungo Park



*Fig. 5.4: Mungo Park
(1771 - 1806)*

Mungo Park was born on 11th September 1771 in Selkirkshire, Scotland. He was a Scottish explorer of West Africa. He was the first westerner known to have travelled to the central portion of the Niger River. In September 1794, Mungo Park offered his service to the African association. He was then looking for successor to Major Daniel Haughton. Major Daniel had been sent in 1790 to discover the source of the Niger River and had died in the Sahara Desert. Supported by Joseph Banks, Park was selected.

On 21st June 1795, he reached Gambia River and ascended it 300 km to a British trading

station named Pisania. On 2nd December, accompanied by two local guides, he started for the unknown interior. He chose the route crossing the upper Senegal basin through the semi-desert region of Kaarta. The journey was full of difficulties. For example, at Ludamar, he was imprisoned by a Moorish chief for four months.

On 1st July 1796, he escaped alone with nothing but his horse and a pocket compass. On 21st July 1796, he reached the long-sought Niger River at Segu. He thus became the first European to do so. Mungo Park died in 1806 in Bussa, Nigeria.

5. James Grant.



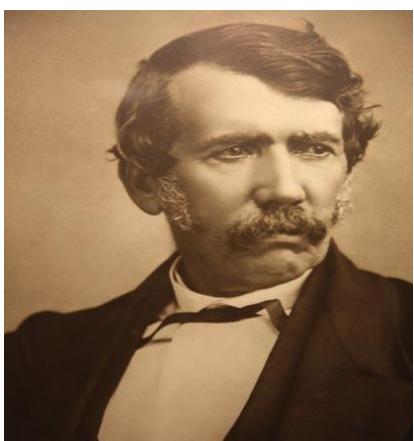
**Fig. 5.5: James Grant
(1772 - 1833)**

James Grant was born in 1772 in Forres, Scotland. He was a British Royal Navy officer and a navigator in the early nineteenth century. He made several voyages to Australia and Tasmania and was the first to map parts of the south coast of Australia. He sailed into Table Cape, South Africa on 8th July 1800. Here, Grant received dispatches from the Duke of Portland advising him of the discovery of a strait between New South Wales on the east coast of Australia and Van Diemen's Land.

He returned to England in 1858 but later joined Hanning Speke in an expedition to discover the source of River Nile. While on this mission, Grant carried out several investigations independently and made

remarkable collections in botany. He died on 11th November 1833 in St Servan, France.

6. Dr David Livingstone.



**Fig. 5.6: Dr David Livingstone
(1813 - 1873)**

Dr David Livingstone was born on 19th March 1813 in Blantyre, Scotland. He was a Scottish medical doctor, missionary and a remarkable explorer. He was the first European to see the Victoria Falls which he later named Victoria. He named it Victoria in honour of queen Victoria of England. He discovered numerous geographical features such as Lake Ngami, Lake Malawi, Lake Bangweulu and Victoria Falls.

Livingstone's last journey began in 1866. However, he was deserted by his followers. This did not discourage him. He travelled to Ujiji, on the eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika

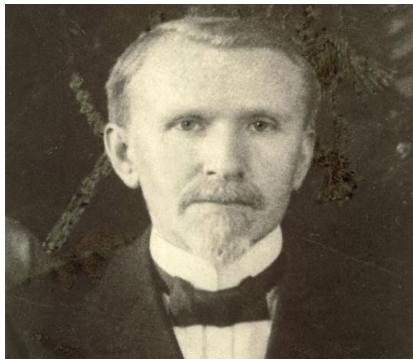
where he established a base for his expedition.

During this time, he lost touch with Europe. Fearing that he might have died, Henry Morton Stanley was sent to find him, dead or alive. Stanley met Livingstone at Ujiji. Livingstone's meeting with H.M Stanley on 10th November 1871 gave rise to the popular quotation "Dr Livingstone, I presume?". They stayed together and even explored Lake Tanganyika. However, Stanley failed to convince Livingstone to return to Europe. They parted ways on 14th March 1872.

In August 1872, Livingstone resumed his search for the source of River Nile. However, he was found dead on 1st May, 1873 due to exhaustion and illness. He was one of the most popular heroes of the late 19th Century in Victorian Britain. He had a mythical status which operated on a number of interconnected levels. These were:

- Protestant missionary martyr
- Imperial reformer
- Scientific investigator and an explorer
- Anti-slavery crusader
- Advocate of commercial empire.

7. Johannes Rebmann.



Johannes Rebmann was born on 16th January 1820 in Gerlingen, Germany. He was a German missionary and explorer. He was the first European along with Johann Ludwig Krapf to enter Africa from the Indian Ocean coast. Additionally, he was the first European to find Mount Kilimanjaro in 1848. The following year, he saw Mount Kenya together with his colleague Krapf.

**Fig. 5.7: Johannes Rebmann
(1820 - 1876)**

8. Sir Richard Francis Burton.



5.8: Sir Richard Francis Burton (1821 - 1890)

of River Nile. Burton was engaged by the Royal Geographical Society to explore the east coast of Africa. He, guided by the locals, led the expedition. He was the first European to see Lake Tanganyika. He died on 20th October 1890 in Trieste, Austria-Hungary.

9. Sir Samuel Baker.



Fig. 5.9: Sir Samuel Baker (1821 - 1893)

Sir Richard Francis Burton was born on 19th March 1821. He was a British explorer, geographer, translator, writer,

soldier, cartographer, spy, linguist, poet, fencer and a diplomat. He was known for his travels and explorations in Asia, Africa and America. He was also known for his extraordinary knowledge of languages and cultures. He spoke 29 languages from Europe, Asia and Africa. Burton and John Hanning were the

first Europeans to visit the great lakes region of Africa. They were in search of the source

Sir Samuel Baker was born on 8th June 1821 in London, England. He was a British explorer, officer, naturalist, big game hunter, engineer, writer and

abolitionist. He also held titles of Pasha and Major General in the Ottoman Empire and Egypt. Between April 1869 and August 1873, he served as a governor of General of the Equatorial Nile Basin (Today's northern Uganda and South Sudan).

He discovered Lake Albert. He was an explorer of the Nile and interior of Central Africa. He was also a big game hunter in

Asia, Africa, Europe and North America.

Baker and his wife became the first Europeans to see a substantial water fall on the Victoria Nile. Baker named it Murchison Falls after the then president of the Royal Geographical Society, Sir Roderick Murchison.

He died on 30th December 1893 in Newton Abbot, England.

10. John Hanning Speke.



**Fig. 5.10: John Hanning Speke
(1827 - 1864)**

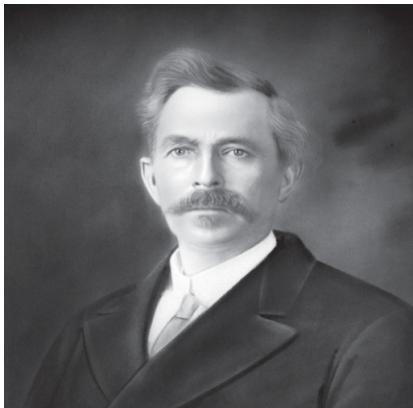
John Hanning Speke was born on 4th May 1827 in Buckland Brewer, United Kingdom. He was an officer in the British Indian army who made three voyages of exploration to Africa. He is the one most associated with the search for the source of River Nile.

In 1856, Speke and Burton came to East Africa to find the great lakes. The great lakes were rumoured to exist at the centre of Africa.

This happened in February 1858. The two were the first Europeans to reach Lake Tanganyika. It was hoped that the expedition

would locate the source of River Nile. John Hanning Speke was the first European to discover Lake Victoria. He also discovered that Lake Victoria was the source of River Nile. This was on 30th July 1858. John Hanning Speke died on 15th September 1864 in Corsham, United Kingdom.

11. Sir Henry Morton Stanley.



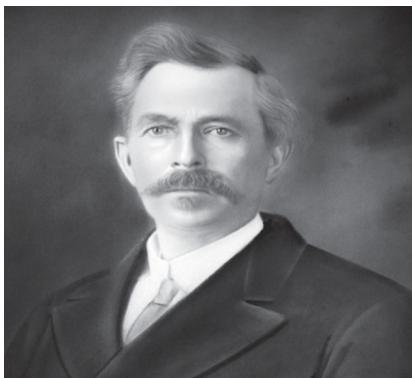
**5.11: Henry M Stanley
(1841 - 1904)**

Sir Henry Morton Stanley was born on 28th January 1841 in Denbigh, Wales, United Kingdom. His original name was John Rowlands. He also had a Congolese name *Bula Matari* meaning, 'breaker of rocks'. Stanley was a Welsh journalist and explorer. He was famous for his explorations in Africa as well as his search for Dr David Livingstone. He was one of the first westerners to make a transcontinental journey across Africa.

When Livingstone died in 1783, Sir H.M Stanley resolved to take up the exploration of Africa. He had to begin from where

Dr Livingstone had left off. His visit to Mutesa I of Buganda led to the admission of missionaries in the area in 1877. It also led to the eventual establishment of a British protectorate in Uganda. He also confirmed that Lake Tanganyika had no connection with the Nile River. Sir Henry Morton Stanley died on 10th May 1904 in London, United Kingdom.

12. Carl Peters.



Carl Peters was born on 27th September 1856 in Neuhaus, Germany. He was a German explorer, colonial ruler, politician and author. He was the major reason for the foundation of German colony of East Africa in today's Tanzania. Carl Peters was a strong supporter of Social Darwinism and *Volkisch* movement. He died on 10th September 1918 in Bad Harzburg, Germany.

**Fig. 5.12: Carls Peters
(1856 - 1918)**

13. Joseph Thomson



Joseph Thomson was born on 14th February 1858 in Penpont, United Kingdom. He was a Scottish geologist and explorer who played an important part in the scramble for Africa. Thomson's Gazelle is named for him. Excelling as an explorer rather than an exact scientist, he avoided confrontations among his porter or with indigenous peoples.

He neither killed any native nor lost any of his men to violence. His motto is often quoted to be "*He who goes gently, goes safely; he who goes safely, goes far.*"

In 1883, he embarked on another Royal Geographical Society expedition. This time, his mission was to explore a route from the eastern coast of Africa to the northern shores of Lake Victoria. British Empire traders wanted a route that would avoid potentially hostile Maasai and German traders who were competing in the area.

He died on 2nd August 1895 in London, United Kingdom.

14. Mary Henrietta Kingsley.



Fig. 5.14: Mary Henrietta Kingsley (1862 - 1900).

Mary Henrietta Kingsley was born on 13th October 1862 in Islington, London. She was the first female explorer on the African continent. She was also an English ethnographic writer and explorer. Her travels throughout West Africa and resulting work helped to shape European perceptions of African cultures and British imperialism.

Mary landed in Sierra Leon on 17th August 1893 and passed into Luanda, Angola. She lived with local people who taught her necessary life skills for surviving in the African jungles. She often went into dangerous areas alone. Her earlier training as a nurse

prepared her for slight injuries and jungle maladies that she would later encounter. Mary later returned to England in December 1893. She died on 3rd June 1900 in Simon's Town, South Africa.

15. Oscar Baumann.



Fig. 5.15: Oscar Baumann (1864 - 1899)

Oscar Baumann was born on 25th June 1864 in Vienna, Austria. He was both an explorer and a cartographer. He is well known for his exploration of the interior of German East Africa, presently Rwanda, Burundi and Tanzania. He is also known for producing maps of the region. He was the first explorer to enter Rwanda in 1892. He was also the first European to visit Lake Eyasi, Manyara and Ngorongoro crater.

In 1885, Baumann was part of an Austrian exploratory expedition of the Congo basin. Unfortunately, he never

completed his mission. He had to leave for his home country, Austria, at an early date due to illness. In 1896, Bauman was appointed consul to Zanzibar by the Austro-Hungary government. Unfortunately, Baumann later died at an early age of 35 years.

16. Count Gustav Adolf von Gotzen.



Fig. 5.16: Count Gustav Adolf von Gotzen (1866 - 1910)

Count Gustav Adolf von Gotzen was born on 12th May 1866 in the Kingdom of Prussia, German Confederation. He was a German explorer and a governor of German East Africa. He was also the second explorer to reach in Rwanda after Dr Baumann.

He made his first trip to Africa in a hunting expedition to Mount Kilimanjaro. Gotzen also led an expedition to claim these hinterlands. He took with him George Von Prittwitz and Herman kersting.

The party set off from Pangani on the Tanganyikan coast on 21st December 1893. After travelling through Masaai areas, they eventually arrived at Rusumo Falls on the Akagera River on 2nd May 1894. He went on

to meet King Rwabugiri at his palace in Nyanza. He died on 2nd December 1910 in Hamburg, German Empire.



Application Activity 5.1.

Find out about the following explorers from the library or by using the internet:

NAME	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	PURPOSE OF VISIT	MAJOR DISCOVERY	YEAR OF VISIT
James Bruce				
Diego Cao				
Rene Caillie				
Carl Peters				
Infant Henrique				

5.2. Different causes of exploration



Learning Activity 5.2.

Research on the reasons why Europeans were interested in the African continent in 15th and 19th centuries. Present the findings.

The following are different causes of Exploration:

a) **Geostrategic interests.**

The desire for respect and prestige attracted many European explorers to Africa. This was because those who would discover new things were given titles such as sir and many other rewards. A country with many colonies was also highly respected, hence the exploration of Africa. For example, France regarded the acquisition of colonies in Africa as prestigious and as a way of strengthening her supremacy in Europe. After 1870, European rivalry spread to Africa, Asia and the Pacific and colonies were increasingly regarded as symbols of national prestige.

b) **To discover more about Africa.**

Most of the explorers were scientists and geographers who desired to research about African societies and their organisation, for example, Thomas Fowell Buxton. Africa was also long believed to be dark and undomesticated continent to many Europeans. It was this, among other reasons, which made the Europeans come to Africa for exploration.

c) **Humanitarian reasons.**

Some of the explorers had humanitarian reasons and feelings. They wanted to stop slave trade and cure various diseases such as malaria that were affecting lives of Africans. The best example in this case was Dr David Livingstone.

d) **To spread Christianity.**

Some explorers such as Rebmann were Christian missionaries. They came partly to spread Christianity to Africa. They believed that Africans were primitive. They also wanted to counter the influence of Islam in Africa.

e) **Agents of colonialism.**

Explorers are also believed to have been sent by their home countries to prepare Africa for colonisation. This explains why they did the mapping and tracing minerals and fertile soils.

f) To discover the sources of African rivers.

The source of this longest African river (River Nile) was unknown to all. This created the need to come and find its source. It influenced the coming of explorers such as Richard Burton and Speke. Other sources of rivers discovered by explorers are, River Niger and River Zambezi.

g) Love for adventure.

Some other explorers were full of excitement to travel to new places beyond their continent, especially Africa. They believed that Africa was dark and uninhabited.

h) The effects of the industrial revolution.

By 1750s, European changed from agriculture to industrial economy. This required raw materials and spices such as nutmeg, ginger, cloves, cinnamon and pepper. It also required and luxury goods such as silk, gold, silver, jewels, ivory, porcelains and tea from Africa and the East. They needed a market for their industrial output.

i) To find new trade routes.

The explorers were looking for an alternative safe trade route this was due to political tensions and frequent fights on the way from European countries to India (in Asia). Usual path passing through Suez Canal was clouded with political instabilities and frequent fights. It was also becoming less and less safe for trade purposes.

j) Improvements in technology.

Europeans began to build stronger and faster sailing ships such as a caravel. A caravel was a ship with two sails on each side. This was required for running with the wind and for sailing into the wind. The Europeans also came up with better navigational instruments which could tell north and south of the equator by the position of the stars. An example was the magnetic compass.



Application Activity 5.2.

Find out on internet other motives for exploration. Present in class.

5.3. Consequences of exploration of Africa.



Learning Activity 5.3.

Use textbooks and explain the consequences of exploration of Africa. Present your findings in class.

The following are some of the consequences of exploration of Africa:

1. Exploration of Africa led to the introduction of Christianity. Some explorers were missionaries. For example, Dr. Livingstone and Rebman. This ushered in European missionary activity in Africa and the final spread of the gospel.
2. The exploration led to the drawing of the map of Africa. Explorers drew more accurate maps of Africa on paper which eased the coming of many more Europeans in Africa due to the geographical discoveries made by their predecessors.
3. It led to the discovery of the sea route to India by Vasco da Gama (1497-1499). This increased trade links between Europe and the East.
4. It contributed to the stopping of slave trade. The explorers reported evils of slave trade in Europe and campaigned against this inhuman trade. They insisted that slave trade be replaced with legitimate trade which was more profitable and acceptable in Africa.
5. Exploration opened the interior of Africa to the Europeans. Many feared to come due to the belief in the Dark Continent theory. However, with exploration, many got information about the interior which enticed them to come.
6. Africans adopted a new culture. Aspects of this culture included language, dressing, feeding and religion. This was responsible for the weakening or disappearing of the traditions among the communities that interacted with the Europeans.
7. Explorers led to the colonisation of Africa. This was through a number of activities such as signing misleading treaties with local African chiefs and cooperating with other colonial agents like missionaries. Africa was finally colonised by Europe.
8. It made Europeans to increase their political ambitions to create colonial empires for prestige. For example, Britain was able to expand her wealth and power.
9. It turned Africa to be a source of raw materials and market for

European manufactured goods such as clothes and guns.

10. Exploration led to the production of a new race of people known as the *Mulattos*. These came as a result of intermarriages between Africans and European explorers.
11. It led to introduction of plantation agriculture and keeping of exotic breeds of livestock. The Portuguese introduced maize which was grown in large plantations. Other crops that were introduced by Europeans were sugarcane, tea, cocoa and tobacco. Livestock breeds that were introduced were those of among others, pigs, horses, sheep and cattle.
12. Many trading posts in West Africa and in many other parts of Africa developed. For example, Timbuktu in Mali, South of the Sahara.
13. Exploration led to the rise of capitalism. Rise of capitalism resulted from the growth of town and city life and the expansion of trade.
14. It led to the rise of mercantilism. This rose from economic growth and expanding royal power. Joint stock companies such as the English East India Company and Dutch East India Company were formed. It also led to rivalries at sea.
15. Exploration led to introduction of commercial revolution because it ushered in trade involving Asia, America and Europe. Europe became the centre of world trade
16. Shifts in population occurred. Europeans migrated to Asia and America and Africa.
17. Knowledge about the earth increased. This made a significant impact on Geography. Explorers were able to learn more about areas in Africa and America. In learning more about such places, explorers were able to bring knowledge of a larger world back to Europe.

In addition, methods of navigation and mapping also improved as a result of the travels of people such as Prince Henry the Navigator. Prior to his expeditions, navigators used traditional charts which kept them tied to the shoreline. Among the many goals of his expeditions were to develop a new nautical chart so future sailors could sail out of sight of land. All in all, the Age of Exploration served as a steppingstone for geographic knowledge. It allowed more people to see and study various areas around the world. This increased geographic study, giving us the basis for much of the knowledge we have today.



Application Activity 5.3.

Discuss in groups the economic consequences of exploration of Africa by Europeans. Make a presentation in class.

5.4. Problems faced by explorers in Africa.



Learning Activity 5.4.

In Activity 5.1, you explained your visit to a place you had never visited before. Using that information explain the challenges you are likely to face when you visit a new place.

The explorers faced a number of challenges during the exploration. Some of them have been discussed below:

a) **Poor communication and transport.**

Generally, the whole of pre-colonial Africa had no established railways and water canals. Most rivers and lakes were not navigable. There were also physical barriers such as forests, mountains and rift valleys. The European explorers were not familiar with such. They could get lost in forests. This slowed their work for some time.

b) **Harsh climatic conditions.**

Africa had different climatic conditions as compared to what the explorers were used to in Europe. It was sometimes too hot or too cold. Tropical diseases such as malaria and yellow fever killed a large number of European explorers. Due to such conditions, West Africa was regarded as a white man's graveyard.

c) **Hostility from slave dealers.**

Most Europeans explorers claimed to have come to stop slave trade on African soil. This drew them into hostility with Arab slave dealers who disliked missionary explorers for attacking their business. This led to constant attacks and alliances with resistors to frustrate Europeans.

d) **Limited manpower.**

The explorers lacked enough manpower. This was due to coming in of few professionals compared to the big tasks they had. Some also died or were sick and unable to work. Africans were ignorant and had no required skills. This led to overworking leaving many places unattended.

e) The problem of language barrier.

This was another challenge that was faced by the European explores. They spoke European languages that were not known in Africa. Europeans spoke languages such as English, German and French. In Africa, there was no uniform language because even Swahili was not known to all. This hampered communication as there were no even interpreters.

f) The threat of Islam.

Islam had long been introduced in most places of Africa. It spread especially at the coast of West Africa and East Africa where Arab traders lived. Many people had embraced Islam, yet missionary explorers wanted to stop it. They wanted to replace it with Christianity. This led to wars where many perished, consequently slowing down the work of explorers.

g) Hostile tribes.

This was another challenge that was faced by European explorers in Africa. Most tribes stopped explorers from passing through their land. The Turkana, Nandi and Maasai from Kenya were among the hostile communities that attacked and killed explorers. This was in addition to tribal wars that affected the work of European explorers in Africa.

h) Presence of wild animals.

These included animals such as lions, reptiles and wild beast in the tropics. Most explorers passed through forests and national parks due to lack of geographical maps and compasses. They were later eaten up and killed by lions, for example, in Tsavo National Park in Kenya. This threatened their mission in Africa.

i) Lack of home support.

Most explorers lacked enough support from home. This was due to long geographical separation between Europe and Africa. This led to limited supplies in form of food, medicine and clothes. It crippled their work alongside registering a lot of failures. For example, Dr David Livingstone died before completing his work.

j) Getting lost.

One big problem was faced was that they were lost in Africa due to lack of geographical maps and compasses. They either relied on local guides or just gut feelings. This was catastrophic in the sense that if they got lost nobody could help them.

k) Diseases.

When explorers encountered new people, they exchanged diseases as well as goods. Diseases such as malaria, dysentery and yellow fever caused many deaths among ship crews. Some of these, especially yellow fever, were spread to other ports that the sailors visited. This left most of them sickly and unable to do the work effectively!

Remember

Touring new places is indeed very important. It enables one to discover, have fun and be exposed to new areas. However, travelling without taking precaution is risky. Remember the following:

1. Do not travel alone to places you do not know very well.
2. Avoid walking on foot in national parks for animals can easily kill you.
3. Travel once in a while but not always to minimise costs and to avoid bankruptcy.



Application Activity 5.4.

Discuss the main problems faced by explorers. Present in class.



End of unit assessment

1. Define the term 'exploration'.
2. Identify different European explorers who visited the African continent.
3. Give reasons why European explorers were interested in the African continent.
4. Discuss the challenges faced by early explorers in Africa.
5. Explain the impact of the European exploration of the African continent.

UNIT 6

EUROPEAN COLONISATION OF AFRICA

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to evaluate causes and consequences of European colonisation of Africa.



Introductory Activity

Use a dictionary to find out the meaning of the following words:

1. Colony
2. Colonialists

From your answers, we can conclude that **colonisation** refers to a situation in which a powerful country rules or controls a weaker one for its own economic gains.

6.1. Different causes of European colonisation in Africa.



Learning Activity 6.1

Below is an incomplete table showing the European colonisers and their colonies. Using textbooks, copy it in your notebooks then use the example given to complete it.

Coloniser	Colonies
Britain	Uganda, Kenya, Sudan, Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria, Gambia, South Africa, Botswana, Zambia, Zimbabwe
France	Tanzania, Togo, Cameroon, Namibia, Rwanda, Burundi
Belgium	Mozambique, Angola, Equatorial Guinea
Italy	

Africa is a very beautiful continent. It has physical features that people make people from other continents travel to see. Take Rwanda as an example. It has beautiful hills, rivers and lakes. It also has mineral resources. These are some of the causes which made Europeans to come to colonise Africa.

Let us now discuss them in finer details:

- There was need for raw materials for their home industries. This was due to exhaustion of raw materials in their home areas due to the industrial revolution.
- There was need for market for their finished goods because the European markets were not enough to consume whatever was being produced by their industries.
- They also wanted cheap labour for their industries and farms in the New Lands.
- They also wanted areas where they could invest their surplus capital. This was because investment was not profitable in Europe due to competition.
- They also wanted land to settle the excess population which had grown due to population pressure in their countries medical care.
- They wanted to spread Christianity so as to save the Africans from hell.
- The Europeans also wanted to stop slave trade and slavery, thereby promoting respect for human rights.
- They also wanted to civilise Africans by teaching them how to read and write. They also wanted to introduce European cultures for, example, dressing and eating feeding habits. They believed that European culture was the best.

NOTE: Ethiopia and Liberia were the only African countries that were not colonised. Ethiopia was too strong for Italy at the Battle of Adowa in Ethiopia in 1896. Liberia had just been founded by United States of America as a home for the freed slaves. This happened after the abolition of slave trade in the late 19th Century. United States of America could not allow any European power to colonise Liberia.



Application Activity 6.1

Research to find more about other causes of European colonisation of Africa.

6.2. Methods of colonial conquest in Africa.



Learning Activity 6.2

Remember the famous saying: *There are many ways of killing a rat.*

1. What does it mean?
2. Discuss various ways which you can use to make more profit in your business.

In life, some people will do anything to achieve what they want. Likewise, the colonialists used various methods to colonise Africa. The methods are discussed below.

a) Use of explorers.

Explorers drew maps showing fertile areas and rich mineral areas. They shared information about how rich Africa was. This attracted their home governments to come and take over African areas.

b) Use of missionaries.

European missionaries encouraged their governments to establish colonial rule in Africa so that they could put an end to the wars between African states, stop the slave trade and protect them from attacks by the locals and Muslims. They also softened African hearts by preaching to them and persuading them to accept Europeans and support their goals.

c) Use of traders (chartered companies).

Companies such as IBEACo (Imperial British East African Company) and IGEACo (Imperial German East African company) facilitated the colonisation of Africa.

The trading companies through their agents signed treaties with the African rulers. Carl Peters of Imperial Germany East Africa Company for example, signed treaties with Sultan Sakwa of Kavirondo, William Mackinnon of Imperial British East Africa Company signed treaties with various Kenyan chiefs.

d) Use of force.

Africans did not meekly accept the imposition of foreign rule. Many communities resisted this. In the face of such resistance, the European powers resorted to military conquest. They used force to subdue the Africans. This method was mainly used by the French, British and Germans.

e) Treaty signing.

Europeans also signed treaties with African Chiefs to take over African areas. For example, Moffat Treaty, Rudd Concession and the Buganda Agreement.

f) Use of gifts and presents.

Some African rulers were lured into accepting Europeans through presents such as beads, clothes, weapons and intoxicating drinks. Others were made chiefs while some were promised western education, for example, Semei Kakungulu of Uganda.

g) Use of tricks.

This is where Europeans deceived African chiefs and took over their areas. For example, Jaja of Opobo was convinced to board a war ship in 1887 by Johnston and deported to the West Indies.

h) Divide and rule tactics.

Europeans used the divide and rule tactics by playing off one community against one another. They encouraged warfare between African communities and country. Once weak, the European powers occupied it. This was the case with Nupe against the Fulani, the Baganda against the Banyoro and the Maasai against the Nandi.



Application Activity 6.2

1. With the help of your teacher, watch films or video on European colonisation of Africa.
2. Write down the lessons that you have learnt.



Fig. 6.1: Map showing European powers and their area of influence in Africa by 1914

6.3: Colonial systems of administration



Learning Activity 6.3

1. Use a dictionary or Internet to find out the meaning of 'assimilation'.
2. Use textbooks to distinguish direct rule and indirect rule

There were several systems of administration used by colonialists after successfully colonising Africans. These were:

- i. Indirect rule by the British
- ii. Assimilation by the French
- iii. Direct rule by the Germans
- iv. Paternalism by Belgians

i) The indirect rule.

It was a system under which the Europeans recognised the existing African political system and used it to rule over the colonies. In this system of administration, African local kings and chiefs were allowed to maintain their positions as administrators. However, they were under the supervision of the British.

The British made new policies and decisions which were implemented by African local leaders. It should be noted that under indirect rule, African political and social institutions were retained by the colonial masters.

Reasons why the British used indirect rule.

1. It was economically cheap. The British wanted to avoid payment of high salaries to white staff and administrators in their colonies. In addition to that, the staff and administrators required good accommodation, troops to provide security.
2. The British lacked enough manpower to administer all their colonies in Africa. The number of British citizens in Africa was small compared to their colonies. The British had no alternative but to use African chiefs.
3. The British feared resistance and hostilities from Africans. The British wanted to avoid resistances and rebellions that would come after overthrowing the local African kings from power.
4. There was language barrier. The British did not understand the languages and customs of Africans. Letting African leaders to rule was a better choice to solve the language problem.
5. The African kings and chiefs would act as 'shock absorbers' in case of any conflicts and wars. The African kings and chiefs would be blamed in case the British policies became unpopular among Africans.
6. There was existence of well established centralised system of administration in Africa. This encouraged the British to rely on such existing systems of administration to implement their policies. Indirect system was applied successfully in Buganda, Rwanda and Northern Nigeria.
7. It was a way of deliberately preparing Africans for self-government. The British wanted to train future African leaders for their colonies in Africa.
8. The success of indirect rule in other parts of the world such as India also encouraged the British to apply it in Africa. This was because

they had seen its good results. This forced the British officers to adopt it in Northern Nigeria and Uganda.

9. The British used indirect rule because they expected African loyalty. They expected African leaders to work hard in order to please their masters. This would bring good results to the British government.
10. Indirect rule was favourable for the exploitation of African resources. It would create peaceful conditions and give the colonialists enough time to engage in activities such as mining and trade.

j) *The French assimilation policy*

The word ‘assimilation’ is derived from the French word ‘assimiler’ which means cause to resemble or to look alike.

Assimilation was a system of administration in which French colonies were given a culture and civilisation similar to that of France. It was intended to make Africans be like the French citizens. That is to say, the Africans were to substitute their indigenous culture, religion and customs with French culture, language, laws, religion and civilisation.

NOTE: The Africans were to resemble the French citizens in all spheres of life except colour. African colonies were to resemble provinces of France.

Reasons why the French adopted assimilation policy.

- The French believed in superiority of their culture and civilisation. They considered it to be more developed. Therefore, they felt it was their duty to spread it among people with backward cultures through assimilation policy.
- The influence of the French revolutionary ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity also made the French to use assimilation policy. They had a feeling that all people are equal.
- The French wanted to create a policy that would support France in future conflicts and international issues. This policy would create friendship between France and her African colonies.

The French expected this policy to be economically cheap because the process of assimilating Africans was simple and easy.

- The French regarded their colonies as overseas French territories. Therefore, assimilation policy was the best alternative system for changing territories to resemble the French provinces in Europe.
- The French wanted to create a class of African French men who would help in the administration of their colonies.

- The early contacts between the French coastal areas of West Africa especially Senegal made it easy for assimilation. This is because Africans had already adopted French cultures and language.

Note that “**Association system of administration**” was the second french policy after the failure of assimilation policy. Association was supposed to respect the cultural and political values and institutions of Africans because Africans could not and should not be turned into black French people.

k) The Germany direct rule.

In this system, indigenous and political administrative institutions are replaced with those of colonisers. The Germans used direct rule to administer some of their colonies in Africa (German Southwest Africa (Namibia) and German East Africa (Tanzania). It involved use of soldiers to directly control their colonies. They would bring in new chiefs where they had no chiefs. They replaced the old chiefs with new ones.

Why the Germans applied direct rule.

- It was used because the Germans believed that it was the only system through which they could effectively administer their colonies.
- They also believed the system would enable them to exploit and benefit from African resources. For example, they believed that they could raise enough revenue through taxation.
- With direct rule, the Germans would ensure that the Africans grow enough cash crops to feed their home industries.
- The Germans had used force to take over many parts of Tanganyika. Soldiers had to be used; otherwise, Africans could revolt at the slightest opportunity.
- The Germans had suffered early revolts and therefore had to bring in the harsh leaders to avoid more riots.
- The Germans wanted to promote their superior culture over Africans. This would involve imposing their culture on them.
- In many societies, there were no chiefs. Where the chiefs existed, they were not faithful or powerful enough. The Germans therefore had no one to entrust authority with.
- They opted for this system because they had enough manpower to man all departments. There was no need of recruiting or using Africans.
- They feared the expense of training Africans before they could take over administration. They thought that it could strain their budget.

- Like other powers, the Germans did not want to use a system that was used by their rivals (British). This would intensify competition and rivalry among them.

I) iv). Paternalism by Belgians.

Paternalism derived from latin word “pater” meaning “father”. This was a colonial administrative policy which was mostly used by Belgian colonial authorities in Congo. Paternalistic tendencies of Belgian colonial rule had two characteristic features of Leopoldian rule: an irreducible tendency to treat Africans as children and a firm commitment to political control and compulsion. Belgian became the final source of authority and were promoting only their own interests.



Application Activity 6.3

In your own opinion, which method of colonial administration would you prefer? Give reasons for your answer.

6.4. Consequences of European colonization.



Learning Activity 6.4

Discuss the consequences of European colonisation. Present your findings in class.

- ✓ The colonisation of Africa started after 1870 and ended in 1960s when many African countries got their independence. It had far reached consequences which were both positive and negative as discussed below.

Positive consequences.

- Colonisation led to creation of bigger African states. This was as a result of combining small African societies which were combined by the colonialists.
- European colonisation led to abolition of slavery and slave trade among African societies. For example, the Europeans stopped the Yao, Nyamwezi and Akamba who participated in slave trade.
- There was introduction of Western education in the colonies. This brought new scientific knowledge and new languages such as English and French into Africa.

There was establishment of communication networks and infrastructures such as roads and railways in African colonies. A case in point is the Uganda railway and Tanzania railway.

- (iv) Colonisation led to the development of agriculture in Africa through introduction of new crops. The new crops included coffee, cotton, cocoa, rubber and sugar cane in addition to plantations agriculture.
- (v) Colonisation led to the spread of Christianity in Africa. Many Africans dropped their traditional religion and were converted to Christianity. Today there are many Christians especially in central, eastern and southern parts of Africa.
- (vi) Western cultures such as ways of dressing, dancing, eating and marriage were introduced in Africa. For example, in Senegal, Africans who got assimilated dressed and ate like the French.
- (vii) Colonisation led to introduction and expansion of legitimate trade in Africa. Africans acquired European manufactured goods in exchange for the African raw materials. The materials included clothes, saucepans and utensils. They were exchanged for gold, hides and skins.
- (viii) There was emergence and growth of towns and urban centres in Africa during the colonial period. Such towns started as administrative centres for colonial governments which were developed into modern towns today.
- (ix) Colonisation led to rise of African nationalism where Africans wanted to rule themselves instead of being ruled by Europeans. This brought unity of African people against Europeans.

Colonisation opened up parts of African continent to the outside world. This led to the creation of links between African countries and the rest of the outside world.

Negative consequences.

- (i) Colonisation led to loss of independence for Africa. Many African societies had been independent for long. Things changed only when they were colonised by Europeans, for example, some African chiefs were removed from power.
- (ii) Colonisation led to rebellions that resulted from resistance of some Africans. Some of the rebellions were the Maji Maji in Tanzania, Shona- Ndebele in Zimbabwe, Mau Mau in Kenya. Many Africans lost their lives in these wars of rebellion against Europeans.

- (iii) Colonisation led to creation of artificial boundaries in Africa which caused conflict between African modern states. States such as Uganda and Tanzania, Nigeria and Cameroon, and Ethiopia and Eritrea were involved in border conflicts.
- (iv) The European policy of divide and rule created hatred and disunity among some African tribes. This has continued up to today.
- (v) It led to collapse of African cultures as they were dropped in favour of the European cultures, for example, cultural dances and hospitality.
- (vi) Colonisation made African countries to remain underdeveloped and dependent on the colonial masters. This has led to the dependency syndrome.

It led to over exploitation of African resources such as gold and fertile soils by the Europeans. They exploited for the resources their own benefits.



Application Activity 6.4

Discuss the negative effects of colonization and make a presentation in class.



End of unit assessment

1. Define the term colonisation.
2. Explain different causes of European colonisation of Africa.
3. Identify different methods of colonial conquest of Africa.
4. Describe the consequences of European colonisation of Africa.
Identify different colonial systems of administration.

UNIT 7

AFRICAN RESPONSE TO COLONIAL CONQUEST

Key unit competence:



Introductory Activity

Carry out research on collaboration and resistance. Then discuss the African response to colonial rule.

7.1. Forms of African responses towards European colonial conquest



Learning Activity 7.1.

1. Make a discussion on the meaning of the following words:
 - i. Collaboration
 - ii. Resistance
2. Make presentation of your findings to the entire class

Different African societies reacted differently towards colonial rule. The reactions depended on the circumstances that existed in such societies. African response can be grouped into two main ways. These are:

- Collaboration
- Resistance

7.1.1 Collaboration

In this case, African states and societies cooperated with the Europeans. They even assisted them in the process of establishing colonial rule in Africa. In other words, such African states welcomed Europeans and even allowed them to settle in their societies.

The following were some of the African leaders who collaborated with Europeans:

- Kabaka Mutesa I of Buganda
- Semei Kakungulu of Uganda
- King Lewanika of Lozi Empire (in present day Zambia)

- Jaja of Opobo (in present day Nigeria)
- Gerere of Dahomey (in present day Benin)
- Merere of Nyamwezi (in present day Tanzania)

➤ **Forms of Collaboration**

Career collaboration. This concerned the people who were not traditional political leaders but ordinary men who were more opportunists. They chose to collaborate for political, prestigious and social reasons only. Here, we can give an example of Ekinyajwi of Kenya, Nuwa Mbangula, Appollo Kaggwa, Kakungulu in Uganda, etc.

Mercenary collaboration. This was the way where legitimate African chiefs used work hand in hand with the foreign infiltrators in their society. They gave the imperialists much of the necessary assistance like military protection, land and food. For example, we can mention Kasagama of Toro, Mwanga and Cwa of Buganda, Merere of Maraangu and chiefs Lewanika and Lenana of Masai in Kenya.

➤ **How Africans collaborated with European colonialists**

Africans collaborated with Europeans in the following ways:

a) Signing treaties

The most common way of African collaboration was by signing treaties. All these treaties were signed in favour and protection of European interests, for example, giving them authority over land. For example, the Lochner Treaty between Lewanika and British South Africa Company.

b) Provision of labour

Africans also collaborated by providing labour on European farms and construction projects. Africans went ahead to mobilise fellow Africans to work on European farms.

c) Provision of accommodation

Africans also collaborated by providing accommodation to the Europeans. They also guided them through the areas which they did not know, especially places that were not easy to locate.

d) Spread Christianity

Africans helped the Europeans to preach Christianity to fellow Africans. Christianity softened their hearts, thus attracting more collaborators.

e) Helping in interpretation

African collaborators also served as interpreters to the European colonialists. Some active collaborators were taught the European languages. They went ahead to interpret to their counterparts who could not understand the languages.

➤ Reasons for African collaboration

(a) Need for assistance against enemies.

African societies collaborated in order to get support from Europeans against their enemies. They expected to get military assistance from the Europeans, for example, Buganda against Bunyoro, and the Fante against the Asante in present day Ghana. The Shona collaborated with the British so as to use them against the Ndebele in Zimbabwe

(b) Weak military

Some other African societies were militarily weak. They realised that Europeans had better weapons and methods of fighting. They also feared to resist European rule since their resistance would not be successful. They therefore decided to collaborate. Some communities chose friendship as a way of protecting their social, economic and political organisation. Examples include Mutesa I of Buganda, Maasai under Lenana, Rumanyika of Karagwe and Tukolor of the Lozi.

(c) Natural calamities

Natural calamities such as drought, famine and diseases also forced some African societies to collaborate. This is because they expected that collaboration with Europeans would be a solution to their problems. For instance, the Maasai had been weakened by smallpox, rinderpest and internal conflict. On the other hand, the Banyankole were affected by jiggers and rinderpest. They also feared more attacks from Rwanda and Bunyoro. Such societies were too weak to fight the British. They chose to collaborate to solve their problems.

(d) Personal interest

Some Africans collaborated because of personal interests and gains. They were opportunists and excepted rewards from the colonial governments. Others wanted to acquire wealth. They admired European goods such as clothes, beads, guns, mirrors and wine. On the other hand, others collaborated because they hoped to loot property after defeat of African resisters. An example is Luo support against the Nandi. They wanted high administrative posts. An example of such persons was Semei Kakungulu of Buganda.

(e) Benefit from European openings

Other Africans collaborated because they wanted to benefit from European trade (legitimate trade). They intended to acquire European manufactured goods such as guns, clothes and glasses. An example of such Africans was Jaja of Opobo. He collaborated with the French because of trade benefits at the coast of West Africa.

(f) Influence of missionaries

Another reason was the influence of missionaries. The missionaries had softened the hearts of Africans through their preaching. They used to say, "We were all created in God's image. Love one another as you love yourself." By the time European colonialists came, the Africans were ready to practise Christianity.

(g) Ignorance

Africans collaborated due to ignorance of the real intentions of colonialists. They believed that the Europeans were visitors who were in Africa for a short while. Little did they know that they had come to stay.

(h) Lack of African nationalism

Lack of African nationalism was also a reason. Some Africans did not have nationalistic feelings. They therefore collaborated so as to fight fellow Africans whom they considered their enemies.

(i) Effects of slave trade

There was also the issue of effects of slave trade. African societies that were affected by slave trade collaborated because they wanted the Europeans to stop the trade.

(j) Desire for western civilisation

Some Africans collaborated with Europeans because they admired the Western culture and civilisation.

(k) Succession disputes

There were also some succession disputes. Some kings collaborated with Europeans in order to defeat their competitors. An example is King Lenana of Maasai who collaborated with the British in order to defeat his brother Sendeyo.

7.1.2 Resistance

Resistance refers to the situation where Africans opposed the establishment of colonial rule in their societies. This implies that:

- Africans rejected the presence of foreigners in their societies and fought against them.
- Africans refused to cooperate with Europeans as they (Europeans) tried to impose their rule on their (Africans) societies.

➤ Causes of resistance

- African societies resisted because some of their traditional enemies had collaborated with the Europeans. Therefore, they could not join their rivals. For example, the Asante resisted because the Fante collaborated. Bunyoro also resisted because Buganda had collaborated.
- Some African societies felt that they were militarily strong and could therefore defeat the Europeans. For example, King Kabalega of Bunyoro did not imagine that there was any force that could defeat his own army.
- Other African communities had the desire to protect their trade monopolies and commercial prosperity. They wanted to protect their commercial benefits that they had gained from earlier trades. Examples of such communities are the Hehe and the Ngoni who had big influence in the long distance trade.
- Africans wanted to protect their cultural practices and customs. They felt that Europeans were going to interfere with their culture and customs such as polygamy. The Europeans considered such practices primitive and barbaric.
- Bad economic policies of Europeans such as forced labour, taxation and land alienation annoyed Africans. These policies made Africans to suffer, forcing them to resist.
- Some African leaders were enlightened enough to realise the tricks and plans of Europeans in advance. This made them to resist straight away.

For example, Menelik II of Ethiopia demanded writing of the treaty in two languages.

- Africans resisted because they wanted to preserve political independence of their territories. The African leaders feared to lose their positions and power to the Europeans.

- The influence of African traditional religion also contributed to the spirit of resistance in Africa. African traditional leaders preached to the people against the Europeans. They said that their gods were not happy because of the presence of foreigners on the African land. They also said that occurrence of natural calamities such as prolonged drought and diseases were caused by the whites.
- Some African societies resisted because they were economically strong and required no assistance from the Europeans. For example, Samori Toure had built a strong economy for Mandika Empire through trade. This made him feel that he did not need any support from the Europeans.
- Nationalism was also another reason for resistance. Africans resisted because of a high spirit of nationalism for their societies and people. This forced them to fight foreigners who occupied their land.
- Other Africans resisted because they were bandits and feared to be punished by colonial governments. For example, the Nandi had stolen materials for construction of the railway. They feared that they would be punished by the British in case they found. They opted to resist.



Application Activity 7.1.

- To understand the meaning of each form of collaboration, your teacher will provide you with two stories of leaders who collaborated. One will be of mercenary collaboration and the other of career collaboration.

With reasons, identify each type of collaboration the leaders in the story were.

- Between resistance and collaboration, which one would you have preferred if you lived in the 19th Century? Give reasons for your choice. Make a presentation in class

7.2. Types and methods of resistances



Learning Activity 7.2.

- Give the meaning of resistance as discussed in previous notes.
- Discuss the methods that can be used to resist.

Types of Resistance

Resistance can be divided into two types. These are:

- Active resistance
- Passive resistance

a) Active resistance

It is also called **armed resistance**. It involved the use of arms against the colonisers. Examples of African leaders who actively resisted were:

- (i) Samori Toure of Mandika
- (ii) Menelik II of Ethiopia
- (iii) Kabalega of Bunyoro
- (iv) Kinjikitile Ngwale who led the Maji Maji rebellion.

b) Passive resistance

It refers to deliberate refusal by the Africans to cooperate with the colonisers. For example, the Pogoro of Tanzania refused to pick cotton. Some African communities resisted by refusing to pay taxes.

Passive resistance is also known as **unarmed resistance** or **non-cooperation**.

Resistance can also be divided into two forms. These are:

- Primary resistance

This was direct confrontation by African communities at the invasion of Europeans into their land. They used force to expel the Europeans before they gained access to their land. A number of examples of primary resistance can be cited where African reaction immediately followed the arrival of Europeans.

- Secondary resistance

This was a way used by Africans by initially accepting the imperialists to operate within their territories but later to rise against them after understanding their intentions e.g Mwanga of Buganda and Nandi from North Rift of Kenya

Methods of resistance

(a) Use of armed resistance

Some Africans took up arms against the colonialist. They faced the colonialists in battlefields. Examples of those who used armed resistance against colonialists are Maji Maji in Tanganyika, Nama-Herero in Namibia and Shona-Ndebele in Zimbabwe.

(b) Strikes

Africans in different countries demonstrated against colonialists due to colonial exploitation and harsh rule. Strikes included both peaceful and violent ones in places such as mines and plantations.

(c) Boycotts

Africans boycotted in the following manners:

- (i) Refusing to buy European goods
- (ii) Failing to attend European schools, churches and hospitals

The aim of the boycotts was to ensure that Europeans made losses in their businesses. This was one way of forcing them to grant independence to Africans.

(d) Formation political parties

Several African elites formed political parties such as African National Congress by Nelson Mandela in South Africa. Dr Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana formed Conventional People's Party. All acted as uniting factor for Africans to fight against colonial rule.



Fig.7.1: Dr Kwame Nkrumah (1918-2013)

Fig.7.2: Nelson Mandela 1909-1972

(e) Forming African Independent churches

Africans also formed independent African churches such as Ethiopian, Messianic and Zionist churches. The churches cited exploitation in European led churches. They cited the following cases:

- (i) High baptism dues
- (ii) Forced tithing.
- (iii) Lack of promotion to high position of priest hood

(f) Use of diplomacy

This was a non-violent approach. Africans negotiated with Europeans for fairness in administration. They also wrote letters to colonial governments to grant Africans independence. A good example of a country which used diplomacy is Ghana.

(g) Formation of trade unions

These were labour organisations formed to help workers get fair pay and good treatment at work. Trade unions later acted as political parties and demanded for political independence.

(h) Formation of Pan-Africanism

This was an organisation that was formed by Africans in Africa and Africans in the Diaspora. It was formed by Dr Marcus Garvey and W.E.B Dubois. It called for speeding up the process for independence and agitated for 'Africa for Africans'



Fig. 7.3: Dr Marcus Garvey (1868 - 1963)



Fig. 7.4: W.E.B Dubois (1887 - 1940)

(i) Liberation wars

There were also guerrilla movements started by Africans such as Jonas Savimbi of Angola, initially member of MPLA (Popular Movement for Liberation of Angola) before forming UNITA(Union Nationale pour l'Indépendance Totale de l'Angola/ the National Union for the Total Independence of Angola) and Eduardo Mondlane founded FRELIMO (Front for Liberation of Mozambique) in Mozambique. All this pressurised colonial masters.



Application Activity 7.2.

1. Research about forms of resistances and give examples for each.
2. By using a table, identify the reasons for collaboration and the reasons for resistance.

Present the findings in class.

7.3. Consequences of African resistances



Learning Activity 7.3.

Discuss the effects of any resistance.

Note: Generally, all African resistance cases ended up to a failure (except in Ethiopia). Several factors contributed much to the occurrence of this phenomenon.

The effects of Africa resistance can be divided into both negative and positive as discussed below:

➤ Negative effects of African resistance

- Loss of lives: many people died while fighting or from diseases brought by colonialists such as smallpox.
- *Depopulation*: caused by the loss of lives due to the fighting because where Africans tried to resist, Europeans reacted by killing them massively. It was also due to displacement of people who were flying from the battlefield.
- *Destruction of property*: due to the fighting between Africans and Europeans, there was destruction of properties such as houses, crops and villages, etc.
- *Famine*: because of insecurity and instability, economic activities were disrupted, and people could not provide themselves with foods and essential items. In some cases, this famine was also caused by military tactics like “scorched earth policy” used by the Germans in Tanganyika.
- *Spread of diseases and other epidemics*: This was due to the presences unburied bodies and by the fact that people were living in forests because their houses had been destroyed.
- *African submission to colonial policies*: Some native people accepted to go and work for the Whites on their roads, farms and railways construction and other projects.

- *Increase of European settlements in Africa:* after defeating African resistances, Africa was secured, and this encouraged other European to come massively to settle in peaceful African regions.
- *Land alienation:* Because of the end of the war of resistance, many Europeans settled in Africa which increased the confiscation of the land of the Africans. For instance, Zimbabwe still has a very large population of Whites.
- African culture and customs were disrupted by the European culture through the educational system and spread of Christianity.
- There was a division of African culture. Rivals were united while kinship and family members were split because of the artificial boundaries. This caused a great amount of tension within regions.

➤ **Positive effects of African resistance**

- As a result of African resistance, European colonialists put efforts to improve colonies and resulted in improved sanitation and education. Hospitals, schools, and factories were built creating more jobs for the people of Africa and also the conditions of work improved because forced labour was abolished in some colonies like in Tanganyika after Maji Maji.
- The amount of local warfare was reduced greatly due to control of the African government by Europeans. This brought political stability in many African states.
- Order and peace were brought to the colonies because the Europeans intensified security in their colonies after recognising that Africans had the potential to resist their rule.

The average life expectancy increased as a result of combined factors like improved health facilities, peace and order that were intensified after African resistance

- Literacy rates rose because in very many African resistances, the Africans lost the battle and therefore had to succumb to the European civilisation including religion and education.
- *Rise of African nationalism:* the rebellion provided a lesson to the Africans because the patriotic and national consciousness was implanted in these people who participated in the revolt and later used as base for future nationalist.
- *Spread of Christianity:* Traditional religion lost its credibility among the Africans because of its defeat after the execution of its leaders.

Thus, this opened chance for the spread of Christianity.



Application Activity 7.3.

Group the effects of resistance into positive and negative effects using a table.

7. 4: Samori Toure's resistance.



Learning Activity 7.4.

Make research on internet or use textbooks and answer the following questions.

1. Who was Samori Toure?
2. Reasons that led to the conflict between Samori Toure and the French colonialists

Make a presentation in class.

Samori Toure was born in 1830 in Manyambaladugu, a village southeast of Kankan in present-day Guinea. Samori was a great warrior who fought imperialism in the 19th Century. He refused to submit to French colonisation. He chose to fight.

Toure became a well known leader, training and commanding a growing and disciplined army. He expanded his conquests, building a united empire called Mandika. By 1874, he declared himself *Faama* (monarch). He established the capital of his kingdom at Bisandugu in present-day Gambia in the 1880s. The empire covered Bamako, Sierra Leone, the Ivory Coast and Liberia.

On 1st May 1898, the French seized the town of Sikasso. Toure and his army took up positions in the Liberian forests to resist.

➤ The causes of Samore Toure's resistance.

- Samori Toure defended Mandika independence from being colonized by the French.
- Defense of Islam since the French colonialists were Christians while the Mandika were Muslims. Consequently, resisting them was a purposeful action to defend Islamic state against infidels.
- Samori Toure defended trade because the French domination would monopolize the trade in the empire by out competing the Mandika merchants.

- The French colonial administration was very oppressive and repressive as it was in Algeria and Senegal.
- Samori Toure defended the land from the French settlers because they were looking for the fertile soils which were under the ownership of the Malinke people. Samori Toure wanted to conclude an alliance with the British because he had shown the willingness to hand over his empire to the British protection other than the French.
- Samori Toure defended Mandika culture which the French were set to destroy and replace it with the French culture through their policy of Assimilation.
- The French plan to use Tiebe of Sikasso to attack and when Toure found out he dissolved the treaty he had concluded with Sikasso and attacked them before it was too late. Unfortunately, Samori Toure was defeated.
- False foreign support because Samori Toure had been falsely encouraged by the military support had expected from the British, Creoles of Sierra Leone and Tokolor against the French. However, they had betrayed him when they left him alone in the battleground.
- Europeans were exploitative in nature; they subjected Africans to forced labor, over taxation and its brutal collection like the hut tax in Sierra Leone. Aware of this nature of Europeans, Samori Toure of Mandika had to resist.

Why did Samori Toure resist the French for long?

- He used good methods of fighting which included guerrilla warfare and scorched earth policy. His army destroyed crops, granaries of food, houses and poisoned water before retreating. This made the French lack supplies. He also used guerrilla warfare to avoid direct battles with the French.
- He had a very powerful army. It was large, well equipped and well trained. His army consisted of 30,000-35,000 soldiers.
- He had strong weapons and large in number. He also had his own workshops where his skilled blacksmith produced weapons such as shields, arrows and spears. He also acquired guns from the coastal traders and the British.
- Strong unity and support of his citizens and conquered states enabled him to resist for long. The Mandinka and people from conquered states supplied him with food and joined his army against the French.

- Islam also played a very important role. All the Mandika people were Muslims and religion acted as a uniting factor. This unity of the Mandika enabled them to support Toure against the French.
- He used diplomacy too. For example, he allied with the British in Sierra Leon who continued supplying him with weapons that he used to fight the French. His relationship with the British scared the French.
- Geographical factors also favoured him. The Mandinka were fighting on a home ground that they understood very well. On the other hand, the French were fighting on a foreign land and became challenged.
- He had a reliable spy network. Toure had a spy network system composed of Dyulla traders, his old-time friends. The spies provided him with information concerning French advances to his empire. This helped him prepare in advance before the French attacks.
- The personality and character of Samori Toure played a role. He was a military genius and personally commanded his army. He was a brave soldier. This made him to challenge the French troops for long in the Mandinka Empire.



Application Activity 7.4.

Conduct research to find out more about reasons that led to the conflict between Samori Toure and the French

Prepare a report for presentation in class.



Fig. 7.5: Samori Toure (1830 - 1900)

7.5. The Maji Maji Rebellion in Tanzania



Learning Activity 7.5.

Do research to find out.

1. The meaning of the Maji Maji
 2. The different tribes that join Maji Maji rebellion

Maji is a Swahili word which means water. It came from the prophecy of a traditional religious leader called Kinjikitile Ngwale. Kinjikitile mixed some water with millet and sorghum flour then sprinkled on African soldiers. He believed that the magic water would protect Africans from bullets of the Germans. This was a reaction of Africans living in southeast Tanganyika against the German colonial masters. Many tribes joined this rebellion. The tribes included the Mbuga, Wangindo, Ngoni, Bena, Zaramo, Mafumbi, Makonde, Ngindo and Urugulu.



Fig. 7.6: A sketch map of German East Africa showing areas affected by rebellion.

Causes of the Maji Maji rebellion

(a) Rise of nationalism among Africans.

The societies of southern Tanganyika developed too much hatred for the Germans and their rule because of their brutality, forced labour and disrespect of African culture among others. They decided that the only way to have independence was through a rebellion.

(b) Heavy taxation.

The German administration introduced taxation as a way of forcing the Africans to work on European farms. Africans (Ngoni, Ngindo, Zaramo, Matumbi, Pogoro, Lungura, Ndendeule, Mpunga and Bena) rebelled as a way of saving themselves from the heavy taxes that were imposed on them by the Germans. Not only were the taxes heavy but even the methods of collection were harsh and brutal.

(c) Loss of land to Germans.

The Germans had grabbed the fertile land belonging to Africans, for example, within the rift valley and Mahenge plateau. In those two areas, the Germans established plantations. This compelled Africans to rebel so as to regain their land.

(d) Forced labour policies.

Africans were forced to work on German construction projects such as railways and roads. They were also forced to work in the cotton plantations. Africans were made to work for long hours and were given small wages. Sometimes they would work with no pay. This annoyed Africans and they decided to fight the Germans.

(e) The oppressive German rule.

The Germans employed Arab-Swahili as headmen (Jumbes) and chiefs (Akidas) to assist in the administration. These Akidas and Jumbes were very harsh to the African communities. They had no respect for the African traditional rulers, and they flogged them in public. Germans used Akidas and Jumbes who were unpopular among the African societies. They were unpopular because they had mistreated people before. They were harsh in the implementation of German rule. They had no respect for the African traditional rulers and at times flogged them in public.

(f) Need to revenge on the Germans.

Some African societies like the Ngoni joined the Maji Maji so as to revenge the Boma massacres of 1897. In this incident, Ngoni leaders were tricked by the German officials into entering a 'boma' or fort. Once inside, the Germans tried to arrest them and in the ensuing struggle, many people died.

(g) Role of Kinjikitile Ngwale.

Kinjikitile Ngwale mobilised people in 1904. He sent messengers to the surrounding country to train people. He spread the power of ‘magic water’ from River Rufiji which inspired many people to join the rebellion. The water, they believed, had powers of turning bullets into water. People did not have any fear for the German bullets. The belief in the water gave the warriors courage to face the Germans despite the fact that the latter were better armed.

(h) Need to preserve the African culture.

Africans wanted to retain their culture as the German administration had disrupted the way of life of the African people. Germans also had no respect for African culture and customs. They and their servants raped Ngindo women, an offence that was punishable by death. They also burnt African shrines. This annoyed the Africans.

(i) Outbreak of natural calamities.

There was an outbreak of natural calamities such as famine in 1905 in the southeast Tanganyika states. The famine led to resentment among the locals. Such calamities caused Africans to suffer. They were attributed to the presence of Germans on their land.

(j) Overthrowal of native leaders.

Due to the German colonial policy of direct rule, many native African leaders lost their power to German administrators. African leaders such as Mkwawa and Mifambo were replaced with Akidas and Jumbes. These Akidas and Jumbes were harsh to the African communities whom they considered backward and illiterate. Many Africans were not happy. They therefore joined the rebellion as a way of restoring their leaders.



Application Activity 7.5.

- Analyse the effects of the Maji Maji rebellion.
- Prepare a report for presentation in class discussion

7.6. Buganda collaboration: Kabaka Mutesa



Learning Activity 7.6.

Research on reasons that pushed King Kabaka Mutesa to collaborate. Present in class.

Buganda was one of the largest, best organised and most powerful kingdoms in Eastern Africa in the 19th Century. The reaction of Buganda leaders to the establishment of colonial rule varied. Some resisted at one time, but others collaborated at another time depending on circumstances.

Kabaka Mutesa collaborated with the Europeans. He collaborated with the Europeans for the following reasons:

- He wanted to use the Europeans to reduce the power and influence of the Muslims. In 1875, he invited European Christian missionaries to Buganda. They arrived in 1877 and built mission stations at the Kabaka's capital. Soon rivalry developed between the Protestant and Catholic missionaries. Each group tried to have more influence over the Kabaka.
- Mutesa took advantage of this rivalry by playing one group against the other. He did this to ensure that none of the groups became powerful enough to undermine his power.
- Mutesa also wanted to obtain maximum benefit from the Europeans. They tried to out do one another in the provision of educational and health facilities and in the supply of firearms to the Kabaka. They also helped the Kabaka to obtain trade goods from the coast.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Explain, with examples, how Africans responded to European colonialism.
2. Explain the causes of African resistance to colonial rule.
3. Define the term collaboration.
4. Describe how Africans collaborated with European colonialists.

UNIT 8

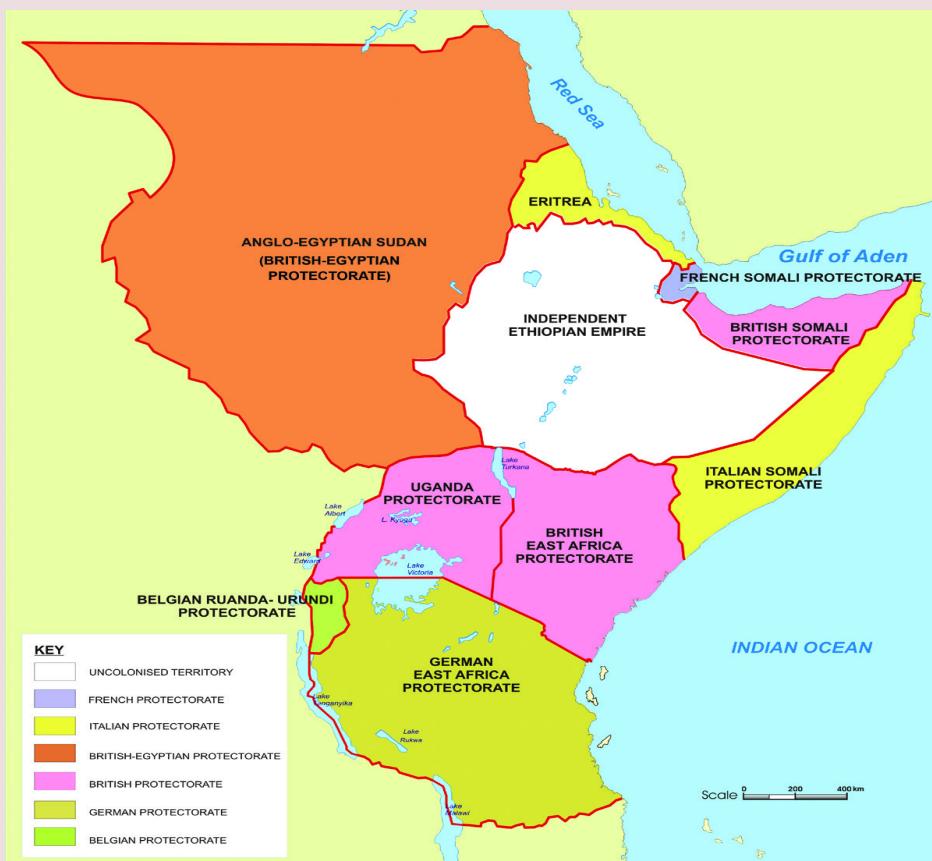
GERMAN AND BELGIAN COLONISATION (1897-1962)

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to explain the causes and impact of German and Belgian colonisation.



Introductory Activity

1. Find out the meaning of the word “colonization” from the Internet and the dictionary. Write the meaning in your notebook.
2. Identify the nationalist of first Europeans to come in Rwanda.
3. Copy the following map in your notebook then answer the following questions:



- i. Identify the current names of the countries on the map.
- ii. Write down the countries that colonised the ones you identified in question (i) above.
- iii. Estimate the period under which colonial administration in each of the shown countries ended.
- iv. Present your findings in class for further discussion.

Introduction

German colonisation of Rwanda began with the coming of European explorers to Africa. This was around 1880, when Africa experienced an increase in European explorers. One of the factors that drove explorers to Africa was the desire to discover the source of the river Nile. From 1856, the Geographical Society of London had started to organise regular exploration missions to discover the source of that river. Some of the explorers who visited Rwanda include Sir Henry Morton who reached Akagera River in 1875, Dr Oscar Baumann who arrived in southern Rwanda on the 11th of September 1892, and Comte Gustav Adolf von Götzen who entered Rwanda after crossing Akagera River above Rusumo Falls. Von Götzen was guided by Prince Sharangabo, the son of King Rwabugiri. He was later received by King Kigeli IV Rwabugiri on May 25th, 1894 at Kageyo in Kingogo in present day Ngororero District, western province.

Von Götzen was followed by a second German mission led by Captain Ramsay who arrived in Rwanda on March 20th, 1897 during the reign of King Yuhu V Musinga. During this visit, Captain Ramsay gave King Musinga the Germany flag as a symbol of German authority. From then, the German occupation of Rwanda became a reality. Rwanda-Urundi became a region with the capital in Usumbura (Bujumbura). This region was placed under the control of Captain Bethe who arrived in Rwanda in March 1898 at the royal residence of Gitwiko in the present day Kamonyi District.



Fig. 8.1: Henry Morton Stanely, Fig. 8.2: Dr Oscar Baumann, Fig.8.3: Comte Gustav Adolf Vo Götzen

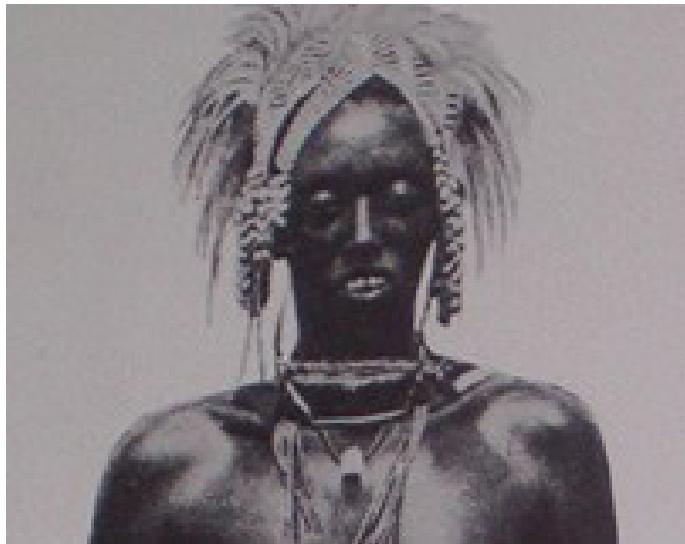


Fig. 8.4: King Yuhu V Musinga

8.1. Causes of German and Belgian colonization in Rwanda



Learning Activity 8.1

The following are some of the factors that made Germans and Belgians move into Rwanda:

- Industrial revolution in Europe
- Investment of surplus capital
- Rwanda as a source of raw materials
- Need for market.

Discuss how each factor led to colonisation of Rwanda. Make notes for presentation in a class discussion.

The main causes of German and Belgian colonization are:

a) ***The industrial revolution in Europe.***

The industrial revolution begun in Britain in the second half of the 18th Century and thereafter spread in other countries such France, Germany, Belgium among others. It led to an increase in demand for raw materials needed by the industries for further production. As production increased, so was the need for an expanded market for the manufactured products. European countries had to look up to Africa to provide the much-needed raw materials and market.

b) Rivalry among European countries.

Rivalry between European countries also contributed to colonisation of African countries. Competition to produce more and supply more contributed to the rivalry among European powers such as Britain and Germany. Both had to protect their overseas territories because the territories supported the entire industrialisation process.

Continued production and supply of manufactured goods led to massive profits to bourgeoisies who owned the factories. These wealthy people wanted to invest their surplus income outside their countries because of competition and reduced investment opportunities their countries offered. This factor pushed them to look for opportunities as far as into Africa.

c) A source of raw materials and cheap labour.

European colonies were able to acquire raw materials (cassiterite, wolfram and cash crops) for use in their home industries and cheap labour. The labour was also used in neighbouring colonies to the benefit of the colonisers. For example, Belgians acquired cheaper labour from Rwanda for use in the Democratic Republic of Congo. Africans helped in the collection of ivory and rubber and extraction of minerals in the upper Congo basin for sale elsewhere in world. In addition, several major Belgian investment companies pushed the Belgian government to take over the Congo and develop the mining sector. This sector required local labour which was regionally acquired.

d) Prestige and geostrategic interest.

Some European nations competed to assert themselves as major superpowers. For example, the newly formed nations of Germany and Italy wanted to catch up with England, France and other established colonial powers. More colonies for these countries were a sign of a nation's strength. In addition, European countries which had already established themselves in some African countries felt that it was necessary for them to acquire more countries for **geostrategic** reasons.

e) Need to spread Christianity.

The colonisation of Rwanda was a way to spread Christianity by European missionaries. The missionaries were mainly Roman Catholics and Anglicans. They later established their churches and missions in Rwanda.

f) Need to promote western civilization.

The Germans and Belgians considered Rwanda to be backward and therefore had a strong desire to civilise it socially, economically and politically.

g) The role of the 1884–1885 Berlin Conference.

During this time, African countries were distributed among European countries where Rwanda was given to Germany. This accelerated and contributed to the colonisation of Rwanda.



Application Activity 8.1

Write an essay on the causes of German and Belgian colonization in Rwanda. Present your findings in class.

8.2. German administration and its impact in Rwanda.



Learning Activity 8.2.

1. Draw a sketch of map of Rwanda and show its borders by 1910.
2. Explain the causes of revolts against Musinga during the German rule.
3. Identify regions which revolted against Musinga and the attitude of the Germans towards these revolts.
4. Explain the characteristics of the system of administration practiced by the Germans.
5. Discuss the impact of those revolts on Rwanda.

8.2.1 German administration in Rwanda

In Rwanda, Germans used indirect rule. This form of administration used traditional leaders to administer on behalf of the Germans. It also respected and maintained local culture. The implementation of the German rule was to be attained through the Military Phase and Civil Administration Phase.

a) Military Phase (1897-1907).

This phase was characterised by occupation of Rwanda between 1897 and 1907. At the same time, the German government gave support to the local leaders to stop several revolts. Therefore, the military post at Shangi and Gisenyi were only meant to bring people in those areas under German rule and under the local Rwandan regime headed by King Musinga.

b) Civil Administration Phase (1907-1916).

The administrative services were transferred from Usumbura to Kigali and Richard Kandt was made the first Resident of Rwanda. Kandt was given the responsibility of establishing the civilian rule, conducting census, collecting taxes and creating a police force. Kigali was founded as the imperial residence. In addition to that, the German government provided military support to the local authorities to stop several uprisings like those staged by Ndungutse and his allies, Rukara and Basebya. Ndungutse, whose real name was Birasisenge, wanted to declare himself a legitimate king after pretending to be the descendant of Mibambwe IV Rutarindwa and Muserekande nicknamed "Nyiragahumuza."

The following were the causes of rebellions in northern Rwanda:

1. There was need to recover lost glory by the people which had been taken over by the royal court of Rwanda.
2. They were also subjected to forced labour introduced by the Germans during the fixing of frontiers in 1910. To them, this was unfair, and therefore made them revolt.
3. The Germans forced people to supply them with food. This annoyed them, causing a revolt not only against the German rule, but also to the central authority headed by the king.

Basebya was one of the rebellion leaders. He was a son to Nyirantwari of Rugezi and a member of the Abashakamba militias of Kigeli IV Rwabugiri. With his group of warriors known as *Ibijabura*, Basebya conquered Buberuka, the whole of Bukonya (Gakenke District) Kibali (Gicumbi District).

With three conquered regions, Musinga's power was seriously challenged. Following the expedition of Ndungutse in Bumbogo and Buberuka, the acting Resident representative Lieutenant Godivius, nicknamed Bwana Lazima, decided to fight against the opposition. Ndungutse and Rukara were killed a few days later. Rukara was hanged. Basebya, who was arrested by chief Rwubusisi, suffered the same fate on May 5th, 1912.

Another major event that took place during this phase was **the demarcation of Rwanda's borders**. This was done on 8th February 1910 during a conference held in Brussels between Belgium, Germany and Britain. Rwanda was limited in the northern and western frontiers. The redrawing of the borders was done on a map.

In this exercise of re-fixing its borders, Rwanda lost one half of its actual size as follows: Ijwi Island, Bwishya and Gishari were annexed to Belgian Congo while Bufumbira was annexed to Uganda. Unfortunately, the fixations did not put into account the structure of the local population.

➤ The coming of missionaries

Christian missionaries came just after the coming of German administrators to Rwanda. The first religious groups to emerge during the German rule.

Was the Catholic Church, Islam and Lutheran Protestantism. More religious groups came in during the Belgian rule, for example, the Adventists in 1919, Anglicans in 1918, Pentecostals in 1941 and Methodists in 1943.

i) Roman Catholic missionaries.

The White Fathers introduced Roman Catholicism in Rwanda. They were led by the Apostolic Vicar of Southern Nyanza (Tanzania), Bishop Joseph Hirth. They were part of the Société des Missionnaires d'Afrique," founded in 1868 by Archbishop of Algiers, Cardinal Charles Lavigerie.

He came to Rwanda from Shangi. Later, he arrived at the royal court in Nyanza on February 2nd, 1900, accompanied by Father Brard and Father Paul Bartholomew, and Brother Anselme. At the royal court, the missionaries requested for land to settle, and their request was accepted. The land given to them was at Save in Bwanamukali today in Gisagara District, Southern Province where they founded their first mission on February 8th, 1900.

In the following years, they established the following other missions:

Mission	Date founded	Founders
Zaza	1.11.1900	Fathers Bartholomew, Zumbiehl and Pouget
Nyundo	25.04.1901	Fathers Bartholomew, Weckerle and Leon Classe
Rwaza	20.11.1903	Fathers Leon Classe, Dufays and Brother Hermenegilde
Mibilizi	23.11.1903	Fathers Zumbiehl, Verfurth and Cunrath
Kabgayi	9.05.1906	Fathers Lecoindre, Desbrosses and Brother Fulgence
Rulindo	26.04.1909	Fathers Boission, Dufays and Durand
Murunda	17.05.1909	Fathers Dufays, Ecomard and Soubielle
Kansi	13.12.1910	Fathers Lecoindre, Dufays and Brother Rodriguez
Kigali	21.11.1913	Fathers Donders, Zumbiehl and Brother Alfred

ii) Protestant missionaries

Protestantism was introduced in Rwanda by the missionaries of the Bethel Society. The first pastor to arrive in Rwanda was Emmanuel Johanssen who came from Bukoba in Tanzania. As for German Protestant missionaries, they were received at the royal court in Nyanza on 29th July 1907. They founded their first missions at Remera-Rukoma in 1912, Kilinda in 1907 and Rubengera in 1909 among others.

There was also the first Seventh Adventist Church that was established at Gitwe by Pastor Meunier in 1919. In the years that followed, other missions were established at Murambi in Buganza today in Gatsibo District, Eastern Province and Rwankeri in Buhoma today in Nyabihu District, Western province.

iii. The First World War in Rwanda

The First World War that occurred between 1914 and 1918 was mainly fought among European nations. However, its impact was indirectly felt in other continents including America, Asia and Africa.

In Rwanda, the Germans fought with Belgians who had colonised Congo (DRC). The war was intense in Bugoyi in present day Rubavu district in the northwest region and Cyangugu in present day Rusizi District in the southwest region in western province. The Germans were the first to begin the war by attacking Belgian Congo's Ijwi Island in September 1914. This made the Belgians to respond by fighting back. Belgians were supported by British troops. The troops were deployed in two directions: Shangi and Gisenyi.

Kigali was finally captured on 6th May 1916 then Nyanza on 19th May 1916. Later, the Belgians moved on with the war through the Rwandan territory towards Burundi.

During the war, Rwanda did all she could to support Germany. This support ranged from providing armed warriors called *Indugaruga* as well as supplying food.

8.2.2. Impact of German colonization in Rwanda.

Their reign was short-lived, from 1897 to 1916. This was hampered by their defeat in the First World War in Europe and Rwanda respectively in 1916.

They made a little impact as discussed below:

a) Demarcation of Rwandan border.

On 14th May 1910, the European Convention of Brussels fixed the borders of Uganda, Congo and German East Africa. This included Tanganyika and Rwanda-Urundi. It is until 1918, under the Treaty of Versailles, that the former German colony of Rwanda-Urundi was made a Belgian protectorate by

League of Nations. This led to demarcation of Rwanda's borders. The fixing was done using a map. Rwanda lost parts equal to one and half of its actual size.

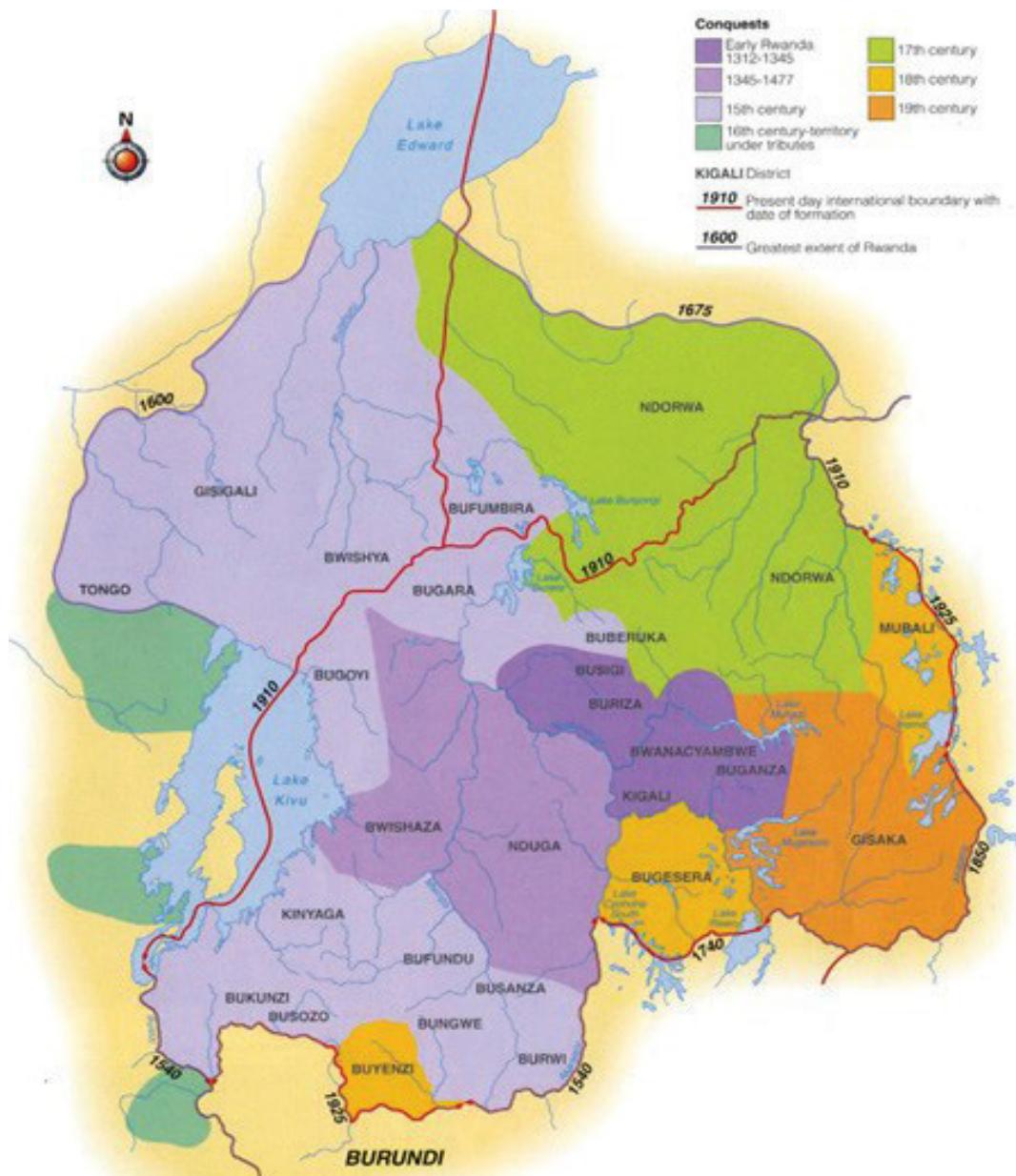


Fig 8.5: Map of Rwanda during demarcation of boarders by 1910

b) Support to King Musinga (Mwami).

The Germans settled and helped the *Mwami* (King Musinga) gain greater nominal control over Rwandan affairs. They fought rebellions and defended his rule. The Germans used indirect rule in Rwanda that gave power to the king and local authorities.

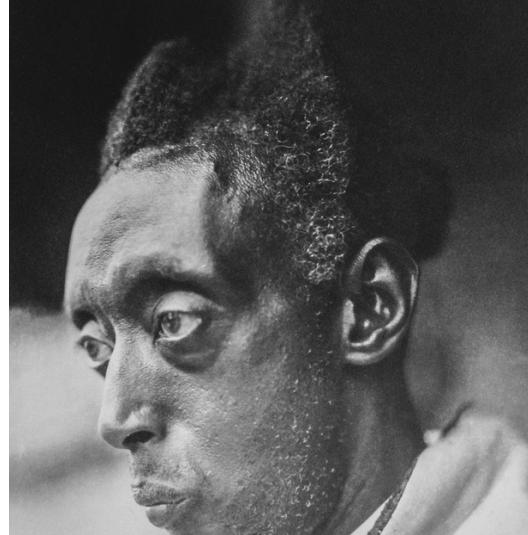


Fig 8.6: King Yuhu V Musinga.

c) Opening of Rwanda to outside world.

Dr Oscar Baumann came to Rwanda in September 1892. He was followed by Von Götzen in 1894. The latter led an expedition to claim the interior of Tanganyika colony. Thereafter, German colonialists and, missionaries arrived in Rwanda. Therefore, the initial visits of Baumann and Von Götzen is seen as the beginning of the opening up of Rwanda to the outside world.

d) Integration of Rwanda in world economy.

German colonisation of Rwanda led to the export of large quantities of hides and livestock. The exportation was mainly oriented towards European countries. This initiated a market economy in Rwanda.

e) Introduction of money.

Money was introduced in Rwanda during the German colonisation of Rwanda. People used coin money, heller and rupees. Many Rwandans saw money as a replacement for barter trade in terms of economic prosperity and social standing.

f) Introduction of head tax.

German colonisation of Rwanda led to the introduction of the head tax on male adult Rwandans.

g) Coming of European missionaries.

The German colonisation of Rwanda led to the coming of European missionaries in Rwanda. Roman Catholic missionaries, led by the White

Fathers, came to Rwanda in 1900. They were followed by the Presbyterian missionaries in 1907. This promoted Christianity in Rwanda.



Application Activity 8.2.

Make an essay on the impacts of German colonisation in Rwanda. Present the results.

8.3. Reforms introduced by Belgians.



Learning Activity 8.3.

Using textbooks, internet or other resources,

1. Assess the transformations introduced by Belgians in Rwanda then present your results to the class.
2. Explain the reasons for the deportation of King Musinga in 1931. Thereafter, compile an essay for the teacher to mark.

During the First World War I, Germans fought with Belgians in Rwanda. This led to the defeat of Germans in May 1916. Belgians then officially took over control of Rwanda from Germans. The Belgian administration in Rwanda led to a total change in Rwanda's political, social, economic, cultural and religious sectors.

It is important to distinguish the reforms introduced by Belgians in Rwanda into three stages of the entire Belgian rule. These are:

- i) Reforms introduced during the Military Administration (1916-1924)
- ii) Reforms introduced during the Belgian Mandate (1926-1946)
- iii) Reforms introduced during the Trusteeship (1946-1962)

8.3.1: Reforms introduced during the Military Administration (1916 - 1924)

After the conquest of Ruanda-Urundi in 1916, German colonialists were replaced by the Belgian occupational troops. The troops were responsible for managing the country. The Belgian Military High Commander in charge was J.P Malfeyt. He was the first Belgian Royal High Commissioner in Rwanda. His residence was at Kigoma in Tanzania.

He was tasked to maintain order and public safety over all the territoires in Ruanda-Urundi. He was in charge of Belgian troops in the occupation of Rwanda. He played this role until the end of the First World War.

After the War, Rwanda once again fell under military regime, and was

divided into military sectors. These were Gisenyi, Ruhengeri, Cyangugu and Nyanza. The military sectors were later transformed into territoires, namely:

- i. The western territory (Rubengera territory capital)
- ii. Northern territory (Ruhengeri territory capital)
- iii. The territory of Nyanza (Nyanza territory capital)
- iv. The Eastern territory (Kigali territory capital)

Major De Clerk later was named as Resident in 1917. Later, he was replaced by F.van De Eede in 1919.

The following are some of the reforms introduced in Rwanda during the military administration:

- a) Systematic disintegration of the monarchy
- b) Undermining the *Mwami's* (king's) legal power
- c) Reduction of the *Mwami's* (king's) political power
- d) Abolition of *Ubwiru* and *Umuganura*
- e) Declaration of religious freedom
- f) Abolition of *imponoke* and *indabukirano*

Each of these reforms has been explained below in detail:

a) *Systematic disintegration of the monarchy.*

The relationships of the occupying authorities with the court of the king were very bad. For example, on 25th March 1917, the General Auditor of Kigoma was ordered to arrest the king. It is at this time that the Royal Commissioner, General Malfeyt, decided to send De Clerk as the Resident.

Under De Clerk, the residence of Rwanda was divided into Northern, Nyanza, Western and Eastern territories. The division was to facilitate implementation of military orders, food requisition and recruitment of carriers for the Belgian colonialists. Furthermore, in 1922, the decision by Belgians that the Resident at Nyanza would assist the *Mwami* (King Musinga) in his legal prerogatives was meant to undermine the king's legal power.

b) *Undermining the Mwami's (king's) legal power.*

The king, before the Belgian occupation, had authority to pass 'life or death' sentence over his subjects. The king was stripped off this right to determine whether a person would live or be killed because of a crime committed. Crimes that warranted the death sentence from the king included murder, fighting with fellow subjects or treason. Without such

authority, the king's title was reduced to being just honorary. This, among other reasons, humiliated the king greatly.

c) Reduction of the Mwami's (king's) political power.

King Musinga was stopped from appointing and dismissing any of his subordinates without permission of the Belgian High Commissioner or Resident. Chiefs and Governors of provinces too did not have the right to dismiss those who worked under them. With time, the final source of authority became the Belgian administration. Chiefs and their deputies therefore were required to report to the Belgian administration and not King Musinga as was the case initially.

Traditional authorities were charged with the following responsibilities:

- a) Collecting taxes
- b) Mobilising porters and workers on local roads and tracks

d) Abolition of ubwiru and umuganura.

Abiru were officials in Rwandan Kingdom who were in charge of *ubwiru* (*amabanga y'imitgekere y'igihugu*). The traditional institution of *ubwiru* played very important roles in the Rwandan Kingdom and to the *mwami* (king).

Umuganura (*umunsi mukuru wo kwishimira no gushima Imana kubera umusaruro wabonetse mu mwaka*) was meant to thank God for the harvest. It was also to strategise for the next season, so as to ensure that the harvest is good. It was celebrated by Rwandans after harvest of sorghum. It was a very big event in the kingdom as Rwandans celebrated their achievements in terms of harvest both at the kingdom and family level.

Belgians abolished both the *ubwiru* and *umuganura* in a systematic way to curtail the king's powers. Eventually, in 1925, the chief of *ubwiru* who was called *Gashamura* was exiled in Burundi. The Resident communicated to King Musinga that *umuganura* had been abolished.

e) Declaration of religious freedom.

In traditional Rwanda, the king was not only an administrative leader but also a religious leader who was an intermediate between God (*Imana*) and Rwandans. This made Rwandans to consider their King as God and would refer to him as *Nyagasani* (meaning God). However, with the influence of the Catholic Church and the administration of the Belgians in 1917, King Musinga was forced to sign a law accepting freedom of worship.

From then, the King had no option but to allow religious freedom that would favour the Catholics. Therefore, the royal power was separated with religion because the King had just been forced to forego his religious powers.

f) ***Abolition of imponoke and indabukirano.***

Indabukirano were gifts given to the chief after being nominated and coronated to the position. The gifts included items like cows and beers (*indabukirano*). Such was meant to show loyalty to him by his subjects. It was also to enable the new chief to cope with the new lifestyle, to show happiness and to congratulate the new chief.

Imponoke was a sign of compensation to the chief usually after a heavy loss of cows, especially due to diseases or being struck by lightning. This was a sign of active bystandership to the chief by his subjects. Generally, to the chief, it was a way of compensating him for the loss of cows and to enable him to continue living within the lifestyle he was used to before the loss. It was one of the ways Rwandans used to show concern for others in the society.

The practice of *imponoke* and *indabukirano* were abolished by the Belgians when they took over the administration of Rwanda. This was aimed at weakening the influence of the king over his subjects. It was also to help the Belgians remain with monopoly of power. The expected end result was to reduce the belief in traditional practices where Rwandese had deep attachment.

8.3.1: Reforms introduced during the Belgian Mandate (1926-1946)

A mandated territory is a country or territory that is governed by another country based on the authority given by the League of Nations. The mandate may imply different forms of government varying from direct administration by the other country to being self governing.

1. Political reforms (1926-1931)

Mandated territories were introduced in 1919. In 1922, the League of Nations gave Belgium a mandate over the territory of Ruanda-Urundi. Belgium was to administer and control the territory while respecting the freedom of religion and stopping slavery. The mandates were divided into three classes, A, B and C, according to the presumed development of their population. Rwanda was put under the mandate B with Belgium as a mandatory power.

This mandate was approved on 20th October 1924 by the Belgian parliament. For this reason, from 1916 – 1924, Rwanda was called “a territory under occupation.” However, it was officially known as a “territory under mandate B.” Other countries in this category were Tanzania, Rwanda, Burundi, Togo and Cameroon.

The administrative reforms initiated by Belgian authorities started in 1926 and brought with it a number of changes where Rwanda-Burundi was joined to Belgian Congo in terms of administration. This meant that Congolese colonial laws were applied to both countries.

The following were the other reforms in administration:

1.1. Mortehan reforms (1926-1931)

Between 1926 and 1932, the Resident of Rwanda called Georges Mortehan introduced a reform in the administrative structure of Rwanda. This reform was essentially aimed at new distribution of powers. Therefore, Rwanda which was originally governed under 20 districts (ibiti) and pastoral fiefs (ibikingi) was transformed into a system of territories, chiefdoms and sub-chiefdoms. By 1931, Rwanda consisted of 10 territories instead of 20 districts, 52 chiefdoms (chefferies) corresponding more or less to historical traditional regions and 544 sub-chiefdoms (sous- chefferies) equivalent to former pastoral fiefs. The functions of the land chief (umutware w'ubutaka), the cattle chief (umutware w'umukenke) and the military chief (umutware w'ingabo) were abolished. Chiefs now resided in their administrative places and not at the royal court as it was before.

Unfortunately, the administrative responsibilities in the new structure were unfairly done. It excluded the Hutu, Twa and Tutsi with a moderate background in favour of the Tutsi from well to do families. The chiefs were in turn replaced by their sons who completed from the school reserved for sons of chiefs. This is because they were seen as being able to rule in a modern way.

In addition, with the Mortehan reform the traditional chiefs lost their power because they now accomplished their duties under pressure of being dismissed when they performed poorly. They became pure and simple agents of the Belgian colonial administration. They no longer represented the King or their subjects.

1.2. Deposition of King Yuhi V Musinga in 1931.

At the beginning of the colonial rule, King Musinga collaborated with the German administrators and in return they helped him defeat the northern rebellions. However, the relationships between the King Musinga and

the Catholic missionaries were not good because King Musinga was accused of being opposed to the missionary activities. This situation worsened with the coming of the Belgians who collaborated with the Catholic Church's authorities.

In 1931, the report of the Vice Governor General Voisin accused King Musinga of being opposed to moral, social and economic activities of the colonial administration. The King was at the same time accused of being hostile to the work of the Catholic missionaries. These attitudes brought conflicts between the King and the colonial administration, the catholic missionaries as well as Rwandan collaborators spearheaded by Kayondo, his brother-in-law.

These were the reasons which, after a lot of hesitation, forced the Belgians to take the decision to overthrow King Musinga and replace him with his son RUDAHIGWA who was then the chief of Nduga-Marangara. On 12th November 1931, Governor General Voisin announced the deposition of King Yuhi V Musinga. The king was asked to leave Nyanza royal court to Kamembe in Kinyaga. Musinga left for Kamembe on 14th November 1931. On that very date, Rudahigwa, the son of the chief of Nduga-Marangara, was proclaimed King by Vice-Governor General Voisin under the royal name of Mutara III.

King Musinga was moved from Kamembe to Moba in Democratic Republic of Congo (D.R.C.) in 1940. He spent the last bitter years of his life here, eventually dying on October 25th, 1944.

2. Socio-cultural reforms.

a) Education.

With the coming of the colonialists, itorero and other forms of traditional education in Rwanda were abolished. They were replaced with secular and religious education under the control of the missionaries. The most important skills acquired from these formal schools were reading, writing and arithmetic. This new form of education also enabled learners to acquire skills necessary to work for Belgians. Unfortunately, this did not benefit the local populace, especially the younger generation, which lost touch with their history and ancestry.

Contrary from what was expected, the shift from traditional education to the modern education did not serve to address national needs at that time. It instead provided avenues of climbing to a higher social status. Those who went through formal education came to be perceived as being of a better status than those who did not have this type of education. This divided the society rather than unite it as traditional education had done.

This type of education introduced was a monopoly of Christian missionaries and the main courses taught at the beginning were religion, arithmetic, reading and writing (Kiswahili, Germany and later French with the Belgians). Then after, programmes have been improved.

In 1925, the colonial administration had committed itself to financing education under certain conditions (subsidized education system): acceptance of administrative inspection and employing qualified teachers. From that time, primary education which was limited to a lower level was expanded. For instance, in 1925, the number of pupils was 20,000, in 1935 was 88,000 pupils and in 1945 the number had risen to 100,000 pupils in primary schools. Secondary schools started in 1912 with the creation of the minor seminary of Kansi which in 1913 was shifted to Kabgayi. In 1929, with the establishment of the Groupe Scolaire d'Astrida, secondary education grew and increased.

In 1933, the pupils of the former school for the sons of chiefs who lived at Nyanza were enrolled. Apart from Groupe Scolaire d'Astrida, there were other secondary schools which include the following:

- Teacher Training School in Save which was started and managed by the Marist Brothers.
- Teacher Training School in Zaza by Brothers of Charity.
- Teacher Training School in Ruhengeri by Brothers of Christian Instruction.
- Teacher Training School for girls at Save managed by White Sisters.
- Teacher Training School in Kigali for girls ran by the Benedictine Sisters while their auxiliary laymen ran other Training College at Muramba and Byimana.
- Teacher Training School College in Shyogwe by the Alliance of Protestants.

b) Introduction of identity cards.

Before the colonial form of identification, a Rwandan was first identified by his clan. Being Hutu, Twa or Tutsi was a mere social category. The identity cards which were introduced by the Belgians in 1935 classified Rwandans as belonging to Tutsi, Hutu and Twa. Each Rwandan had an ethnic identity card in the years that followed later. To ascertain where one belonged, those who owned ten cows or more were classified as being Tutsi. Those with less cows were classified as Hutu while Batwa were considered those Rwandan who survived on pottery activities.

Unfortunately, there were cases where some of the children belonging to the same parent could be classified both as Hutu and Tutsi. For instance, one who had cows was regarded as a Tutsi and another one without cows was regarded as Hutu, yet the two shared same biological parents.

c) Health centres.

Before the coming of colonialists in Rwanda, Rwandans used natural herbs (*imiti gakondo*) to cure various diseases such as malaria and headaches. However, colonialists phased out of local herbs and replaced them with western drugs and medicines. In collaboration with the Christian missionaries, the health sector was transformed by constructing various hospitals in different parts of the country. The medical sector was left in the hands of the Christian Missions. By 1932, the colonial administration had 2 hospitals including Kigali hospital and Astrida as well as 29 dispensaries.

From 1933, the colonial administration introduced a new policy of replacing all dispensaries with mobile “assistance camps”. All this is aimed at providing health care to the local populace in order to solve the problem of insufficient medical infrastructure. The private hospitals were put in place in Kigeme and Shyira by the Anglican Church and some others by Mining companies like hospital of Rutongo by SOMUKI and Rwinkwavu Hospital by GEORWANDA. Other hospitals set up by Christian Missionaries in different parts of the country among others included the following set up the following:

- Kabgayi and Mibilizi by the Catholic missionaries
- Kilinda by the Presbyterians
- Gahini by the Anglicans
- Ngoma-Mugonero by the Adventists.

In an attempt to increase the medical staff, a section of training of medical assistants was opened in Groupe Scolaire of Astrida and medical auxiliaries also opened at Astrida and 2 schools for Assistant Nurses at Kabgayi and in Kigali. As a result, by the end of Belgium mandate, 4 rural hospitals and more than 10 dispensaries had been built by the colonial administration.

d) Religion (Christianity).

Before the coming of the colonialists, the king was not only the head of the monarchy, but also a spiritual leader. He was considered divine and therefore held religious rituals regularly. He was thought to be a link between his people and the ancestors. Colonial agents worked against traditional religion as they considered it pagan and backward. In fact, they considered the African way of life to be that of uncivilised people.

They used this as an excuse to introduce and support Christianity over traditional religion.

Important to note is that the spread of Christianity and Christian culture benefited a lot from the 1926 colonial administrative reforms. These reforms required that to be a chief or sub-chief, one was to have at least some western education acquired from the colonial schools in Rwanda. Catholicism was the most dominant religion among other denominations like the Presbyterian, Anglican and Adventists. Churches were built across the county in places such as Zaza, Nyundo, Rwaza, Kabgayi, Kilinda, Gahini and Gitwe.



Fig. 8.4 Basilica of Kabgayi

3. Economic reforms.

Rwanda experienced a lot of transformation during the Belgian Mandate. Such had both negative and positive effects on Rwandans. Some of the economic reforms introduced in Rwanda during the Belgian Mandate include the following:

i) Forced labour policy.

During the Belgium rule, some members of a family were required to offer free compulsory labour. This was to accomplish some projects started by the colonial government in a system called the *akazi*. This labour to the government was to be offered for two days in a week of seven days. Worse still, the forced labour was given amidst cruelty and brutality from the administrators. The introduction of *akazi* made people feel that they were being punished.

The local people underwent suffering while constructing roads, churches and hospitals. This included transporting construction materials from different areas to Kabgayi Catholic Church and growing and cultivating various crops like cassava, sweet potatoes and coffee far from their homes. Locals were also required to transport European goods to places they were asked to. Sometimes, people were obliged to travel long distance to cultivate the food crops(shiku) such as cassava, sweet potatoes and cash crops like coffee. These were cultivated a way from their homes, often near the roads where colonial officials could usually pass so as to create good impression.

Due to the forced labour policy, the locals could not get enough time to work on their farms. They instead concentrated on working on coffee farms, with little or no pay. This led to a shortage in food supply. As a result, a number of famines were experienced, such as Rumanura (between 1917 and 1918), Gakwege (between 1928 and 1929) and Ruzagayura (between 1943 and 1944). These famines affected people more often than before the coming of the colonialists. It too resulted into fleeing of many Rwandese to neighbouring countries like Congo and Uganda to look for paid labour.

ii) Agriculture and animal husbandry.

The Belgians introduced cash crops such as coffee, pyrethrum, cotton and tea. Unfortunately, this was done through forced labour where labourers worked for long hours. They established agricultural research centres in various parts of the country to ensure the best harvests. These included Rubona (Southern Province), Rwerere (Western Province), and Karama (Eastern Province).

The Rubona agriculture research station was to deal with agricultural problems affecting average attitude land, Rwerere station in Gisenyi dealt with those affecting higher attitude while Karama station was for low attitude areas. Overemphasis on these crops meant that food crops were not considered as important. The result was frequent food shortages and famines. The Belgians countered food shortages by introducing cassava, maize, soya beans and Irish potatoes to try to improve food production for subsistence farmers. This was important especially because of the two droughts and subsequent famines of Rwakayihura/Rwakayondo and Ruzagayura between 1928-29 and 1943-44 respectively.

Hybrid cattle breeds were also introduced to boost the production of hides and skins for export. To support animal husbandry, research centers were set up at Nyamiyaga-Songa in the southern region, Cyeru in the northern region and Nyagatare in the eastern region. Animal health centres were

built and veterinary clinics established in rural areas to improve the local breeds by cross breeding them with exotic ones. This was to develop more productive and resistant breeds.

iii) Mining activities.

Mining activities started from 1923 with two main companies: Rwanda-Urundi Tin Mines Company (MINETAIN: Société des Mines d'Etain du Ruanda-Urundi) and Muhinga-Kigali Mining Company (SOMUKI: Société Minière de Muhinga-Kigali) in 1934. Some other mining companies such as GEORWANDA were established in 1945 while Compagnie de Recherche et d'Exploitation Minière (COREM) was established in 1948. The major minerals extracted by the mining companies were gold, cassiterite, wolfram, tin, columbotantalite and mixed minerals. These mines not only increased the volume of exports but also provided local people with employment opportunities.

iv) Taxation policy.

In a bid to increase tax revenue to finance their administration and projects, Belgians introduced poll tax in 1917. This was compulsory for all adult male Rwandans. This was to be paid in form of money. Unfortunately, the methods of collection were brutal. Tax defaulters were flogged while others were imprisoned, which made many people who were unemployed to run to the Belgians to look for jobs so as to pay taxes.

v) Trade and commerce.

In pre-colonial times, Rwanda's socio-economic activities revolved around cattle rearing, crop cultivation, ironwork, art and crafts and hunting. These activities provided the local population with products for subsistence consumption. However, surplus products were used for trade with the neighbouring communities. Like many countries in Africa, trade of goods and services was carried out in Rwanda through a barter trade where goods were exchanged for other goods.

During the colonial period, Congo, Rwanda and Burundi were placed under common Belgian protectorate from 1916 to the early 1960s. The introduction of head-tax and use of money as a medium of exchange by the Germans and Belgians respectively changed the society's socio-economic perception of wealth. Over time, trading centres started to develop. People could find agricultural products as well as crafts from such centres.

Colonial administrators established commercial centres where local and

foreign traders like Europeans and Asians could trade. Others who took part in the trade were the Belgians, Portuguese, Indians, Greeks, the Omani's and Pakistanis who operated licensed businesses. Generally, the business environment has been expanding since then, to include cross-border and international trade.

vi) Infrastructural development.

In the 1920s and 1930s, Belgians constructed roads to facilitate trade and effectively administer the colony. The first vehicle arrived in Rwanda in 1927, which led to the construction of the following three international roads:

- Bujumbura-Bugarama-Astrida-Kigali-Rwamagana-Gatsibo-Nyagatare- Kagitumba
- Bujumbura-Cyangugu-Bukavu
- Bukavu-Cyangugu-Astrida

However, European administrators generally overlooked the abuses of the officials who embezzled the taxes that were collected. They also oversaw forced labour during the construction of roads, in various mining activities and during the planting of coffee. There was also the setting up of hydro-electric power stations to produce electricity. These stations were set up as from late 1950's to supply power to developing industries. Those that were constructed include Mururu (on River Rusizi) and Ntaruka (between lakes Burera and Ruhondo).

3.1. Reforms introduced during the Trusteeship (1946-1962)

After World War II in 1945, the victorious nations created the United Nations Organisation (UNO) which replaced the League of Nations. This is because the League of Nations had failed to promote world peace. The principal mission of the UNO was to maintain peace and security in the world. By this time, Rwanda's mandate regime was replaced by the trusteeship regime, although they were all under the Belgian authority.

On 13th December 1946, the UNO and Belgium signed a Trusteeship Agreement on Rwanda. On April 29th, 1946, the Belgian Parliament approved it. The UNO's mission was to help prepare Rwanda to reach autonomy before its independence. Later on, the UNO began to visit every two years. The purpose of these missions was to hold consultations, examine together with the state holding trusteeship any petition arising from the administrated population and to assess the political situation of the countries under the trusteeship. Such missions in Rwanda were in 1948,

1951, 1954, 1957 and 1960. The UNO requested Belgium to assist her colonies for the political evolution. The trusteeship had the following general objectives:

- To maintain international peace and security.
- To help in political, economic, social and cultural development of the inhabitants of the territories under trusteeship.
- To ensure progress towards either autonomous leadership or independence.
- To promote respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all irrespective of the race, gender, language and religion.
- To ensure equal treatment in all social, economic and financial problems to all the members of the UN.

When UN mission visited Rwanda in 1948, they found that Belgians had done nothing to enable Rwanda to reach the political evolution expected. The UN left after requesting Belgium to prepare Rwandans to reach autonomy that was desired for political independence. Belgium, instead of acting as requested by the UN, introduced the *Ten-Year Plan*. This was aimed at achieving social and economic development than political development as requested by the UNO.

1. Economic reforms.

The first mission of the UNO in 1948 realised that the Belgian government had not done much in socio-economic development and recommended that more social and economic reforms be promoted. In reaction to this recommendation, the Belgian government elaborated a Ten Year social and economic development plan for Rwanda-Urundi in 1951.

i) The Ten-Year Development Plan.

The Belgian-led administration in Rwanda put in place a *Ten-Year Development Plan*, which was meant to bring about political, economic and social development in Rwanda. It also focused on providing significant financial support in public health, agriculture and education. However, this Plan had several weaknesses. These include:

- It was projected over a long period of time.
- Not all the people of Rwanda were involved in its formulation. Only the leaders were told about it while the rest of the population was ignored.

- Since the Belgian administrators who were in charge of the plan could be moved from one country to another, it was difficult for it to be effectively implemented.

The Ten-Year Development Plan resulted to notable changes in Rwanda, even if these changes were slow despite its full implementation. Under this Plan, the following was achieved:

- There was an improved access to education, although most of the learners continued to receive basic education. Numbers decreased as learners continued to advance into higher classes.
- It had a range of strategies aimed at preventing famine.
- The increasing monetarisation of the Rwandan economy enabled more people, apart from the elites, to realise the advantages and opportunities associated with business activities.
- Access to medical care also became more equitable, widely available, effective and affordable – independent of sub-group identity.
- Several projects were financed under this Plan, like the construction of schools, hospitals, dispensaries, roads and the development of marshlands and the plantation of forests. Financing of the Ten-Year Plan was in two forms, that is:
 - External financing, which the Belgians achieved by creating a “*Fonds du Bien-Etre Indigène*” with two million francs. Belgium was also committed to annual financial aid which increased from 150 million per annum in 1950 – 1951 to 560 million in 1961.
 - Financing local projects was done through increasing tax rates on cattle, subjecting polygamy taxation as well as taxing exports.

ii) ***Abolition of Ubuhake.***

On land authorities, there were considerable socio-economic reforms which were done. Among the most notable ones, there was the abolition of the socio-economic dependence system based on the cow or *ubuhake* by the royal decree of the King Mutara III Rudahigwa on 1st April 1954. The abolition of *ubuhake* was as a result of the decision of the king in agreement with the indigenous Rwandan Superior Council. The traditional patron-client relationship of *ubuhake* was a highly personalised relationship between two individuals of unequal social status. The king further argued that the clientship was an obstacle to economic development that could create disorder among the people if not stopped. This abolition had two objectives:

- To liberate the pastoral clients (*abagaragu*) who used to spend much of their time working for their patron (*shebuja*)
- To encourage private initiatives and to force cattle keepers to reduce the number of cows to manageable and profitable size.

2. Political reforms.

During the reign of the Belgian Trusteeship, there were two political reforms brought by the Belgian administrators: the establishment and creation of councils.

Establishment of councils.

The first reform of its kind was introduced on May 4th, 1947. It was the creation of a ***Conseil du Gouvernement du Ruanda-Urundi***. The Council comprised of 22 members, 5 of whom were Belgians including the Governor, 2 Resident Representatives and 2 Belgian state agents. The other 13 members were said to represent other foreigners living in Ruanda-Urundi. From 1949, the Kings of Ruanda-Urundi became members of the *Conseil du Gouvernement*. This Council was majorly meant for consultation. On March 26th, 1949, it was abolished by a Belgian royal decree and replaced with the ***Conseil Général du Ruanda-Urundi***.

Conseil Général du Ruanda-Urundi was composed of 50 members. 9 of these were high level personalities and automatic members, who included the Governor, 2 Residents, 2 kings and 4 high level Belgian functionaries. Apart from these, there were seats reserved for 4 representatives chosen by the ***Haut Conseil du Ruanda-Urundi*** from among its members, 18 representatives of expatriates and 14 members appointed by the Governor.

Another political reform initiated by the Belgians in Rwanda was because of the Decree of 14th July 1952. This was in response to the critical reports of the United National Trusteeship missions in Rwanda in 1948 and 1951. The decree led to the establishment of councils at local and country levels. They included *Conseil de sous-chefferie* (sub-chief councils), *Conseil de chefferie* (the council of chiefs), *Conseil de territoire* (the council of territory) and *Conseil Supérieur du Pays* (the superior council of the country).

The Councils established served for consultation purposes only. They did not have any power in decision making. The composition of each council was as follows:

- (a) ***Conseil de sous-chefferie*** (the Council of sub-chiefs): It was made up of a sub-chief who presided over it and 5 to 9 elected members.
- (b) ***Conseil de chefferie*** (the Council of chiefs): This was composed of

the chief himself who was its chairperson and 10 to 18 members of whom 5 were sub-chiefs elected by their peers. Others were notables elected from members of a college made up of 3 notables from sub-chiefdoms.

- (c) **Conseil du territoire** (*the territorial council*): This was made up of the head of the territory and chiefs from that territory as well as a number of sub-chiefs which had to be equal to the number of chiefs. The sub-chiefs who sat on this council were chosen by their fellow sub-chiefs from their ranks. There were also notables on the council whose number was equal to that of chiefs and sub-chiefs. The notables were elected from an electoral college composed of 3 people elected by each *conseil du territoire* from among its members.
- (d) **Conseil Supérieur du Pays** (*the high council of the state*): This was presided over by the king. It was made up of representatives of the councils of the 9 territories (Cyangugu, Astrida, Nyanza, Kigali, Kibungo, Byumba, Ruhengeri, Gisenyi and Kibuye), 6 chiefs elected by their peers, a representative elected by each council of the territory from the members who sat on it, 4 people chosen because of their understanding of the problems of the country and 4 people chosen based on their level of assimilation towards western culture.

The councils were created mainly because the trusteeship terms provided that the Belgian administration was to increase the participation of Rwandans in the administration of their country. Thus, the powers of the local government were increased although they were to be supervised by the trusteeship administration. However, the elections to the councils were to be indirect, and the chiefs were tasked to determine the outcome.

The decree also had the following effects:

- It empowered the king to make regulations in the administration of the kingdom.
- The king was also authorised to make arrangements for social and economic services and to impose communal labour in 60 days.
- The chiefs had authority to implement the decrees of the king especially communal labour and labour services for the chiefs.

The right to vote was introduced in 1954. Nevertheless, the system could hardly be described as democratic. For example, notables responsible for electing the sub-chiefdom councils – that is, the lowest level of councils – would themselves now be elected rather than nominated. Each council

would thereafter vote on the membership of the superior council of the country council as previously done. Very important to note was that only nationals were allowed to be members of these councils and they served for a period of three renewable years. The administrative structure of Rwanda after establishment of these councils by 1952 was as follows:

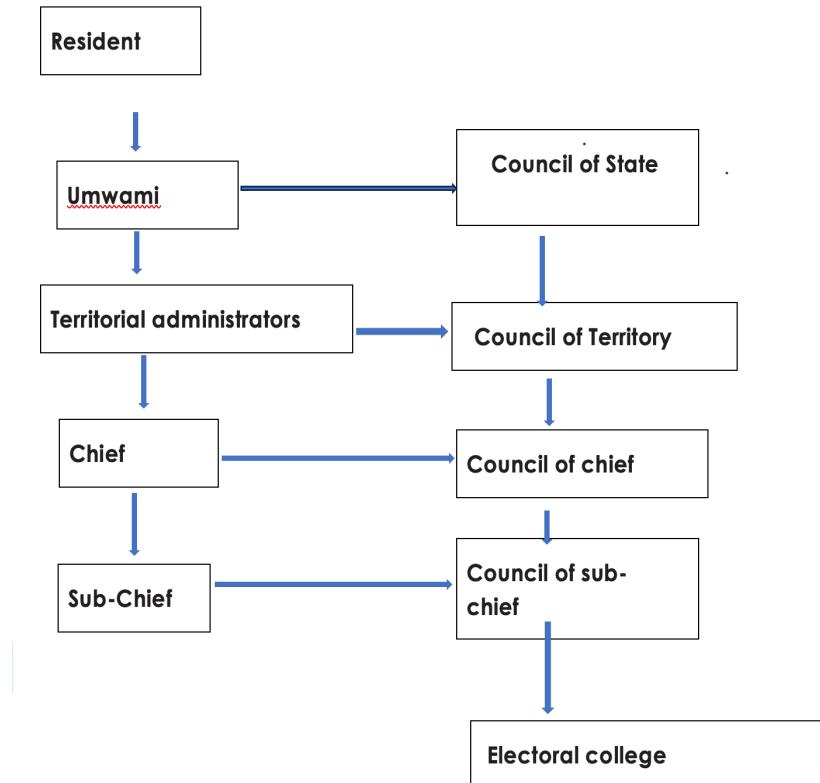


Fig 8.5: Administrative structure of Rwanda by 1952.

Suggestion: territorial administration could be under the UMWAMI, and each council would correspond or be on the same level as the administrative leader.

4. Decolonisation of Rwanda.

The Belgians applied the divide and rule system of administration. In Rwanda, they took advantage of the historic division of labour between the Hutu, Twa and Tutsi. They went ahead to incorporate the Tutsi into the ruling class. Generally, the Belgian rule was characterised by social favouritism towards the Tutsi. From the **conseil supérieur du pays**, a memorandum called **Mise au point** was made on 22nd February 1957.

This was mainly addressed to the UN Trusteeship mission to Rwanda and to the Belgian colonial administration. This document strongly questioned the colonial power. It criticised discrimination based on colour, questioned

monopoly of the missionary-led education which compromised its quality and finally demanded for increased representation of Rwandans in the political administration of their country.

More so, the ***Mise au point*** made the Belgian authorities to mobilise Hutu intellectual group (former seminalists) to write another memorandum as a counterattack which they called ***Le Manifeste des Bahutu*** (*Hutu manifesto*) or ***note sur l'aspect social du problème racial indigène au Rwanda***. It was produced on 23rd March 1957. The signatories of this memorandum included Grégoire Kayibanda, Joseph Habyarimana Gitera, Calliope Murindahabi, Maximillian Niyonzima, Munyambonera Silvestre, Ndahayo Claver, Sentama Godefroid and Sibomana Joseph among others. They were majorly opposed to a memorandum called ***Mise au point***.

In such a situation, the colonial power had successfully created a *Hutu-Tutsi conflict*, which had never been there before. Later, it became a barrier to the unity of Rwandans. This prompted King Mutara III Rudahigwa to establish a committee to study the "***Muhutu-Mututsi social problem***" on 30th March 1958. In June 1958, the *conseil supérieur du pays* produced a reaction on the report established by the committee. They pointed out that there was no Hutu-Tutsi problem that existed but a social-political problem on the level of political administration. This problem, they concluded that, was not ethnic in nature. The *conseil supérieur du pays* members moved on to demand the removal of the ethnic mention in the identity cards. The situation intensified with the creation of political parties in Rwanda competing for power. These political parties included:

- ***Union Nationale Rwandaise (UNAR)***.

The Union Nationale Rwandaise (UNAR), or Rwanda National Union Party, was officially formed on 3rd September 1959. Its President was François Rukeba. Its other leaders were Michel Rwagasana, Michel Kayihura, Pierre Mungarurire and Chrisostome Rwangombwa among others. The party was basically a nationalist, monarchist, anti-colonialist and reformist party. It was formed to demand for immediate independence of Rwanda.

- ***Rassemblement Démocratique du Rwanda (RADER)***.

Rassemblement Démocratique du Rwanda (RADER) or Rwanda Democratic Assembly, had the following members: Bwanakweli Prosper, Ndazaro Lazarus, Priest Bushayija Stanslas and Etienne Rwigemera. This Party was quite close to the colonial administration and the Catholic Church. It was also democratic and advocated for constitutional monarchy.

- **Parti du Mouvement pour l'Emancipation Hutu (PARMEHUTU).**

Parti du Mouvement pour l'Emancipation Hutu (*Movement for the Emancipation of the Hutu*) was formed in October 1959. It was officially launched as a Party on 18th October 1959 with Grégoire Kayibanda as its President. Other prominent members were Niyonzima Maximillian, Ndahayo Claver, Murindahabi Calliope, Makuza Anastase, Rwasibo Jean Baptiste and Dominique Mbonyumutwa. In the beginning, it seemed to advocate for constitutional monarchy. However, later on, it advocated for a republican state. On May 8th, 1960, while in its meeting at Gitarama, the abbreviation of **MDR** (*Mouvement Démocratique Républicain*) was adopted to PARMEHUTU.

- **Association pour la Promotion Sociale de la Masse (APROSOMA).**

APROSOMA stands for *Association pour la Promotion Sociale de la Masse* (*Association for Social Promotion of the Masses*). It was established on 1st November 1957 by Joseph Habyarimana Gitera. It was launched officially as a political party on February 15th, 1959. Its other influential members were Munyangaju Aloys, Gasigwa Germain and Nizeyimana Isidore. The day-to-day activities of APROSOMA were not far different from that of PARMEHUTU.

Besides the above national political parties, there existed other local political clubs. Some of these were:

- **AREDETWA:** This stands for *Association pour le Relèvement Démocratique de Batwa* (*Association for Democratic Elevation of Batwa*). It was founded by Laurent Munyankuge from Gitarama. This party was later absorbed by PARMEHUTU.

- **APADEC:** This stands for *Association du Parti Démocratique Chrétien* (*Association of Christian Democratic Party*). Its founder was called Augustin Rugiramasasu.

- **UMUR:** This stands for *Union des Masses Rwandaises*.
- **UNINTERCOKI:** This stands for *Union des Intérêts Communs du Kinyaga*.
- **ABAKI:** This stands for *Alliance des Bakiga*.
- **MEMOR:** This stands for *Mouvement Monarchiste Rwandais*.
- **MUR:** This stands for *Mouvement pour l'Union Rwandaise*.

The formation of these political parties led to several public political gatherings. These gatherings were followed by violence. It explains the

subsequent violence that occurred in the years that followed. From 1st to 7th November 1959, violence broke out in Gitarama against the Tutsi and the members of UNAR. This was started by the members of PARMEHUTU and APROSOMA from Byimana in Marangara. Soon, it spread to Ndiza, Gisenyi and Ruhengeri.

The origin of this violence was believed to be the attack of Dominique Mbonyumutwa, a member of PARMEHUTU, (who was the chief of Ndiza at that time). He was attacked by young UNAR members as he was leaving Catholic Church service on November 1st, 1959 (All Saints Day) at Byimana Parish, in the former prefecture of Gitarama in the present day Ruhango District. Between 7th and 10th November 1959, there was a counterattack prepared by the members of UNAR against the major leaders of PARMEHUTU and APROSOMA. These attacks had been hindered due to intervention of the *Force Publique*.

During that period, the resident representative **Preud'homme** had put Rwanda under a military occupation regime. Colonel Guy Logiest was dispatched from Stanleyville (Kisangani in Belgian Congo) and appointed commander of the military forces which were operating in Rwanda at the time on the 11th, November 1959.

This violence had various effects, which included:

- a) Houses belonging to the Hutu and Tutsi were destroyed systematically.
- b) Many Tutsi were killed, internally displaced and became refugees in neighbouring countries like in Burundi, Uganda, Tanzania and Belgian Congo.
- c) There were arbitrary arrests, imprisonments and assassinations.
- d) The twenty chiefs were dismissed, and 150 sub-chiefs replaced by the General Governor changed the title and became General Resident
- e) The sectors or sub-chiefdoms were reduced from 544 to 229. They were renamed *Communes* headed by *Bourgmestres* then communal elections were prepared.
- f) The 10 *Territoires* become *Prefectures* headed by the *Préfets* who were appointed.
- g) The High Councils of the state was dissolved and replaced by a Special Provisional Council comprising 8 members from 4 political Parties namely RADER, PARMEHUTU, UNAR and APROSOMA. This Special Provisional Council was formed on 4th February 1960 at Kigali. King Kigeli V Ndahindurwa could not hide his hostility for that council because it actually substituted his powers.

h) The chiefdoms or Districts were abolished.

From 26th to 30th July 1960, there were communal elections. The following results were realised: PARMEHUTU obtained 70.4% equivalent to 2,390 Communal Councilors, APROSOMA obtained 7.4% equivalent to 233 Communal Councilors, RADER obtained 6.6% equivalent to 206 Communal Councilors and UNAR got 1.8% which was equivalent to 56 Communal Councilors. From these elections, PARMEHUTU got 166 Bourgmasters from which 21 were from APROSOMA, 18 from APROSOMA-PARMEHUTU, 7 from RADER and 17 from different political parties.

In reference to these results, PARMEHUTU was declared the winner. In the meantime, UNAR protested against these results and so did King Kigeli V Ndahindurwa. For this reason, King Kigeli V Ndahindurwa on July 1960 was forced to go to Congo Belgian to meet the UN Secretary General and as well as to attend Congo's independence celebration. After these elections, the Belgian Minister in charge of Ruanda-Urundi issued orders stopping King Kigeli V Ndahindurwa from returning to Rwanda.



Fig 8.6: King Kigeli V Ndahindurwa:

Source: Mwima Mausoleum / Nyanza.

This made the Resident General put in place a Provisional Government on 26th October 1960. This was made up of 10 Rwanda Ministers and 9 Belgian State Secretaries. A few months later, on 28th January 1961, there was a coup at Gitarama, famously known as *Coup d'Etat de Gitarama*. During this time, a meeting took place in a marketplace in Gitarama in which about 2,900 Councilors and Bourgmestres who had been elected from PARMEHUTU and APROSOMA political parties participated.

With full support of the Belgian government, the following resolutions were reached:

- The monarchy was abolished.
- The Kingdom emblem and the royal drum (*Kalinga*) was also abolished.

- The Ubwiru institution was also abolished.
- Rwanda was officially declared a Republic.
- Mbonyumutwa Dominique was elected as the first President of the Republic.
- There was the formation of a government made up of 11 ministers with Grégoire Kayibanda as Prime Minister.
- There was to be a constitution and a judiciary based on the new state.

In February 1961, the Belgian Trusteeship confirmed that regime and transferred the power of autonomy to them. A new tri-colour flag of Red, yellow and Green was exhibited on 26th February 1961. On September 25th, 1961, legislative elections and a referendum were organised and were won by PARMEHUTU. It was declared that many voters voted "No" against the monarchy and the candidature of King Kigeli V Ndahindurwa.

On 2nd October 1961, the legislative assembly was put in place. Grégoire Kayibanda was elected the President of the Republic by the Legislative Assembly headed by Joseph Habyarimana Gitera. On 1st July 1962, Rwanda recovered its independence, and the Belgian flag was replaced by the Rwandan flag. On 31st December 2001 a new Rwandan flag was launched.



Fig. 8.7.a German colonial flag



Fig 8.7 b : The flag of Belgium



Fig 8.7 c : The flag of Rwanda at independence



Fig 8.7 d: The flag of Rwanda from 2001.



Application Activity 8.3.

1. Discuss the objectives of abolition of Ubuhake by King Mutara III Rudahigwa
2. Describe the colonial exploitation mechanisms Present the findings in class.

8.4. Effects of Belgian colonization in Rwanda



Learning Activity 8.4.

Assess the reforms made by Belgian colonial administrators between 1916-1962. Thereafter, make a presentation in class.

1. Political effects.

a) ***Change in the traditional administration.***

Belgians used indirect rule as their administrative method. With this, they undermined the traditional powers of the *Mwami* (king) and reduced his position to being ceremonial. They rejected the ancient administration of Rwanda that was based on the functions of the three chiefs at *igikingi* level. The former cattle, land and army chiefs were abolished and replaced with one chief. They reduced the powers of the king including barring him from appointing or dismissing his chiefs. Finally, King Yuhi V Musinga was deposed in 1931. This meant that the entire administration rested in the hands of Belgian administrators.

b) ***Formation of councils.***

During the Belgian administration, there was formation of councils. These

were mainly to prepare Rwandans for autonomy that was to enable them gain total independence.

c) Formation of political parties.

Belgian colonial rule led to the formation of political parties like PARMEHUTU, UNAR and RADER. These were to compete for power during the transition to democracy. However, this was not achieved at all.

2. Economic effects.

a. Improvement in agriculture.

There was transformation in crop cultivation as well as animal husbandry. For instance, they introduced new food and cash crops like cassava and coffee to solve famine and increase the volume of exports respectively. The growing of cash crops was compulsory so as to improve Belgian economy. This was followed by introduction of research centres and animal breeding centres in places such as Karama (today in Bugesera District, Eastern Province), Songa and Rubona (today in Huye District, Southern Province). These centres were meant to produce better quality seeds in food and cash crops, fast growing and drought resistant varieties as well as quality animal breeds.

However, they used forced labour (*shiku*) where people provided free labour on European gardens as well as plant coffee on their farms by law. Other cash crops introduced included cotton, tea and pyrethrum.

b. Generation of electricity.

In the field of energy, from 1958, the dams were constructed to produce hydro-electric power. These included Mururu on Rusizi River and Ntaruka HEP stations (in Burera District, Northern Province).

c. Establishment of industries.

Belgians were instrumental in the setting up of industries in Rwanda. Examples of such industries include BRALIRWA, a beer manufacturing company. After establishment, it officially started operating in 1959. In addition, the management of the Breweries of Congo and Burundi, then under the management of **Brasseries de Leopoldville** (Brewery of Kinshasa), decided to build a brewery in the Western region of Rwanda (in Rubavu District) on the northern shores of Lake Kivu.



Fig 8.8 : A section of Bralirwa Factory.

d. Introduction of commercial mining.

Mining activities started in 1930 with two main companies: Rwanda-Urundi Tin Mines Company (MINETAIN: Société des Mines d'étain du Ruanda-Urundi) and Muhinga-Kigali mining company (SOMUKI: Société Minière de Muhinga-Kigali) in 1934. Some other mining companies that were established include GEORWANDA and COREM.

e. Construction of roads.

In the 1920s and 1930s, Belgians constructed various roads to facilitate trade. However, European administrators generally overlooked the abuses of those officials who embezzled funds collected as taxes, road construction and human abuses in plantation farming.

f. Introduction of taxes.

Belgians also introduced the collection of taxes. The introduction of cash taxes instead of agricultural produce was intended to increase cultivation of coffee as a cash crop in their favour. This was very unfair because the majority were not employed and could not pay cash taxes.

g. The traditional manufacturing sector was discouraged.

Imported substitutes were encouraged hence replacing the locally produced products since they were of better quality than locally made products.



Grégoire Kayibanda, the President of the First Republic (1961–1973)

The imported goods included clothes, salt, knives and hoes. This led to poverty and suffering to local entrepreneurs.

h. Introduction of forced labour.

Many economic reforms that were introduced were implemented using the forced labour policy. However, this destroyed their aims because instead of solving the economic problems, they led to famines where the energetic people fled to the neighbouring countries to engage in paid labour.

3. Social effects.

i. Abolishment of traditional education.

The Belgian colonialists abolished traditional education through *itorero* and replaced it with colonial education. The Belgian colonial government in collaboration with missionaries established schools like GS Astrida, teacher training schools and seminaries.

ii. Establishment of health centres.

Belgians also set up health centres to take care of the people. The government hospitals established during the Belgian rule included the hospitals at Kigali, Butare, Nyanza, Kibuye, Gisenyi, Ruhengeri, Byumba, Kibungo and Rwamagana. Gishari Tuberculosis Centre was established by the Belgian colonial government in 1955.

iii. Construction of churches.

They also constructed churches in different parts of the country like in Kabgayi, Ngoma-Mugonero and Gahini. This was to facilitate the spread of Christianity.



Application Activity 8.4.

Assess the impact of Belgian colonization in Rwanda on political, social and economic aspects by using a table.

8.5. Role of Belgian administration in promoting ethnic division among Rwandans.

The Belgian administration played a significant role in the birth and growth of division in Rwanda through their colonial policies. Here are some ways in which they promoted divisionism among Rwandans:

- **Divide and rule policy:** The colonial administration implemented

policies that pitted ethnic groups against each other.

- **The use of identity cards:** In the 1930s, the Belgians introduced identity cards that specified the individual's ethnicity as either Hutu, Tutsi, or Twa. This categorization was often based on arbitrary criteria such as the number of cows a person owned. The introduction of identity cards formalized and institutionalized distinctions, making them an integral part of individuals' official identities.
- **Discrimination and segregations:** The Belgian administration implemented discriminatory policies that restricted social mobility based on ethnicity. This discrimination contributed to the formation of ethnic identities along socio-economic lines.
- **Political and administrative reforms:** the Belgian administration reforms aimed at weakening the power of the King and destroying Rwandan values

These colonial policies had lasting effects on Rwandan society, sowing the seeds of ethnic tension and division. The consequences of these policies became tragically apparent during the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi when ethnic tensions erupted into widespread violence and killing, resulting in the loss of over one million Tutsi.



Application Activity 8.5.

Write an essay on the impact of German and Belgian colonisation of Rwanda. With reasons, briefly explain worst impact of them all.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Discuss the causes of German and Belgian colonisation of Rwanda.
2. Examine the impact of German colonisation of Rwanda.
3. Give the reforms that were introduced by the Belgian colonisation of Rwanda from 1916 - 1962.
4. Explain the effects of Belgian colonisation of Rwanda.

UNIT 9

INDEPENDENT RWANDA

Key Unit Competence: To be able to explain the political, economic and socio-cultural changes during the First and Second Republics, the causes and consequences of the 1990–1994 Liberation War in Rwanda.



Introductory Activity

Do research using the internet and library to answer the following:

Describe the political situation of Rwanda at the time of its independence

Introduction

After recovering its independence, Rwanda was ruled by Grégoire Kayibanda who was the President of the First Republic (1961–1973) and Major General Juvénal Habyarimana who led the Second Republic (1973–1994). The two republics were characterised by “ethnic” and regional divisions, which compromised the development of Rwanda and led to the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. However, in the social and economic fields, the two regimes made some achievements with support from the western countries especially the colonial master Belgium, and later France.

These achievements include the building of some infrastructure such as Kanombe Airport and Butare University during the First Republic, and Amahoro Stadium, King Faisal Hospital and the construction of some roads during the Second Republic. Bad governance of the 1st and 2nd provoked the Liberation War which occurred in 1990 and lasted 4 years.

The major cause of the Liberation War was the refusal to allow the return of Rwandan refugees scattered in neighbouring countries — Uganda, Tanzania, Burundi, Zaire (now Democratic Republic of Congo), Kenya, and in other parts of the world. This war ended in 1994 when Rwanda Patriotic Front (RPF) stopped the genocide against the Tutsi.

9.1. The First Republic (1962–1973)



Learning Activity 9.1.

Analyse the major changes during the 1st Republic.

At the time of independence, Grégoire Kayibanda forced his way into political prominence and he was more than willing to use “*ethnic identities*” to access power and sow divisions to maintain his rule. Independence was recovered on July 1, 1962 and Rwanda had not a constitution at that time.

The final text of the constitution was signed on November 24th, 1962 by 40 deputies. Before that, Kayibanda had prepared a document to be used as a constitution during the “**Coup d'état** of Gitarama” of 28/1/1961 by PARMEHUTU leaders. This constitution was a pure copy of the constitution of Belgium Kingdom. But this text was never published in the Official Gazette of Ruanda-Urundi. Moreover, the colonial authority continued thereafter to dictate laws to the new authorities.

Rwanda also had a government led by a President of the Republic and a Parliament. According to the constitution, the power of the government was vested in the President of the Republic, who was at the same time Head of State.

The Parliament supervised the actions of the executive. Under the 1st Republic, three legislatures were elected respectively in 1961, 1965 and 1969 until the dissolution of Parliament following the July 5th, 1973 **Coup d'état**.

From Multipartism to de facto single-party system

The 1962 constitution devoted its article 10 to the multiparty system. However, the ruling party MDR PARMEHUTU turned itself into a “State Party” in 1965.

In order to become a single party, MDR- PARMEHUTU started eliminating other opposition political parties using diverse mechanisms including intimidation, arbitrary arrests, physical violence, often by negotiations.

Hence, after attracting some opposition leaders for instance Amandin Rugira from APROSOMA within its ranks and having killed others like Michel Rwagasana, Joseph Rutsindintwarane, Etienne Afrika, Burabyo Denis, Gisimba, Ndahiro, Mpiranyi from UNAR and Lazare Ndazaro, Prosper Bwanakweli and Callixte Kalinda from RADER, MDR-PARMEHUTU transformed itself into a single political party. After eliminating and assimilating other political parties in 1965, it was the only party which presented candidates for presidential and legislative elections.

Problems under the First Republic

Political problems

Refugees issue (refugees who had fled the country from 1959 onwards) as the first challenge faced by the first Republic. The attitude of the government of the First Republic varied with time. In 1960, the Provisional Government had shown concern and created a Ministry of State for refugees.

Before the independence of Rwanda, the problem of refugees preoccupied the Belgian Government. The delegates of UNO were present in neighbouring countries where refugees lived. According to UNAR, the Belgian Government was opposed to their repatriation. It was for this reason that Colonel Logiest, the Special Resident of Rwanda, launched campaigns for the repatriation of displaced Rwandans.

The returnees could not be given back their properties. These had been illegally seized by burgomasters and their relatives, or friends. Moreover, in 1966, President Kayibanda warned the refugees, prior to the repatriation, against claiming their properties. In 1975, President Habyarimana issued a law according to which properties abandoned by refugees became property of the state.

Refugees often attempted to return back to Rwanda but their number was always small due to the difficult conditions imposed on them for repatriation. The refugees found it difficult to access all the administrative documents required by the security services of the prefecture and commune. These included an identity card, and documents from the **asylum country**, and the UNHCR. These documents also comprised the report made by the préfet of the prefecture of residence of the repatriated person indicating the date of his or her departure from Rwanda, asylum countries, and family members. The returnee had no freedom of movement and to move from his or her commune to another, he or she had to be get permission from the “*Préfet*” of his or her prefecture.

The conditions of the displaced Tutsi and those who remained in their former regions became worse with the Inyenzi attacks. After every “Inyenzi” attack, Tutsi would be killed and survivors sought asylum outside the country. The major attacks of Inyenzi were as follows:

- The December 21st, 1961 attack which originated from Uganda, to Kinigi and targeted individuals in Ruhengeri, Kigali and Gitarama;
- In April 1962, another attack also started from Uganda and targeted the eastern parts of the country;
- From July 3rd to 4th, 1962, an attack started from Goma and included approximately 80 to 100 “Inyenzi”. Of the captured Inyenzi,

four were executed in Ruhengeri prison;

- On December 21st, 1963 in Bugesera, another Inyenzi attack started from Burundi, proceeding to Kirundo and Nemba. After some successes, the “Inyenzi” were stopped and defeated by the National Guard commanded by two Belgian officers. After the Bugesera attacks (1963–1964), President Kayibanda, in his speech at Carrefour d’Afrique on March 18th, 1963, warned the Inyenzi that “If they try to conquer Kigali by fighting, it would be the total and quick end of the Tutsi”.
- To implement Kayibanda’s speech, many Tutsi, estimated at over 20,000 were killed in Gikongoro prefecture. In the same period, Kayibanda ordered the execution of 27 leaders of UNAR and RADER who had been imprisoned in Ruhengeri prison without any form of legal procedure.
- The last main Inyenzi attacks took place in Cyangugu and Gikongoro prefectures (Bugarama in 1964, Nshili in 1966 and Bweyeye in 1966), and in Kibungo prefecture (Butama in 1966).

“Ethnicism” and regionalism

President Kayibanda’s regime was based on the ideology of his political party, PARMEHUTU. Political policies and strategies that the First Republic adopted to govern and ensure security and peace in the country were guided by the same ideology. This was reflected in the tendency of the Kayibanda regime to blame the Tutsi during major crises. In other words, the Tutsi had become the **scapegoat** because they were killed while the killers remained unpunished.

The regime of President Kayibanda started regional rivalries within PARMEHUTU itself. PARMEHUTU members from Gitarama tended to monopolise PARMEHUTU and Government positions at the expense of other regions. For instance, in the last Government formed by President Grégoire Kayibanda in 1972, there were six out of eighteen ministers originating from Gitarama. To cover up this, President Kayibanda resorted to violence against the Tutsi. Tutsi children were chased out of school, those in administrative positions were unfairly dismissed, and many were murdered.

Political crisis

MDR-PARMEHUTU internal tensions and fall

From 1963 the MDR-PARMEHUTU began to experience internal tensions. Some of these tensions concerned inter-personal rivalries and the distribution of jobs as the party organs and state structures fused. There was increasing discontent among cadres, students and individuals

with primary and secondary education. For instance, at local level, burgomasters and “préfets” faced opposition.

In October 1968, a parliamentary commission of inquiry, report on the administration of the country was rejected by the majority of Members of Parliament. This report had grave accusations against President Kayibanda himself. It accused his regime of favouritism and nepotism, intimidation, and impunity.

While debating this report, Members of Parliament were divided into two camps. Some supported the report and others opposed it. The supporters of the report were suspended from decision-making organs of the party and were even prevented from contesting the legislative elections of 1969.

Another factor that contributed to the reinforcement of regional division was the constitutional amendment, which was voted on May 18th, 1973 by the National Assembly. This amendment increased the duration of presidential terms of office from five to seven years, and allowed Grégoire Kayibanda to stand for a third term. Although, the National Assembly supported the amendment of the constitution, the country was already divided according to the two main regions: north and south; the former aiming at taking the power while the latter wanted to maintain it.

In addition, there was a failed coup attempted by Pierre Nyatanyi who was the chief cabinet minister of President Kayibanda and Muramutsa Joachim, commandant of the Kanombe unit. These two officers were from the north because the coup was interpreted as being coup of the north against the south. The two officers were imprisoned, only to be pardoned later by President Habyarimana when he took over power in the **coup d'état** of 1973.

In order to address discontent in political and military ranks that was linked to regionalism, President Kayibanda resorted to violence and ethnic cleansing of Tutsi. Many Tutsi were chased a way from their jobs and schools.

These purges, which began in February 1973, were initially provoked by students, but also encouraged or perhaps led by the administrative and political authorities. Along with PARMEHUTU, the authorities aimed at uniting the regime by defining a common enemy. Soldiers from the north (particularly Alexis Kanyarengwe, the Chief of Police from Ruhengeri) who, in turn, wished to cause a political crisis, also targeted the Tutsi population. The purges, which initially involved the posting of lists of Tutsi students and staff, asking them to leave universities and companies, later went beyond the control of the authorities. They came to bear certain demands, both social (general resentment of the rich) and regional (opposition between the south and centre of the country on the one hand, and the north on the other).

Consequently, Grégoire Kayibanda punished several dignitaries from the north by removing them from the jobs and locations associated with power. Alexis Kanyarengwe was appointed director of the Nyundo seminary and Major Nsekalije was assigned to a tea cooperative in Byumba. All the general secretaries of the government ministries were replaced, as well as nine of the ten “préfets”. It seemed the division between the south and the north was firmly established.

During the months of February – March 1973, purges were organised in schools, and in the public and private sectors of services against the Tutsi population (Mututsi mvira aha). Tutsi students designated on lists posted in all secondary schools and universities and signed ‘Mouvement des Étudiants’ ('Students' Movement') or ‘Comité du Salut Public’ ('Committee of Public Safety'), were under threat and had to flee from these institutions.

By mid-February, the movement reached the National University of Butare. It also reached private companies where employers were requested to fire their Tutsi civil servants. After the towns, this phenomenon reached the countryside. In the préfectures of Gitarama and Kibuye, the Tutsi' houses were burnt down and they were told to leave. Several hundred people were killed.

Several explanations have been given about the source of this turmoil. Though orders were transmitted through the administration, they may have originated from the entourage of Grégoire Kayibanda. According to other hypotheses, they may also have come from Alexis Kanyarengwe, the Chief of Police, who was from Ruhengeri.

Afterwards, the violence seemed to have become too difficult for the central authorities to control. The names of some of the ministers appeared on the lists drawn up in Kigali. In Gitarama, several rich Hutu traders' stores were attacked and looted, as well as the residences of some politicians, including that of Jean Baptiste Rwasibo. On March 22nd, Grégoire Kayibanda made a pacification speech and announced the creation of a ministerial commission in charge of inspecting schools.

The people who were involved in these acts of killing, looting, and burning houses, were not punished. This impunity degenerated into a kind of regional confrontation. The Hutu of the north started to resent and fight the Hutu of the central region who were said to be favoured by President Kayibanda. It was in that atmosphere that Juvenal Habyarimana, at the time Minister of Defence, decided to intervene militarily. He overthrew Kayibanda in the **Coup d'état** of 5th July 1973. Kayibanda and many dignitaries of his regime were thrown into prison; they were sentenced by a martial court, some of them to a death sentence and others to long term imprisonment.

Economic problems

After the recovery of independence, Rwanda's main offices were still in Bujumbura, the colonial capital of Ruanda-Urundi. Rwanda was under equipped. There were few infrastructures in Kigali.

The country had no airport, radio, tarmac roads, telephone system, university, or any other institution of higher education. Everything had to come through Bujumbura or Belgian Congo.

In addition to the inadequate infrastructure in Rwanda, food security was also another major problem. This was due to overcultivation, high population density, and soil erosion. To solve the problem of poverty and shortage of land, the government opened up farms in the former prefectures of Gitarama, Kibungo and Rural Kigali. The government also encouraged migration from the prefectures of Ruhengeri, Byumba, Gikongoro, and especially Butare, to the new farming areas.

Rwanda lacked adequate financial resources for the economy to function properly. It had only one development partner: Belgium. This led to financial dependence on its donors in all the sectors of the economy.

Another problem was the poor functioning of the monetary and customs union between Rwanda and Burundi.

The country was going through an extremely difficult crisis including deficits in the balance of payments, because in 1962 inflation rose to 50 per cent and by 1964, inflation had risen to 300 per cent. The Rwanda franc depreciated and agricultural and mineral production declined. This created a big decline in exports, which in return led to a big gap in foreign exchange, and the failure to pay for imports.

To address this situation, Rwanda had to ask for assistance from Western countries and from international organisations such as International Monetary Fund (IMF). The donor countries were mainly Belgium and

United States of America (USA). Belgium and IMF granted Rwanda a little more in terms of loans and USA donated food and some money to buy equipment.

Besides external assistance, the government adopted other measures to get the country out of the crisis. It took political measures which saw the government reduce expenses of all ministries, including funds **allocated** to education. Another proposed solution was the "First five year economic development plan of 1966–1971". Its objective was based on an analysis of economic and social conditions and problems that Rwanda had to face in order to sustain its economic development.



*Juvénal Habyarimana,
President of the second
republic (1973–1994)*

Achievements of the First Republic

Despite the problems faced by the country and political mismanagement under the First Republic, the country made the following achievements in the economic, education and health sectors.

Economy

Some financial institutions like banks were opened and they provided financial support to a few factories and industrial companies. The National Bank was established in January 1964, the Banque Commerciale du Rwanda in 1965, and the Banque Rwandaise de Développement in 1968.

It should be noted that in the **framework** of the Five Year Development Plan (1966–1971) it was proposed to **tarmack** all the road axes linking the country to her neighbours. In order of priority the following roads were to be **tarmacked**: Kigali–Gatuna, Kigali–Butare, Kigali–Rusumo, and Kigali–Cyanika. Besides, the construction of Kanombe airport opened the country to the outside world.

But by the end of the 1st Republic in 1973, only the Kigali–Gatuna road had been started in 1971, and it was completed in 1977. Also constructed was the Rusumo Bridge at the Akagera River linking Rwanda and Tanzania, and the bridge on river Nyabarongo (1968–1969).

About rural development, some marshlands were **reclaimed** in order to improve agricultural production. ISAR (Institut des Sciences Agronomiques du Rwanda) located at Rubona improved seeds and plants and distributed them in some parts of the country. New crops like rice were introduced.

Education

The 1st Republic made a lot of effort to provide free primary education. At independence, Rwanda had few secondary schools including *Ecole Officielle d'Astrida* in the former province of Butare, *Ecole Technique Officielle Kicukiro* in Kigali, *Collège Saint André* in Kigali, *Collège du Christ Roi* at Nyanza and Seminaries at Kabgayi, Nyundo, Rwesero and Kansi.

In 1962, there were 23 secondary schools which increased to 63 in 1972. In 1962, the budget **allocated** to education was 162,204,000 Rwf. This envelope increased to 563,194,000 Rwf in 1972. In 1962, enrolment in primary schools was 261,306 which increased to 425,000 in 1972. Enrollment for girls increased from 29 per cent 1961 to 45 per cent in 1972.

The first university was started on November 3rd, 1963 by a Canadian Priest called Levesque as the first Rector. It opened with 50 students distributed in three faculties: medicine, arts and science. The *Institut Pédagogique Nationale* was started later in 1966.

Health

The number of dispensaries increased. To address the problem of malnutrition and poor conditions of hygiene, some socio-medical centres were opened to provide sanitary or health education, training on how to avoid and prevent diseases, and skills in maternal health care.

A centre for handicapped children was built at Gatagara (Nyanza District) and a psychiatry centre for the mentally handicapped at Ndera (Gasabo District). This centre, also known as Caraes-Ndera, was run by the Gand Brothers of Charity. In preventive medicine, vaccination campaigns were initiated between 1965 and 1970.

Failures and downfall of the first Republic

Through the coup d'état of the 4th – 5th July 1963, the First Republic was at its downfall. This was caused by long standing failures that even dated from its beginning. Those are:

- **Problem of refugees:** Kayibanda regime refused to solve the problem of refugees scattered worldwide.

- **Ethnicism and regionalism:**

- Kayibanda used ethnic violence against Tutsi.
- PARMEHUTU members from Gitarama monopolized the party and the government power, excluding the northern region.

- **Economic problems:**

- Food insecurity caused by shortage of land became common.
- Lack of infrastructure and financial means to support decent standards of living,
- The poor functioning of the monetary and customs union between Rwanda and Burundi.
- There was a serious economic crisis due to deficits in balance of payments and inflation.

- **Social problems:** lack of unity among Rwandans, Tutsi were excluded from education and public service.

Discrimination against Tutsi was institutionalized;

From 1959, the population of Batutsi targeted, causing hundreds of thousands of deaths, and a population of almost two million Rwandan people were living in the diaspora for almost four decades.

The First Republic, under President Grégoire Kayibanda, institutionalized discrimination against Batutsi and periodically used massacres against the Tutsi as a means of maintaining the status quo.

In 1965 Rwanda was declared a one-party State under MDR-

PARMEHUTU, which was the architect of the racist ideology. The regime of Kayibanda did not manifest a good will to repatriate the Rwandan refugees. Instead, it used to kill the Tutsi at a very attack of Inyenzi.

In 1972, President Kayibanda met his closest friends in order to revive his sinister plan. This plan consisted of chasing Tutsi from schools and higher institutions as well as from all public and private establishments. In February 1973, the massacre of the Tutsi was organized and coordinated by Kayibanda's government.

Need for constitutional amendment

Another factor that contributed to the fall of the First Republic was the need for constitutional amendment which was voted on May 18th, 1973 by the National Assembly. This amendment increased the duration of presidential terms of office from five to seven years and allowed Grégoire Kayibanda to stand for a third term.

When it came the time of voting this report, Members of parliament were not unanimous. On the contrary, they were divided into two camps. There were those who sympathized or supported that report and these who were against it. The supporters of the report were punished by being suspended from decision making organs of the Party and were even prevented from contesting the legislative elections of 1969. To safeguard the Constitution, the senior officers of the National Army carried out a coup d'état that put to end the regime of the First Republic.

The 5th July 1973 Coup d'état

The last blow for the downfall of the First Republic was the coup d'état of 1973 carried out by 11 senior officers of the national army commanded by Major General Juvenal Habyarimana. The government of President Kayibanda was deposed and replaced by a "Committee for Peace and National Unity", until total re-establishment of peace in the country.



Application Activity 9.1.

1. List down the main five economic achievements recorded by the First Republic, from 1962 up to 1973.
2. What are the political changes happened under the First Republic in Rwanda?

What are the problems faced by the First Republic in Rwanda?

9.2.The Second Republic (1973–1994)



Learning Activity 9.2.

Analyse the major changes during the 1st Republic.

The Coup d'Etat of 1973 and its aftermath

Coup d'Etat of July 5th, 1973

In the night of July 5th, 1973, the presidential guard under the command of Major General Juvénal Habyarimana, Minister of Defense and Chief staff, staged a **coup d'état** against the regime of Grégoire Kayibanda and Major General Habyarimana took over power as president.

A group of senior military officers named “les camarades du 5 juillet” assisted Major General Juvénal Habyarimana: those are Lieutenant Colonel Alexis Kanyarengwe, Majors Aloys Nsekarije, Benda Sabin, Epimaque Ruhashya, Fabien Gahimano, Jean Nepomuscene Munyandekwe, Bonaventure Ntibitura, Laurent Serubuga, Bonaventure Buregeya and Aloys Simba.

The **coup d'état** leaders dissolved the National Assembly, suspended the 1962 constitution and abolished all political parties existing at the time, such as the organs of MDR-PARMEHUTU. They also dissolved the government and replaced it with a National Committee for Peace and Reconciliation constituted of 11 senior officers.

In its declaration of July 5th, 1973, the new regime talked about about peace and unity and denounced regionalism, immorality and corruption in the regime of Kayibanda.

After this coup d'état, the former leaders were unfairly arrested, nearly all of them from the south (Gitarama). The martial court of June 1974 sentenced to death former President Kayibanda and prominent personalities in his regime. For Kayibanda, his death sentence was acommuted to permanent detention in his residence at Kavumu, near Kabgayi, where he died on December 15th, 1976, while others were executed.

Foundation of “Mouvement Révolutionnaire National pour le Développement” (MRND)

On July 5th, 1975, Major General Juvénal Habyarimana established the MRND. Its objective was unite all Rwandans so as to enhance economic, social and cultural development in a peaceful environment.

In the 7th article, of the new constitution adopted on December 20th, 1978 by referendum, MRND was declared the sole political party where all Rwandans would participate in the management of public affairs. This marked the establishment of a one party system. All Rwandans were automatically members of MRND. The new constitution abolished the National Assembly and replaced it with Conseil National pour le Développement (CND).

With time, President Habyarimana started developing a cult of personality. This was done through mobilisation and glorification of the President and placing his political party using animation and placing his portrait everywhere in public and private surroundings. However, from 1980, MRND started falling apart. This began with two highly regarded senior military officers, Colonel Alexis Kanyarengwe and Major Théoneste Lizinde, who were accused of **plotting** a **coup d'état**. The misunderstanding divided politicians and the people who hailed from the north of the country.

Political power was from that time monopolised by a small group of people from Bushiru in the ex-commune of Karago in the current District of Nyabihu. Finally, power was in the hands of President Habyarimana, his immediate family, and his in-laws. This was known as “Akazu”, “one single household” or “inner circle”. Corruption became normal practice and some top leaders treated public offices like personal property.

Economic and socio-cultural evolution under the Second Republic

Economic evolution

Under the Second Republic, there was implementation of the “Second Five-year economic, social and cultural development plan” which lasted from 1977 to 1981.

This plan had four missions:

1. Ensuring food security of the population and reducing the population growth rate.
2. Promotion of human resources management.
3. Improvement of the social conditions of individuals and the community.
4. Improvement of the Rwanda's external relations.

The objective of this second Five Year Development Plan was the creation of more jobs, especially in the secondary sector, in order to provide young people in rural areas with opportunities to participate in the social and economic life of the country.

From 1981 to 1986, the “Third Five-Year Economic, Social and Cultural Development Plan” was also adopted with the following aims:

1. To improve food security for the population in terms of both quality and quantity.
2. To promote jobs at sustainable wage levels that cover the basic needs while emphasising training programmes in order to increase productivity.
3. To improve health conditions, promote access to shelter, and produce goods for mass consumption.
4. To develop external relations and encourage the equilibrium of international trade conditions.

In this context, the Rwandan diplomatic representation in foreign countries increased. In 1976, Rwanda was a co-founder of the Communauté Économique des Pays des Grands Lacs (CEPGL). In 1979, Rwanda hosted the sixth Franco-African conference. It was also host to the headquarters of the Akagera Organisation du Bassin de rivière Akagera (OBK). The Second Republic made a great effort in agriculture. The cash crops especially tea, coffee and pyrethrum were promoted by increasing areas cultivated and the building of factories. These include for instance the tea factories of Shagasha in present Rusizi District, Mata in present Nyaruguru District, Gisovu in present Karongi District and Nyabihu in present Nyabihu District; and that for processing pyrethrum in Ruhengeri in present Musanze District.

During this period, the Government of the Second Republic paid particular attention to food crops like maize, rice, soya beans, sugarcane. Some factories were also set up to process crops. These included the Maïserie de Mukamira in present Nyabihu District, and Sucrerie de Kabuye in present Gasabo District.

Emphasis was also put on the establishment of agricultural projects in almost all former prefectures. These included *Développement*

Global de Butare (DGB), Projet Agricole de Gitarama (PAG), Développement Rural de Byumba (DRB) and Crête Congo Nil.

In animal husbandry, the rearing of one cow in a cowshed and planting of reeds and other types of grass were prioritised. To improve the existing breeds of cows, importation of bulls, artificial insemination, research, and fighting cattle diseases were carried out.

With regards to infrastructure development, the following infrastructures were built by the Second Republic (Ministere des travaux publics, Rapport annuel 1970):

1. Tarmacking or asphalting of several roads which reached a distance of 888.5km by 1989
2. Construction of administrative offices for ministries, prefectures and communes
3. Building of schools, health centres and hospitals like King Faisal Hospital and Kigali international airport
4. Extension of electricity network
5. Construction of Amahoro Stadium



Kigali international airport (Source: <https://www.pinterest.com/pin/473159504580283660/>)



Amahoro Stadium (Source: http://stadiumdb.com/pictures/stadiums/rwa/stade_amahoro/stade_amahoro03.jpg)



King Faisal Hospital (Source: : https://constructionreviewonline.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/2020-01-16_5e208fdb44c64_IMG_20200116_173011_091.JPG)

From 1980 to 1986, the country enjoyed economic growth due to good climatic conditions, increase in the production of coffee, tea, and minerals; and a considerable amount of capital coming into the country.

However, from the end of 1986, the situation deteriorated and the economy gradually declined. The causes of the economic crisis during this period included the following;

1. The **drastic** fall of the world coffee and tin prices;
2. The devaluation of the Rwandan franc;
3. Monopolisation of the limited resources by a few political and military leaders;
4. Food shortages;
5. The demographic explosion prevailing since 1940.

To address the demographic problem, the government opened Office National de la Population (ONAPO) to deal with population growth problems.

The government applied the Structural Adjustment Programme as dictated by the World Bank and International Monetary Fund with a view to stabilising the economy and benefiting from their financial support.

Socio-cultural evolution under the Second Republic

Education

In this sector, some achievements were attained.

New primary and secondary schools were constructed and many reforms made at all levels of education.

In 1978–1979, the system of primary education was revised. The primary cycle changed from 6 to 8 years. Training in professional skills was introduced and Kinyarwanda became a language of instruction from Primary 1 up to Primary 8 (Ministere de l' Education nationale, Rapport annuel,1981).

This reform established professional schools known as Centre de l'Enseignement Rural et Artisanal Intégré (CERAL). These professional schools admitted students who had failed national secondary school examinations and they studied for three years. They learnt woodwork, electricity, masonry and plumbing. At the secondary education level, the ordinary level was reduced by one year and specialisation now started in the second year. However, this reform failed due to the following reasons:

- Lack of teaching aids
- Lack of qualified teachers in the newly introduced subjects
- Lack of appropriate evaluation methods.

In 1991, these reforms were revisited. The primary education cycle was brought back to 6 years.

At University level, the Institut Pédagogique National (IPN) was fused with some of the departments of the National University of Rwanda. The new campus of Nyakinama was opened in 1980– 1981 as a result of this fusion. The duration of study in most faculties was reduced from five to four years (Ministere de l'Education nationale, Rapport annuel,1991).

Health

Under the Second Republic, many attempts were made towards the expansion of the health sector. The dispensaries were transformed into health centres and more medical personnel trained.

The government also introduced a policy which set up nutritional centres in order to educate parents about diets and hygiene.

Another achievement in the health sector was the establishment of the Broad-based Vaccination Programme (BVP) with the objective of reducing infant mortality. In 1987, the government established the National Programme for the Fight against AIDS known as *Programme National pour la Lutte contre le Sida* (PNLS) to control, prevent, reduce and conduct research on AIDS.

In the same year, the National Programme for the Fight against Malaria *Programme National de lutte contre le Paludisme* (PNLP) was set up. In 1989, the programme for acceleration of primary health care *Programme National pour l'Accélération des Soins de Santé Primaire* (PASSP) was also introduced. It aimed to encourage participation in self-reliance and management of health services in health centres.

Failures and downfall of the second Republic

Lack of freedom of speech and press

The Second Republic was against the freedom of speech and press. This was justified by intimidation and imprisonment suffered by anyone who attempted to criticize this Regime of the Second Republic.

Economic crisis

The economic improvement was fragile towards the end of the 1970-1980. This was due to an economic crisis which became worse during 1980-1990. It was especially from 1984-1986 that the crisis exacerbated and reached its highest point during 1990-1993. For instance, In January 1990, one-sixth of the Rwandan population was affected by a famine. In 1991, Rwanda signed an agreement with the World Bank to implement a Structural Adjustment Plan (SAP) which led to the devaluation of the Rwandan franc on two occasions: its value fell by 40 percent in November 1990, then again by 15 percent in June 1992.

The imprisonment and killing of the politicians of the First Republic

Nevertheless, during the two years that followed, the former ‘barons’ of the First Republic were assassinated or imprisoned. During the following years (between 1974 and 1977), 58 people; individuals who were close to Grégoire Kayibanda and public figures of the First Republic; were

assassinated upon orders from Théoneste Lizinde, Chief of Security at the Interior Ministry. According to some sources, the repression affected up to 700 people.

Institutionalisation of ethnic and regional balance or quota system

The regime of Habyarimana coerced and aligned people behind political option within a single party system and partisan politics based on ethnic and regional segregation. The regime had created the Rukiga-Nduga conflicts which were characterized by the exclusion of Tutsi and Hutu of Nduga from schools and main posts of the direction of the country.

This deplorable exclusion highly institutionalized by the Second Republic right from 1981 was known as “ethnic and regional balance or quota system”. This policy was in fact, applied in all sectors of the National life and it constituted a serious violation of human rights. It has undermined the regime of the Second Republic significantly as the democratic forces that militated for change seriously contested it and it ended up by leading the MRND regime to its downfall in 1994.

Centralization of the power in the hands of a small group of people“Akazu”

After ten years of economic growth, the economic crisis and regional favoritism destabilized the government. Rivalry for posts increased, power struggles became fiercer, and mafia-type behavior and structures thrived. One of the main power centers was known as the Akazu and was organized around Agathe Kanziga – Juvénal Habyarimana’s wife, and her brothers.

The division of the northerners began in 1980s when two highly regarded senior military officers, colonel Alexis Kanyarengwe and Major Théoneste Lizinde were accused of plotting a coup d'état to overthrow Habyarimana. Lizinde was accused of having killed some politicians who had served in the First Republic from the Southern part of Rwanda. This misunderstanding brought about divisions among the politicians and people from the North of Rwanda. The result was that political power was now being monopolised by a small part of Northerners from Bushiru in the ex-commune of Karago. Finally, power came to be concentrated in the hands of President Habyarimana and his immediate family and the family of his in-laws. This came to be termed “AKAZU” meaning “from one single household”.

The exaggerated glorification of the personality of Habyarimana

As years went by, President Habyarimana started developing a personality cult. This was done through mobilisation and glorification of the President and his political party using animation and his portrait, which was everywhere in public and private surroundings.

Increasing of dictatorship

In addition to this cult of personality, President Habyarimana set up a dictatorship regime. Frankly speaking, before the outbreak of the liberation war, the Habyarimana regime had already become a totalitarian regime. There was a single political party the Revolutionary National Democratic Movement/*Mouvement Révolutionnaire National pour le Développement* (MRND) and all the powers were concentrated in the hands of a small group of family members of President Habyarimana. No single decision could be made whatsoever without prior approval and/or blessings of the dictator's consent.

Mismanagement of refugees' problem /Refusal of their return

The problem of refugees in Rwanda dated from 1959 with the mass killing, which was organized against the Tutsi. The two Republics differently managed this problem.

In 1973, the Second Republic put in place a joint ministerial commission of Rwanda – Uganda for the repatriation of Rwandese refugees living in Uganda. By a circular issued on 25th October 1973, the refugees had to express in writing their desire to return. The request had to be addressed to the country of origin through the High Commission for refugees and the hosting government. The refugee whose request was rejected stayed in the country of exile or looked for another.

In 1982, the regime of the Second Republic reversed decision that refugees had to settle in their countries of asylum because Rwanda was occupied to full capacity and that it did not have any more land.

This position of President Habyarimana and his Government prompted the refugees to call for an International Conference in Washington in August 1988 in which they rejected this position and reaffirmed their inalienable right to return to their homeland, and this led to the National Liberation War on October 1st, 1990. Then it is this war which put to the end of the Second Republic.



Application Activity 9.2.

1. Examine the factors which helped President Habyarimana Juvénal to consolidate his power
2. Explain the achievements of the Second Republic
3. Analyse the appointment or distribution of positions in public administration during the Second Republic. Thereafter, answer the following questions:
 - a) Which part of the country was favoured?
 - b) Which “ethnic” group dominated?

- c) Do you think this policy was good?
 - d) Discuss and criticise the rule of Habyarimana.
 - e) What do you propose should be done to avoid discrimination?
4. Explain the factors for the downfall of the second republic.

1.3 The Liberation War in Rwanda (1990–1994)



Learning Activity 9.3.

Explain in not more than ten lines different causes of the Liberation War (1990-10994)

Activity

Use the internet or other sources and read an extract of the text about the socio-economic situation of Rwandan refugees in neighbouring countries before their return to their homeland. Discuss why they wanted to come to Rwanda at any cost. Then, present your results to the class.

The long exile

The first group of refugees were registered in 1959 after the unrest marked by violence and massacres against the UNAR members, mainly Tutsi, committed by PARMEHUTU with assistance from Belgian administration. The resistance, which was organised by *Inyenzi* to return home was in vain and the refugees were desperate to recover their dignity as Rwandans. The poor conditions of living such as lack of employment and good education in host countries, made them think of a strategy to return home. Groups started to form around the themes of return and self-help. Among the institutions set up to address the challenges of education were the Rwandese Refugees Welfare Foundation (RRWF) in Uganda and College Saint Albert in Kivu and Bujumbura. Later these institutions provided a large number of leaders to political movements like the Rwandese Alliance of National Unity (RANU), which was started in Nairobi in June 1979, and RPF-Inkotanyi in 1987.

RANU had many objectives. It aimed at fighting against ethnic divisions and the ideology of divisionism by the Kigali regime. It also sought to fight against grabbing Rwanda's riches by a small group of people. The other objective was to sensitise Rwandans about their rights. RANU wanted to find an appropriate solution to the refugee problem and to fight the fascist and dictatorial regime of Kigali. The strategy consisted of uniting all Rwandan intellectuals inside the country and in the diaspora in order to restore national unity.

The refusal to allow Rwandan refugees to return home

In June 1986, the Central Committee of MRND examined the problem of Rwandan refugees scattered around the world, especially in the neighbouring countries such as Burundi, Uganda Kenya, Tanzania and Zaire (now DRC).

Unfortunately, the Central Committee of MRND resolved that Rwandan refugees could not massively return into the country. The committee strongly advocated that refugees should find a way of integrating themselves into their respective countries of asylum.

The argument was that the country was overpopulated and incapable of receiving and accommodating her own people. Habyarimana himself declared that Rwanda was like a glass full of water to which one could not add a drop. He added that “a child of a refugee should not be called a refugee” and so he started negotiations in February 1989.

According to the Habyarimana regime Rwandan refugees were declared economic refugees who were to remain wherever they were and earning their living. They were not supposed to dream of returning to home.

“Ethnic” and regional division

Both the First and the Second Republics institutionalised ethnic labels (Hutu, Tutsi, Twa) in identity cards and the quota system (“ethnic” and regional equilibrium) administration, schools, the army, etc.

During the First Republic, power was in the hands of a few people from some communes of Gitarama and again a few people from some parts of the former Ruhengeri and Gisenyi prefectures during the Second Republic. Both Republics were characterised by identity ideology.

The two regimes reinforced the conflict between Nduga people in the central and southern part of the country and Rukiga people in the northern and western part of the country by monopolising and excluding many parts of the country. During these regimes, hatred against Tutsi worsened.

Every political crisis was blamed on Tutsi who were treated as **scapegoats**. This case was raised when Inyenzi attacked Rwanda in 1963 and later before the 1973 Habyarimana's coup d'Etat.

Intimidation and killing of opposition politicians

The regime of Juvénal Habyarimana did not tolerate any opposition. Any person who tried to oppose him suffered long prison terms. Political assassinations were frequent as well. For instance, the murder of the former chief editor of Kinyamateka newspaper, Father Sylvio Sindambiwe and Nyiramutarambirwa Felicula, a member of parliament.

Increasing dictatorship in Rwanda

During the Second Republic, only one political Party, MRND, was allowed as it was stipulated by the 1978 constitution. All the powers were concentrated in the hands of a small group —members of the President's family and his in-laws which was called *Akazu*. No single decision could be made without prior approval and blessing of the President and his MRND.

Participation of Rwandans in other movements of National Liberation

Many Rwandan refugees had lost hope and were reluctant to join any political organisation due to past failures of the earlier attempts to regain their home country, spearheaded by *Inyenzi*.

By 1979, some Rwandans, like Fred Gisa Rwigema, had participated in African struggles, especially in Mozambique. In 1982, when the government of Uganda under President Milton Obote expelled more than 60,000 Rwandans, the government of Rwanda refused to recognise them as Rwandans.

For them, there was no magic formula for a solution to their country's problems. The victory showed that a successful liberation war was possible in Rwanda.

The Military option

The military option was dictated by the denial of fundamental rights and democracy by the Habyarimana regime which was denounced by the population. Students abroad were also organising themselves to challenge the Habyarimana regime. Those on scholarships in Europe and Canada, formed organisations such as *Association Générale des Etudiants Rwandais (AGER)* and *Association des Etudiants Rwandais au Burundi(AERB)*. The refugees resented their continued exile and the indifference of the Rwanda government towards their **plight**. All this made the military option inevitable for the Rwanda Patriotic Front (RPF). On September 30th, 1990, the Rwanda Patriotic Front (RPF) with its military wing, Rwanda Patriotic Army (RPA), took a decision to attack Rwanda and assembled them near Kagitumba. On October 1st, 1990, the first attack was launched.

The reasons for the war, as summarised in the RPF programme, were: to restore national unity among Rwandans, establish true democracy eradicate racism against the Tutsi and sectarianism of the Kigali regime, poor management of state affairs, and to find a lasting solution to the question of refugees to which the Rwandan government had turned a deaf ear.

the ceasefire was a mere piece of paper—rubbish—and thanked the Interahamwe killer militia of his MRND Party for the massacres they had committed, especially in the northern part of the country. This growing insecurity was one of the ways used by the Habyarimana regime to block the implementation of the Arusha Peace Agreement.

- On February 8th, 1993, in response to those massacres, the RPF launched an offensive that resulted in the capture of a large part of the country, especially in the northern region. The RPF were approaching the gates of Kigali. But due to international pressure to resume negotiations, the RPF returned to its former positions around Kinshira. On the side of government, troops had to remain in the new positions. The area between the two armies was declared a demilitarised zone.
- On August 4th, 1993, the Arusha Agreement was signed. It was a political compromise for power sharing between the Government and the RPF, but the Broad-based Transitional Government' failed to take off because Habyarimana refused to swear in the new government and Parliament of which RPF was to be part.
- In December 1993, a United Nations Intervention Force arrived. It was a United Nations Peacekeeping Force known as United Nations Mission for Rwanda (Unamir). Its mission was to supervise the implementation of the Arusha agreement of August 4th, 1993.
- On December 28th, 1993, 600 soldiers of the Third battalion of the RPF arrived at the Conseil National de Développement (CND) to ensure the security of the RPF future ministers and Members of parliament in the new broad-based transition Government.
- On January 5th, 1994, President Habyarimana was sworn in as President in accordance with the Arusha Agreement but blocked the swearing in of other members of the Broad-based Transition Government.
- From April 7th 1994, the country was ignited in several weeks of intense and systematic genocidal massacres, in which over one million Tutsi perished. It was the Rwanda Patriotic Front which stopped genocide.
- On July 19th, 1994 the Government of National Unity was formed.

The effects of the Liberation War

The Liberation War was launched on the 1st October 1990 by RPF- Inkotanyi and its armed wing, the Rwandese Patriotic Army (RPA) and ended on July 4th, 1994 with the fall of Kigali and Butare. It had the following effects:

- **Death of Major General Fred Rwigema**

The first effect was the death of Major General Fred Gisa Rwigema the chairman of RPF and the supreme commander of RPA. This death was a great loss for RPF.

- **Death of other Rwandans**

Many soldiers were killed on both sides and others were wounded. There was also the massacre of "Abagogwe" "people from 1991 to 1993 by Habyarimana regime in retaliation for RPA attack. Similar killings were carried out in Kibirira, Bugesera, Kibuye, Murambi and in Umutara.

- **Displacement, loss of property and psychological effects**

There was displacement of people from their properties, trauma, and destruction of properties.

- **Reaction of Rwandans**

For those in exile, they felt time had come to return home and massively joined the RPF and the struggle as the war progressed. Mobilisation to support the war effort was deepened in the region, and recruitment into the RPF was intensified. A lot of money, medicine, food, and clothes were mobilised in support of the war.

Inside Rwanda, there were mixed reactions. Some people, mainly sympathisers of the RPF who had been treated as second class citizens, felt time had come for their rescue and joined the struggle from neighbouring countries while others were worried about the reaction of the Habyarimana regime.

- **Call by the Government of Rwanda for support**

Its allies supported the government of Rwanda. Habyarimana argued that he had been invaded by neighbouring Anglophone Uganda and mobilised his closest allies to assist him militarily and diplomatically. Consequently, France, Belgium and the then Zaire (now DRC) under Mobutu Sese Seko sent troops.

- **Increasing of pressure for democratisation**

While the Habyarimana regime was facing the armed struggle with RPF-Inkotanyi on the local fronts, on the international level, Habyarimana was facing pressure to democratise Rwanda (**La Baule summit**). The regime also faced internal opposition. In June 1991, Habyarimana was forced to accept the multiparty system by signing a new constitution.

Chronology of Rwanda's democratisation process

- a) In June 1990, at the La Baule **Summit** in France President François Mitterrand announced that French aid would depend on democratisation.

- b) On July 5th, 1990, at the MRND congress, President Habyarimana declared that the country was adopting the multiparty system.
On September 1st, 1990, there was a declaration by thirty three intellectuals claiming the establishment of multipartism in Rwanda.
- c) On September 21st, 1990, President Habyarimana established a commission with the task of studying how multipartism could be established in Rwanda. This commission ended its work and submitted its report in January 1991. Meanwhile, on November 11th, 1990, President Habyarimana allowed multipartism and declared the amendment of the Rwandan constitution. In June 1991, the *Conseil National de Développement* (CND) approved the new constitution. The new constitution banned political parties based on ethnicity or regional affiliation, the position of prime ministership, and limited the executive, judicial and legislative branches of government.
- d) Beginning July 1991, new political parties were legally registered. These included *Parti Socialiste Démocratique* (PSD), *Parti Libéral* (PL), *Mouvement Démocratique Républicain* (MDR), *Parti Socialiste Rwandais* (PSR), *Union Démocratique du Peuple Rwandais* (UDPR), *Parti Ecologiste* (PECO), and *Parti pour la Démocratie Islamique* (PDI).

- **The signing of Arusha Peace Agreement**

The Liberation War led to the signing of Arusha Peace Agreement on August 4th, 1993 whose purpose was to obtain a lasting peace. Both parties, the RPF-Inkotanyi and the Rwanda Government agreed to share power. However, the Hutu extremists, who felt left out of the process and threatened by the results, were not satisfied and started to organise a genocide against the Tutsi and killing of moderate Hutu.

- **Decline of the economy**

Because of the war and the pressure on the Habyarimana regime, Rwanda's economy collapsed. Coffee, which was the main source of foreign currency, was not produced. Thus, the country witnessed a hard economic situation. Besides, foreign aid stopped and the Rwandan franc lost its value. The main sectors of the economy collapsed. People became poor and discontented. Because of the war, the Northern corridor was closed and this led to the stoppage of commercial exchange with Uganda. Moreover, the war increased the military expenditure of the government and this made the country more and more impoverished.

- **Displacement of many people**

More than one million Rwandans were displaced inside the country. These were in great need of shelter, food and other basic needs.

Among the positive effects of the Liberation War, the following deserve to be mentioned:

- There is promotion of National unity. Thanks to the Liberation War, many achievements were made in the national unity, justice, peace and security, and ending of segregation.
- Corruption, favouritism, embezzlement are being fought.
- All reasons for fleeing the country were eliminated and the refugees are encouraged to return home.
- The war helped to establish a true democracy. The people of Rwanda have the right to choose their leaders at all levels.
- The war contributed to the improvement of the image of the country. Rwandans are well-known all over the world as a good example of reconciliation, people living together on the same land, victims and criminals, after the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.
- The country promoted international relations based on mutual respect, cooperation and mutual economic exchange. This helped the country to reduce economic and political dependence on foreign countries.



Application Activity 9.3.

5. Describe the people's reactions toward the 1990-1994 the Liberation War in Rwanda.
6. Describe the life of a refugee and try to find out his feelings
7. Show how the First and Second Republic imposed difficult conditions for individual repatriation of the Rwandan refugees.
8. To what extent did the "ethnic" and regional divisions contributed to the outbreak of the Liberation War?
9. On one page, explain the consequences of the 1990-1994 Liberation War.

Unit summary

This unit covers the major political and socio-economic changes which happened during the First and the Second Republics. In the political field the First and the Second Republics were characterised by ethnic and regional divisions. The two discriminatory ideologies led to disunity, hence the lack of social cohesion. However, the two regimes made some achievements such as the setting up of transport, education and health infrastructures, and promotion of agriculture and industries.

The divisive ideology of the two regimes led to the outbreak of the Liberation War which lasted almost four years from 1990 to 1994, and the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. The causes of the Liberation War were for instance, the long exile of the Rwandan refugees, ethnic and regional divisions, and dictatorship. As a result of the Liberation War, Rwandans enjoy national unity, rule of law and good governance.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. What political system was used by Rwandans before independence?
2. What political system was adopted after independence?
3. Name four ways used by Kayibanda to eliminate opposition.
4. Give four reasons for the fall of the First Republic.
5. Justify the factors supporting the attack of RPF Inkotanyi on October 1, 1990.
6. Choose three main causes of the Liberation War and explain why they are important to you.
7. Write two short essays (not more than 750 words) evaluating the Liberation War (1990-1994)

Glossary

Allocate:	distribute according to a plan or set apart for a special purpose
Asylum country:	a country which offers shelter to someone escaping from danger or hardship
Coup d'état:	a sudden and decisive change of government illegally or by force
Drastic:	extreme, rigorous or far reaching.
Framework:	a structure designed to support something or system
Tarmac:	seal the surface of an area with tarmac (a paving material of tar and broken stone; mixed in a factory and shaped during paving or a paved surface having compressed layers of broken rocks held together with tar)
Plight:	a situation which is dangerous, difficult, unpleasant or trying
Plot:	a secret scheme to do something (especially something underhand or illegal)
Reclaim:	make useful again; transform from a useless or uncultivated state e.g. “The people reclaimed the marshes”
Scapegoat:	someone who is blamed for the errors of others
Summit:	a meeting of heads of governments

UNIT 10

CAUSES AND COURSE OF THE 1994 GENOCIDE AGAINST THE TUTSI

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to describe the causes, course, features and effects of 1994 genocide against the Tutsi.



Introductory Activity

Using different resources such as films, internet, textbooks, discuss the historical factors that contributed to disunity among Rwandans.

Introduction.

Genocide is the mass and systematic killing of innocent people based on their tribe, race, religion, political ideas, among other reasons, with an intention of completely wiping them out. The 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi was the mass killing of innocent Tutsi civilians targeting to exterminate them all. The 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi was a long-planned campaign of mass murder in Rwanda. It occurred over a period of 100 days started from 7th April to July 3rd, 1994. It was the fastest and cruellest genocide ever recorded in the history of humanity.

Throughout the pre-colonial period, the Rwandans were one people who spoke the same language and lived together in harmony. When the Belgian colonisers arrived in 1916, they treated the Hutu and the Tutsi as separate groups. The colonial power further polarized the groups by classifying Rwandans into ethnic groups and making it obligatory for them to carry ethnic identity cards classifying people according to their ethnicity. They promoted ethnic division among Rwandans.

After independence, the newly established political regime (1st and 2nd Republics) actively engaged in anti-Tutsi propaganda. This was marked by the exclusion of the Tutsi from the political sphere and massive violations of human rights. Hundreds of thousands of Tutsi were sporadically killed during a series of massacres that were culminated eventually in the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. In this genocide, more than one million Tutsi were killed for the sole reason of being Tutsi and politicians moderate Hutu who refused to support the ideas and actions of the Genocide against the Tutsi.

10.1. Causes of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi



Learning Activity 10.1.

- i. In Senior one, we studied about the Genocide and its features. Explain the meaning of the term “genocide”.
- ii. Visit the library and carry out research on the causes of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. Look for more information from the Internet where necessary. Present your findings in class.

Let us discuss how the colonial administration, both first and second republics planted the seeds that resulted into the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi:

a) Division ideology by colonialists.

Division ideology has its roots from the colonial era. This was because both the Belgians and Germans supported and collaborated with the Tutsi in administration of the country. In addition to that, Germans and Belgians treated Rwandans as belonging to different social categories that is Tutsi, Hutu and Twa. In addition, in the 1930s, the Belgian administration introduced identity cards (ibuku) that specified the individual's ethnicity as either Hutu, Tutsi, or Twa.

b) Bad leadership during the 1st Republic (1962-1973).

The president of the first Republic of Rwanda Gregoire Kayibanda promoted ethnic division between Rwandans as follows:

- He practised divisive and exclusive politics based on social categories in schools and in administration.
- He maintained the ethnic identity cards indicating a person as being Tutsi, Hutu or Twa. He promoted hatred and disharmony between the Hutu and Tutsi.
- The Tutsi who fled their country during and after 1959 Tutsi massacres, were not allowed to return back in their own country. They started to organize themselves under the name of 'INYENZI' in order to attack so that they may come back to their own country. The major attacks occurred in 1961, 1962, 1963 and in 1966. The conditions of the displaced Tutsi and those who remained in their former regions became worse during the time of Inyenzi attacks. After every "Inyenzi" attack, Tutsi would be killed, and survivors sought asylum outside the country. Even the retunees had not right to their properties.

- After the Bugesera attacks (1963–1964), President Kayibanda, in his speech at Carrefour d'Afrique on March 18th, 1963, warned the Inyenzi where he said that "*If they try to conquer Kigali by fighting, it would be the total and quick end of the Tutsi in Rwanda*".

c) Bad leadership during the 2nd Republic (1973-1994)

On 5th July 1973, Major General Juvenal Habyarimana staged a coup d'état against the regime of Gregoire Kayibanda and took over power as president. In its declaration of July 5th, 1973, the new regime talked about peace and unity and denounced regionalism, immorality, and corruption in the regime of Kayibanda. But instead of uniting Rwandans, he also promoted regional and ethnic division as follows:

- Institutionalisation of ethnic and regional balance or quota system**

The regime of Habyarimana coerced and aligned people behind political option within a single party system and partisan politics based on ethnic and regional segregation. The regime had created the Rukiga-Nduga conflicts which were characterized by the exclusion of Tutsi and Hutu of Nduga from schools and main posts of the direction of the country. This was known as "**ethnic and regional balance or quota system**". The Tutsi were discriminated against, to a point where the Hutu were discouraged from marrying a Tutsi.

- The culture of impunity.**

During the Habyarimana regime, criminals who committed crimes against humanity were rewarded by being promoted to important administrative positions instead of being punished. Corruption, favouritism, cheating, embezzlement, and diversion of public funds were common under both the 1st and 2nd Republics. The criminals went unpunished. In cases of massive killing of the Tutsi, the criminals were congratulated instead of being punished or trailed. Therefore, laws had loopholes and cases were judged in favour of Hutu. This increased the killing of the Tutsi.

- The role of local media.**

The media played a key role in aiding the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. The call to murder all Tutsi men, women and children was broadcasted over radio stations in Rwanda. Various newspapers, magazines and television stations also called for and supported the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. Examples are the *Kangura* and *Umurwanshyaka*, *La Medaille Nyiramacibili*, *Zirikana*, *Isibo* magazines, the government owned Radio Rwanda and RTLM (*Radio Télévision Libre des Mille Collines*) radio and television stations.

The Kangura Newspaper for instance carried news that portrayed false ideology of ‘Hutu Majority’ and ‘Tutsi Minority.’ It claimed that all Tutsi were dangerous, and their intention was to clear the Hutu. It advised that the Tutsi needed to be dealt with before they launched their attacks on Hutu. In other publications, the newspaper negatively portrayed opponents of the government as traitors working with the RPF.

The media also downplayed the state-sponsored violence against innocent civilians that was being carried out under the guise of security. It also coordinated and mobilised killings as well as ensuring that the plans of extermination were fully executed.

- **Greed for power by the members of Akazu.**

Most members of the Akazu, who mostly originated from Gisenyi prefecture (current Rubavu and Nyabihu Districts) wanted to keep on the rule over the country. They formed the inner circle of government called “**Akazu/the clique**” and were close friends to Juvenal Habyarimana’s wife Agathe Kanziga. To achieve this, they took the responsibility of eliminating the Tutsi of whom they considered as an obstacle to their intentions. They prepared and executed the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.



Application Activity 10.1.

1. Use the internet or resource person to find out the roles of various extremist mass medias in disseminating of hate messages during the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi in Rwanda.
2. Present your findings to the class.

10.2. Course of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi (planning and execution)



Learning Activity 10.2.

With the help of a resource person and textbooks from the library, find out how the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi was planned. Thereafter, will make a presentation in class.

➤ Planning of 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi

The following are the key highlights of planning the 1994 Genocide against Tutsi:

i. Massacres of Tutsi even before 1994.

- Tutsi were massacred in 1959, in 1962, and in 1963 Tutsi were killed again and were once again exiled in neighboring countries as it happened in 1959.
- In 1973, other Tutsi massacres were organised by the government of the 1st Republic using the Rwandan students forming what they called Public Salvation Committee (Comité du Salut Public) recruited from secondary schools and national university of Rwanda (NUR). These massacres targeted Tutsi intellectuals.
- Repeated massacres targeting Tutsi were committed between 1991 and 1994. For example, in 1991, Tutsi were killed in various communes of former Gisenyi, Byumba, Ruhengeri, Bugesera, Kibungo, Kibuye prefectures mentioned but a few. The night of March 4 to 5, 1992 was marked by the massacre of more than 500 Tutsi in Bugesera, and killings continued in the following years.

In general, Between October 1990 and April 1994, the Rwandan genocidal Government with its armed forces and armed groups also carried out many massacres in various parts of the country where they were organized by senior political and military officials for instance: Kibirira (October 1990), Killing of Bagogwe in Mutara and Ruhengeri (February 1991), Bugesera (March 1992), Kibuye (August 1992), Shyorongi (October 1992), Gisenyi, Ruhengeri and Kibuye (December-January 1993), Mbogo in Kigali Ngali (March 1, 1993) and many other areas around the country.

ii. The launch of the extremist CDR Party in 1992.

The extremist party which has proclaimed itself Coalition for the Defense of the Republic (CDR) has played a big role in genocidal propaganda, whether in its preparation, whether by calling on the Hutu to join forces in order to exterminate the Tutsi.

iii. Creation of civilian militia.

Militias comprised of organised groups, armed individuals and army troops such as Garde présidentielle, Interahamwe militias of MRND and impuzamugambi militias of CDR. These were trained and served as a complementary force to Rwandan army to ensure that all enemies were killed.

iv. Distribution of weapons to fight those opposing Habyarimana's regime:

In 1992, president Habyarimana ordered that strong youth (interahamwe) from MRND should be selected and equipped with guns and trainings to counter those from the opposition and those he called Inkotanyi accomplices (ibyitso).

v. Foundation of newspapers and RTLM.

The newspapers such as Kangura, Kamarampaka, La Médaille Nyiramacibiri, Echos des Mille Collines, Umurwanashyaka and RTLM (Radio Television Libre des Mille collines) are among the media that fanned hate propaganda and the incitement of Hutu population to commit genocide.

vi. The Habyarimana Government eliminated those who were opposed to his Tutsi extermination plan.

Planning the genocide went hand in hand with silencing anyone who might stand in the way. Many of them were murdered, others were thrown in jail, especially journalists who revealed the truth, for example Kameya André, the editor of the newspaper Rwanda Rushya

vii. Use of a hateful language.

For example, the 9th of January 1993 is a date that should never be forgotten in the history of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. On this date, in Arusha Tanzania, a part of the Arusha peace agreement regarding power-sharing had been signed. Col Théoneste Bagosora who was part of the talks but not convinced with the resolutions, infuriated, got out of the room saying: “I am returning home to prepare for a 2nd apocalypse for Tutsi.”

viii. Identification of the enemy.

The enemy to be eliminated was any Tutsi within the country. Enemies also included moderate Hutu leaders who were against ethnic division ideology. The tutsi were named different names such as cockroaches and snakes.

ix. The purchasing of machetes used during the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.

In February 1994 a representative of CHILLINGTON, a manufacturing company which makes machetes among other things, reported that the company sold more machetes in one month than it had sold throughout the year 1993.

x. Preparation and establishment of lists.

As part of the conspiracy to exterminate the Tutsi, civilian and military authorities and militia prepared lists of persons to be eliminated. This was done by establishing a list of the people to kill especially the Tutsi. It also included politicians, intellectuals, businessmen and ordinary people in Kigali and elsewhere in the country. As early as in October 1990, lists were used for arrests.

xi. Setting up roadblocks, day and night patrols.

Day and night patrols (Amarondo), roadblocks (bariyeri) were set up in different corners of the country to prevent any Tutsi attempt to escape. Every adult Rwandan male was obliged to make night patrols and to go on roadblocks. During 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, each person passing the roadblock was required to show the national identity card, which included ethnic groups and any with Tutsi cards were killed immediately by interahamwe and impuzamugambi militias.

➤ Execution of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.

It should be noted that no genocidal action could take place without the involvement of the government. This is why the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi was a long process, having roots in colonial period. It had been set into motion by the governments of the 1st and 2nd Republics of Rwanda.

The 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi began on 7th April 1994. Soon afterwards, there was incitement from the local media and *genocidaires*, soldiers of the presidential guards and *Interahamwe* militias. They started systematic elimination of the Tutsi and Hutu politicians in opposition. The killings started in Kigali and immediately the genocide spread across the whole country, and this is a proof that the Rwandan genocidal government had planned the extermination of Tutsi. Within 100 days, over 1,000,000 Tutsi civilians perished.

From 7th to 11th April 1994, acts of great horror had spread throughout the entire country except in former Gitarama and Butare Prefectures. In an effort to kill politicians who did not support Habyarimana's government and who did not support the Genocide plot, on April 07, 1994, the Prime Minister, Mrs. Agathe Uwilingiyimana, 10 Belgian UN Peacekeeping soldiers, several ministers, opposition political leaders, business people and civil servants in Kigali City were assassinated.

Different meetings were held at the High Command of the F.A.R (Forces Armées Rwandaise) which resulted into the formation of the interim genocidal government termed Abatabazi "Saviours government" on 9th April 1994, where Dr Sindikubwabo Theodore was nominated as the President of the Republic and Kambanda Jean as Prime Minister. Their government was composed of ministers most of whom belonged to extremist wing of political parties that had accepted to be part of the coalition.

That government had only one mission: to coordinate the implementation of the Genocide countrywide, to distribute arms, to mobilize people to commit Genocide and to explain what was happening to the international

community. On 12th April 1994, the interim government left the capital of Kigali following the advance of the RPF-Inkotanyi and settled in former Gitarama (Muhanga District) at Murambi.

On 18th April, 1994, members of the criminal regime, including Edouard Karemera, who was supposed to be the Minister of internal administration, went to the former Gitarama to incite people to commit Genocide. On the same day, President Théodore Sindikubwabo went to former Gikongoro to hold meeting with the authorities of Gikongoro prefecture, in order to plan how the Genocide should be carried out. From Gikongoro, Sindikubwabo went to the Nyakizu (Butare) Commune office to encourage the killers to start the Genocide. Such acts of inciting people to carry out Genocide were carried out in public by Sindikubwabo to the people mobilized by the communal authorities to meet with the president.

On 19th April 1994, John Kambanda went to Gitarama and incite people to commit genocide. April 21, 1994, was the day when many Tutsi were killed simultaneously in the country. More than 50,000 Tutsi were killed in Murambi (Nyamagabe, Gikongoro), more than 35,000 were killed in Cyanika Catholic Parish in Nyamagabe, and more than 47,000 were killed in Kaduha Catholic Parish in Nyamagabe.

As part of extermination of the surviving Tutsi, the Government meeting of June 17, 1994, decided that the Tutsi of Bisesero, who had been fighting the killers for more than two months, should be killed as soon as possible. The execution of that massacre was speeded up as much as possible by the Kambanda Government and its soldiers. More than 2,000 surviving Tutsi in Bisesero were killed in front of French soldiers who were camping in Gishyita region, and the French did nothing to help them. And we should note that the killings took place all over Rwanda. At the beginning, the militias in small groups killed the victims in their homes and along roadblocks.

However, later on, the Tutsi began to escape and look for safe places in public offices, commune offices, hospitals, stadiums, schools and churches. Even in these places, they would still attack and kill them. Generally, there were no safe places to hide.

Finally, it should be said and registered that it was the RPF which stopped the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi on 4th July 1994 everywhere they scored victory over the genocidal forces. In 2000, the Ministry of local government conducted a study to identify the victims of the genocide against the Tutsi and published in 2002. According to the study, the genocide against the Tutsi killed more than **1,047,017 people**.

➤ **Actors of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.**

The 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi in Rwanda had different categories of actors: organisers, executors, and accomplices of killers.

- **Government of Rwanda under President Habyarimana:** As the main organiser, it holds the core responsibility of having neither forbidden nor punished violence against one part of its population. It provided financial, materials and moral support to the executors. It had used all means to encourage the killings through the sectarian education and government owned media.
- **Militias:** These were paramilitary groups of people formed and trained for civil defense of the country by 1990s. Groups like *Interahamwe* and *Impuzamugambi* were used to echo hatred, suspicion and division against the Tutsi as the Liberation War was on-going. The propaganda recalled many differences between Hutu and Tutsi, prejudices, and other kinds of stereotypes against the Tutsi.
- **Forces of Garde présidentielle (Republican Guards):** They actively participated in the killings all over the country from the beginning of 1994 Genocide against Tutsi up to the stopping of Genocide by the RPF Inkotanyi.
- **Civil servants and the military:** These include commune police, prefecture and commune civil servants as well as the army (Forces armées Rwandaises). They organised militias and Hutu citizens to track and kill the victims hiding in many places including hills, churches and houses.
- **Local actors:** These included businessmen, MRND local representatives and local opinion leaders (such as teachers and entrepreneurs). They worked hand in hand with local authorities to implement government directives and to execute the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.
- **Citizens:** They played the role of being observers, executors and accomplices to the killing of innocent relatives, brothers, sisters, colleagues and friends. The targeted group to be exterminated was the Tutsi population without any distinction of age, religion, region and sex.

Note: One could assert that among all these categories, there were a few numbers that were reluctant to act as they were expected. Some accepted to die instead of killing their brothers, sisters, neighbours and friends while others used all means to save those who were being killed by providing them refuge or helping them escape the danger before RPF forces arrived. Some testimonies of genocide survivors proved this fact.



Application Activity 10.2.

1. Use the internet to find out the roles of Jean Kambanda and Sindikubwabo Theoneste in preparation of the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi.
2. Identify different actors in 1994 Genocide against Tutsi
3. Present your findings to the class.

10.3: Features and effects of 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.



Learning Activity 10.3.

Use the textbooks, find out the features of 1994 Genocide against Tutsi. Present the findings.

➤ **Features of 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.**

i. **Massive killing and massacre of people.**

During the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, many people were killed. Over one million people perished in only 100 days. The killings were spear-headed by the state organs and paramilitary (*Interahamwe* militia).

ii. **Extreme forms of violence against innocent people.**

It involved rape, abduction and torture of the innocent Tutsi by the Hutu extremists. It involved pounding babies in mortars and confining and starving victims to death. It also involved burying victims alive, maiming and shooting them to death, burning people alive, throwing people into pit latrines while still alive and forcing family members to kill them. The tools used were machetes, grenades, bullets among others.

iii. **Organised to eliminate the Tutsi.**

The 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi was organised specifically to vanish all the Tutsi. The perpetrators killed the Tutsi elderly, men, women, youth and children. They went to the extent of cutting pregnant women to remove the foetus. They made sure that the foetus was dead. They also killed Hutu politicians and people opposed to genocide.

iv. **Isolation and lack of external interference.**

During the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, other countries and peace keeping agencies isolated Rwanda. For instance, there was the withdrawal of UN troops stationed in Rwanda. However, the UN Security Council

ignored warnings of the impending massacre. The UN failed to empower the force and did not issue a mandate to stop the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.

v. Role of state.

The government initiated, executed and coordinated the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. Government soldiers, local administration, public media, public services and security forces were involved. They encouraged the Hutu extremists and militias to perpetrate the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.

vi. Popular participation.

Before and during the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, the government carried out a wide propaganda to involve all the Hutu to exterminate the Tutsi which many Hutu accepted. They were briefed, trained and equipped with everything to wipe out the Tutsi.

➤ Effects of 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi

The 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi had negatively affected political, economic and socio-emotional life of Rwandans. The following are some of its consequences (to be discussed more in S3).

- It led to loss of human lives where more than one million innocent people were killed in just 100 days.
- It led to destruction of infrastructures such as schools, communication lines, offices...
- It caused disabilities.
- It led to a high level of trauma.
- It led to devastation of environment.
- It led to an increase of HIV/AIDS because women and girls were raped.
- It led to the decline of country's economy.
- It increased the number of widows, orphans and disabled people.
- It led to a big number of prisoners.
- It led to big number of refugees.



Application Activity 10.3.

Use the internet to find out the challenges met after 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. Present the findings.

10.4. Role played by RPF/RPA to stop the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi.



Learning Activity 10.4.

Write down what the following initials stand for in relation to Rwanda:

- RPF
- RPA

It should be emphasised that the role of RPF forces in stopping the Genocide is of major importance. From the onset of the 1990 Liberation War, RPF forces worked to liberate the country from the hands of dictator Juvenal Habyarimana and his clique among the Akazu. When the mass killings started from 7th April 1994 (though it had taken place sporadically since 1959) to July 1994, RPF forces doubled their mission. They fought to liberate the country at the same time stopping genocide against the Tutsi and saving victims. Below are the ways of how RPF forces laboured to save lives:

- On 7th April 1994, the chairman of RPA High command, General Paul Kagame, convened an emergency meeting of RPA High command at Mulindi Headquarters. From that meeting, General Kagame gave orders to stop the genocide, defeat the genocidal forces (F.A.R and Militias) and rescue genocide survivors.
- During the 100 days of the genocide against the Tutsi, the RPF/RPA saved thousands of people through rescue operations conducted across the country.
- Rescuing civilians was the main objective of the campaign against the genocide.

The genocide was stopped on 4th July 1994 when the genocidal forces and F.A.R (Forces Armées Rwandaises) were defeated, and Kigali liberated. The struggle for liberation and stopping the genocide continued countrywide until 17th July 1994. Finally, areas that were controlled by the French forces under zone Turquoise (Gikongoro, Cyangugu and Kibuye) were also liberated at a later stage, leading to the total liberation of Rwanda.



Application Activity 10.4.

Discuss the role of RPF in Rwanda to stop the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi. Thereafter, make presentation in class.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Discuss the causes of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.
2. Explain the course of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.
3. Discuss the role played by RPF/RPA to stop the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.
4. Write down what the following initials stand for in relation to political parties in Rwanda:
 - i) ICTR
 - ii) RPF
 - iii) UNAMIR

UNIT 11

RIGHTS, DUTIES AND OBLIGATIONS

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to analyse obligations of the state and duties of citizens in the Rwandan situation.



Introductory Activity

1. Using the internet and the library, research about the meanings of the following words:
 - An obligation
 - A duty
 - A right
2. List down things you feel your state must do.

Introduction.

You probably found out that an **obligation** is a course of action that a person is bound to take. It arises out of a sense of duty or results from customs or law. A **duty** is an obligation to someone or something. A **right** is what a person should not be prevented from because he or she deserves it. Citizens must not only be aware of their rights but must also know how to exercise them in a responsible way. Citizens have duties towards the state and personal duties.

11.1. Duties of citizens towards his/her Nation.



Learning Activity 11.1.

1. Tell your partner about your daily duties at home.
2. Tell the class about your friend's duties.

In finer details, a duty is something you feel you have to do because it is your moral or legal responsibility. A citizen has the following duties towards his or her nation:

- (a) **Allegiance:** Every citizen is expected to be loyal to the state. His or her loyalty should not be shaken. The state expects full allegiance from its citizens.
- (b) **Obedience:** All citizens should willingly obey the laws of the state. A democratic government is a government of the people themselves. Laws reflect their own will.
- (c) **Payment of Taxes:** Citizens have to pay tax to enable the government to serve them better.
- (d) **Participation in the democratic process:** Every adult citizen should participate in the democratic processes such as voting. A vote is a sacred trust in the hands of the citizens. It should always be used wisely. Suitable representatives should be sent to the parliament. A wrong use of vote may result in a bad governance.
- (e) **Maintenance of law and order:** It is the duty of every citizen to cooperate with public officials in the discharge of their duties. Every citizen should try to remove evils and crimes from society. Citizens should not be disorderly.
- (f) **Work:** Every adult citizen should work in order to participate in nation building. Idlers are a parasite to the society. Work brings wealth and prosperity in the country.



Application Activity 11.1.

1. Discuss other duties of a citizen towards his or her country.
2. Present your findings to the class.

Remember

As a young person you need to control your sexual life. SAY NO TO SEX until you get married. Having sex at an early age puts you in high risks of contracting sexually transmitted diseases such as syphilis and AIDS. Girls may also become pregnant.

11.2. Obligations of the state towards its population



Learning Activity 11.2.

1. Discuss about the things you think are obligations of the state to its people.
2. Write an essay from your findings.

Did you know?

1. The state is charged with the responsibility of providing security to its people as a way keeping peace and order. For example, the police provide security in Rwanda.
2. The state has to provide basic services such as education, health, accommodation and electricity to its citizens. For instance, the Ministry of Education is in charge of Education in Rwanda. It ensures that there is quality education for all citizens.
3. The state has the responsibility to develop its economy in terms of agriculture, trade and industry. In this case, the government uses taxes, grants and loans to construct roads and help farmers. It also performs other duties for the benefit of citizens.
4. The state is supposed to set laws and make sure they are respected by the citizens. For example, the Rwandan Constitution sets rules that govern the country.
5. The state is supposed to keep its heritage and embrace the national cultures such as setting public and national holidays. For example, we celebrate the Independence Day on 1st July every year. Heroes Day is celebrated on February 1st.
6. The state has to promote international relations for its country. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs is in charge of promoting international relations. It makes sure that Rwanda maintains relations with other countries.

It is also the responsibility of the state to manage and exploit natural resources in the country. This has to be done in a sustainable way, to the benefit of all citizens. This responsibility is undertaken by the Ministry of Natural Resources, which is in charge of land, forest, minerals and environment.



Application Activity 11.2.

Discuss how the Government uses the taxes collected from citizens.

Remember

As much as there are obligations of the state to its population, we have responsibility too. It is our responsibility to cooperate with the government so as to perform these obligations. For example, we should not sit down and refuse to work and wait for the state to provide us everything. We have to require but rather perform what is expected of us.

11.3. How duties and obligations are balanced in Rwanda



Learning Activity 11.3.

1. The Government of Rwanda national unity has done a lot to fulfil its duties and obligations to all its population.
2. Discuss with a friend what you feel has been the contribution of the government of Rwanda to the community.
 - (i) Discuss with a friend about these terms:
 - (ii) Gacaca
 - (iii) Girinka Munyarwanda

Important

It is the duty of citizens and the state to fully perform their duties and obligations to ensure economic growth and development. For example, through paying taxes the state can improve production, roads, education and transport. All these lead to improved standard of life.

The duties and obligations for both the state and citizens are balanced through the following points:

- The state provides all the basic needs such as electric wires, water points, roads and schools to its population. The population also maintains and protects them.
- In Rwanda the population pays taxes. The government uses the taxes to provide better services to them.
- Both the state and the population are fully and actively involved in environmental management and cleanliness. For example, *Umuganda* is done on every last Saturday of the month. Everyone who is 18 and above is expected to get involved in this communal work. Another important activity involving every citizen in Rwanda is tree planting during the Tree Planting Day.

- The state and population in Rwanda work hand in hand to make sure that there is lasting peace and security. For example, people report on any case of insecurity and indecent behaviour the moment they witness them. The state does the correction of its citizens through the Rwanda correctional facilities.
- The population chooses its own leaders to guide them. The state makes sure the leaders are serving people hence ensuring democracy and justice.
- The state and the population in Rwanda unite to ensure that disasters and natural calamities are handled and managed. This is done through programmes of different ministries.



Application Activity 11.3.

- Explain duties of a citizen towards his/her nation in reference to Rwanda
- Present the results to the class.
- Individually, compose a poem or write an essay on duties and obligations.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Explain the meanings of the following terms:
 - (i) Duties
 - (ii) Rights
2. Describe the duties and responsibilities that every citizen should fulfil towards his or her nation.
3. Identify the obligations of the state towards its population.
4. Discuss the obligations of the state towards its population.
5. Explain how duties and obligations are balanced in Rwanda.

UNIT 12

STATE AND GOVERNMENT

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to explain the role and functions of the state and government



Introductory Activity

The teacher plays a video and students listen the video lesson "What is state and government" then answer the questions:

1. List the powers of the government.
2. List the responsibilities of the government.
3. List the challenges of the government.

12.1. Definition of state and government



Learning Activity 12.1.

Using Internet and other relevant materials, find out the meaning of state and government.

A **state** can be defined as an organised community of people occupying a definite form of territory free of external control and possessing an organised government to which people show habitual obedience. It may also be described as a compulsory political organisation with a centralised government that maintains a monopoly of legitimate use of force within a certain territory. A state comprises of:

- (i) People
- (ii) Population
- (iii) Government
- (iv) Sovereignty

A **government** is the system by which a state or community is controlled. It also refers to a particular group of people that controls the state apparatus at a given time. That is, government is the means through which state power is employed. Government can also be defined as the agency through which the will of the state is formulated, expressed and realised.



Application Activity 12.1.

1. Who is the head of our state?
2. Who are the members of Government of Rwanda.

12.2. Difference between state and government



Learning Activity 12.2.

1. Discuss and write down the differences between a state and a government.
2. Compare your work with that of other groups.

Compare your findings with the following points:

- A state has four elements namely population, territory, government and sovereignty. A government is a narrow concept and is an element of the state. It is right to say that government is a part of state.
- The state is more or less permanent while the government is temporary. A government may come and go, but the state continues forever.
- The state is generally composed of all citizens but most of them are not members of the government. The government consists of only a few selected citizens. The organs of the government are executive, legislature and judiciary. The few selected persons will run these three organs of the government. The state is a much boarder organisation than the government. Membership of the state is compulsory but not that of the government.
- The state possesses sovereignty. Its authority is absolute and unlimited. Its power cannot be taken away by any other person. Government does not possess sovereignty. It does not have original authority. It only has derivative powers delegated by the state through its constitution.
- Whether big or small, the characteristics of the state do not undergo changes. Governments are of different types, and they may vary from

one state to another. Various political scientists have given different classifications of the government.

- The citizens possess rights to go against government and not against the state. The state only acts through the government and the government may commit mistakes and not the state. Thus, the citizens have only rights to go against the government not the state.



Application Activity 12.2.

Distinguish between a state and a government.
Make a presentation in class.

12.3. Types of states and basic forms of government.



Learning Activity 12.3.

Research on different types of state and government. Present your findings to the class.

➤ Types of states.

- **Sovereign states:** These are states that are not dependent or subject to any other power or state. Example: Rwanda, Kenya, Tanzania, etc.
- **Federated states:** They participate in a federal union. This is whereby a territorial and constitutional community form a part of a federation. Such states differ from sovereign states, in that they have transferred a portion of their sovereignty powers to a federal government. Examples: Russia, USA, India, Ethiopia, etc.
- **Heterogeneous states:** These are states which are made up of many smaller states that are interrelated, interacting and interdependent. They usually form a complex whole that is highly coordinated and organised in its operations. They are mainly associated with military control. Example: Mozambique
- **Centralised states:** All powers of government emanate from one location in these states. It has a central authority. Example: Democratic People's Republic of Korea
- **Decentralised/non-centralised states:** These are states in which powers have been redistributed to different people. In a decentralised state, power is dispersed throughout the system. Examples: Brazil, Rwanda, India, Indonesia, South Africa, etc.

- **Monolithic states:** These are large states that were often ruled by one person. They are slow to adapt to change. They do not have complicated systems of operations, always working with the initial, unaltered ways of administration. Authority flows from the central source, implemented as received by those reporting to it. Example: North Korea

➤ **Basic forms of government**

(i) Monarchy.

This is a form of government in which a single-family rule from generation to generation. The power or sovereignty is personified in a single individual. Absolute monarchy exists when the monarch has no or few legal limitations in political matters. Constitutional monarchies exists when the monarchy retains a distinctive legal and ceremonial role, but exercises limited or no political power.

(ii) Democracy

Democracy is a system of government in which the people exercise power directly or through elected representatives who form a governing body such as a parliament. In a democratic government, power belongs to the people. **Direct** democracy is whereby all eligible citizens have direct participation in the decision making of the government. **Representative** democracy is whereby citizens exercise their power through elected representatives. Elected representatives propose, develop and enact laws for the citizens to abide by.

(iii) Authoritarianism.

This is whereby a single power holder, a 'dictator' or small group of political leaders monopolises political power.

This is a form of government in which the people have no participation. The characteristics of authoritarianism include:

- Absolute obedience to an authority by the people
- Strong central power and limited freedoms.
- Informally defined executive power which changes oftenly.



Application Activity 12.3.

Discuss the differences between a sovereign state and a federal state.

12.4. Organs, role and functions of the state and government.



Learning Activity 12.4.

Using Internet and other relevant materials, find out the following:

1. Organs of the government
2. Using your knowledge on the obligations of the state from Unit 10, write an essay on the roles and functions of the state and government.

Present your findings to the entire class.

Organs of states and government

- **Executive**

The executive is responsible for managing the affairs of a country in accordance with the law. It also collects taxes and takes charge of operation of common services such as roads, water supply, policing and defence.

- **Legislature**

The legislature makes the laws that govern the state. It defines rights and obligations of the people and of various arms of government.

- **Judiciary**

The judiciary is the organ responsible for interpreting the laws passed by the legislative branch. It settles disputes which involve people and government. It has the authority to give appropriate punishment for violation of law.

➤ Role and functions of the state and government.

The following are some of the role and functions of the state:

(a) **Foreign diplomacy**

The central government maintains formal diplomatic relations with other sovereign states in the world. It promotes good relations based on respect, mutual interests and complementarity between the state and other states aiming at enhancing peace, security and development. The government also mobilises and attracts foreign investments.

(b) **Security of the people**

The government is responsible for ensuring the security of all citizens and foreigners living in the country. The government maintains armed forces in order to protect the territory and the people from attack and invasion by foreign powers.

(c) Domestic order

The government exercises control over the people it seeks to govern and protect. It must maintain internal peace of individuals and groups of the society. It must ensure that citizens live in peace and harmony.

(d) Administration of justice

A government promotes and facilitates the rule of law in the country by emphasising equality before the law. It ensures that all citizens are treated equally under the law. It should give equal opportunities and settle disputes with fairness.

(e) Protection of civil liberties

The government is also required to preserve and safeguard the basic rights and liberties guaranteed by the constitution to the individual members of the society. It should ensure that the rights of citizens are protected.

(f) Provision for and regulation of the conduct of elections.

The government is meant to ensure that free and fair elections are held according to the constitution. The elections should be held fairly, honestly and peacefully. Citizens should be allowed to choose their leaders by voting.

(g) Provision for public goods and services.

Government institutions provide public goods and services. The government get taxes from citizens to raise money to spend on goods and services, which will benefit all citizens. Examples of public goods and services are roads, streetlights, schools, hospitals and sanitation. All members of society should benefit from the provision of public goods.

(h) Promotion of economic growth and development

The government facilitates fast growth and development of its economy. The government facilitates Rwanda's economic transformation through enabling competitive private sector integrated into regional and global markets.

(i) Social welfare

The government ensures that it has programmes to provide assistance to the poor. These programmes are designed to alleviate poverty. It should provide education and healthcare to its citizens.



Application Activity 12.4.

1. Write down public goods and services. Give as many as possible.
2. Discuss some of the programmes that Rwanda government has initiated to eradicate poverty!.

Remember

On 18th December 2015, Rwandans peacefully and willingly voted in a referendum. This was done by every citizen of voting age. This signifies the level of democracy, peace and moral values that the Rwandans have. Let us ensure that we pay taxes so that we can improve more.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Give the definition of the following:
 - (i) State
 - (ii) Government
2. Explain the differences between state and government.
3. Identify four types of states.
4. Discuss the role and functions of the state and government.

UNIT 13

SOCIAL COHESION

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to analyse how people can live together in harmony.



Introductory Activity

1. Use a dictionary to find the meanings of the following word:
 - (a) Society
 - (b) Cohesion
2. Discuss the factors that keep people in harmony and mutual understanding.
Share your findings with the entire class.
3. From your findings, discuss the importance of social cohesion.

Read your answers for question 1 (a and b) above. Link them to the following statement:

Social cohesion refers to how members of a society or community co-exist in peace.

13.1. Factors influencing social cohesion.



Learning Activity 13.1.

Discuss factors that influence social cohesion.

Present the results from your group discussion in class.

Let us now discuss how the following factors influence social cohesion:

- (a) **History:** A shared past, good or bad, can enable people to live peacefully with each other or antagonistically. For example, colonialism had a big hand in this. Colonialists united some communities on one hand. On the other hand, they created rivalry

between some communities. People who share a common history are united since they understand what they have been through.

- (b) **Education:** A good education system encourages social cohesion. Schools teach about the importance of social cohesion in a nation. For example, they teach about obligation of citizens, behaviours expected of citizens and consequences of not obeying the law. Schools can also facilitate the appreciation of other cultures and political issues, in so doing, may increase the likelihood that a student will see a point of view other than his own. In school, students from different parts interact with each other. This also promotes social cohesion.
- (c) **Political views:** People with the same political views are united. Many times, competitive elective politics can cause divisions or unity among people in a given society.
- (d) **Socio-economic status:** When the income levels of people in a country have a wide disparity, the lower income groups tend to blame it on the better off group. They accuse them of corruption and embezzlement. The rich, in some cases, are not willing to redistribute their wealth.
- (e) **Government regulation:** The intervention of the government in any affair of a country can have what the government wants in place. Government can direct citizens on what to do, when, where and with whom, hence influencing social cohesion.



Application Activity 13.1.

On political view, the leaders of the 1st and 2nd republics hindered social cohesion among Rwandans. Explain this assertion.

13.2. Challenges to social cohesion



Learning Activity 13.2.

- In Senior 1, we learnt about the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. Use that knowledge to answer the following questions:
- Identify the factors that hindered social cohesion in Rwanda. Present your findings to the entire class.
- In Rwanda, social cohesion used to be a challenge. In some cases, people were not treated fairly. Let us now discuss the challenges to social cohesion.

- a) Discrimination:** Discrimination in all human affairs is a certain concern in every sphere of life. People complain of discrimination from all accounts such as place of origin, sex, age, religious or political affiliation. When people are discriminated against they become bitter and develop hatred. This hinders social cohesion in the society. For example, the Batwa community in Rwanda was expelled from its forest habitat thus forcing them to live as beggars. They were also discriminated against receiving education, housing and employment. This discrimination made the Batwa community to suffer.
- b) Stigma:** Many individuals in society face stigma because of some physical challenges and HIV and AIDS. Some face stigma as a result of misfortunes, for example, those who actively participated in the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. All these hinder their full integration in society. In Rwanda, HIV positive people and those affected by the genocide face stigma from the experience they had. Sex workers also face stigmatisation. It is believed that the term marriage is used instead of sexual slavery in order to let the survivors save face by avoiding stigmatisation that is associated with rape and genocide. These affect social cohesion in Rwanda.
- c) Prejudice:** This is a negative general view about an entire category of people. For example, it is alleged that Banyarwanda women are weak. This is not true. Such kind of prejudice hinders social cohesion as the victims feel left out.
- d) Income levels:** Where there is a big gap between the rich and the poor, a very big social gap is created. This hinders social cohesion as the rich will always feel proud to interact with the poor. It also creates hatred between the two. This leads to disunity instead of social cohesion. The low-income rates among most Rwandans have affected social cohesion. Thus, destroying Rwanda's economic base. This has eroded the country's ability to attract private and external investment.



Application Activity 13.2.

What was the effect of the lack of social cohesion among Rwandans.

13.3. *Itorero ry'Igihugu* and *Ndi Umunyarwanda* Program in promotion of social cohesion in Rwanda.



Learning Activity 13.3.

- Research on Ndi Umunyarwanda and Itorero ry'Igihugu Program.
- Identity the main values characterizing a good Rwandan.
- Present the findings in class.

➤ Ndi Umunyarwanda Program.

By July 19th, 1994, the Government of National unity was set up with the main aim of restoring the national unity and reconciliation among the Rwandans. In this regard, the National Unity and Reconciliation Commission (NURC) today under MINUBUMWE, was set with the aim to implement the Rwandans' unity and building a new Rwanda backed by good governance. To enhance this, Ndi Umunyarwanda; means "I am Rwandan", was adopted and initiated in order to build a national identity based on trust, strengthen unity, reconciliation and dignity among Rwandans. Putting Rwanda and Rwandans ahead of everything is the foundation for Ndi Umunyarwanda Program.

The role of Ndi Umunyarwanda Program in promoting social cohesion:

- Ndi Umunyarwanda programme aiming to build the Rwandan identity.
- Dialogues whose targets are to mend Rwandan's wounds left by the tragic history,
- Ndi Umunyarwanda Program is also understood as having an inner understanding of the relationship and uniting Rwandans which geared the Rwandan's patriotism.

Ndi Umunyarwanda includes responsibility, rights, values, and taboos geared towards promoting the roots of the Rwandan identity shared by all Rwandans.

Itorero ry'Igihugu.

Traditional Itorero was a leadership and cultural school in which Rwandans would learn language, patriotism, social relations, sports, dancing, songs, military tactics among others. In the aftermath of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, the Government of Rwanda reintroduced Itorero in view of societal transformation. This is Civic Education Program, also known

as Itorero, is one of Rwanda's Homegrown Initiatives (HGI). Itorero was reintroduced in 2007 and implemented in 2009 as a way to rebuild the nation's social fabric and mobilise Rwandans to uphold important cultural values and to spur a sense of dedication to their country.

- The contribution of Itorero towards good governance, self-reliance and dignity as well as social cohesion is observed through *Itorero* achievements below:
 - Sensitizing Rwandans on the eradication of genocide and its ideology and divisionism
 - Educating all categories of Rwandans, the history of Rwanda and Rwanda cultural values
 - Organizing meetings at village levels aimed at educating the community on Rwandan cultural values such as unity, reconciliation, social cohesion, trust each other, patriotism, and Rwandese development.
 - Encouraging all Rwandans to participate in activities organized to commemorate the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi
- Sensitizing the community on the importance of mutual health insurance, adult literacy, on fighting against drug abuse, among others.



Application Activity 13.3.

Identify the Rwandans to participate in *Itorero ry' igihugu*.

13.4. Importance of living together in harmony.



Learning Activity 13.4.

- Discuss the meaning of harmony.
- Present the results from your group discussion in class.

Harmony means peaceful co-existence among people from different backgrounds. These people could be from our school, neighbourhood and the country at large. It is very important for people to live in harmony. The following are some of the importance of living together in harmony:

- Living together in harmony enables sharing of knowledge and skills among people. For example, students at school can share knowledge.
- It also enables people to live and work together to achieve common

goals.

- It helps to avoid social strife and struggle among people of a given society or country.
- Harmony creates happiness among people. No one will harbour ill will towards another person. For instance, Muslims, Christians and non-believers respect each other.
- It promotes socio-cultural activities such as communal work (Umuganda), inter-clan as well as cross religious marriages. It breeds a spirit of close cooperation among neighbours in times of need. People come together to help the needy. For example, constructing homes for the genocide survivors, bye-bye nyakatsi and constructing schools.
- It prevents political chaos and armed resistance as is common in many parts of Africa.
- Harmony is the foundation of self-reliance and independence among nations. It builds a strong spirit of patriotism as it has done in Rwanda.
- Harmony leads to economic and social development of a country. This includes development of infrastructure, education, trade and commerce.
- It promotes the spirit of patriotism.



Application Activity 13.4.

1. Identify at least four values borrowed from your classmate
2. Explain how you live in harmony with your classmates
Present your findings in class.

Remember

Remember: When there is social cohesion, there is peace and unity. This makes it easy for national aspirations such as environmental conservation and sustainability. Social cohesion can prevent tribalism and aspects of genocide.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Explain the meaning of social cohesion.
2. Identify the challenges to social cohesion.
3. Examine the factors that favour social cohesion in Rwanda.
4. Explain the importance of social cohesion.
5. Describe how prejudice may affect social cohesion.

UNIT 14

FAMILY AND PERSONAL VALUES

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to examine the conflicts and misunderstanding in the family and the importance of dialogue between parents and children.



Introductory Activity

1. Find out the meanings of the following words:
 - (a) Conflict
 - (b) Adolescence
2. Debate about ways in which puberty and adolescence bring about conflicts and misunderstandings between parents and children. Present your findings in class.
3. You probably found out that a **conflict** is a clash or disagreement between individuals. In this case, it means a situation where parents and their children have disagreements in pursuit of their interests.

14.1. Conflict and misunderstandings between parents and children.



Learning Activity 14.1.

Read the passage below and answer questions that follow:

Birthday reward

"One time, my friend Akeza had a birthday celebration. She was turning 16 years. We made plans to celebrate her birthday on that Tuesday evening in one of the night clubs in town. My friends Ingabire, Cyusa, Mugisha, Teta, Ntabana and I did not ask for permission to go to the party. We knew that our parents would not allow us. We escaped the party. Late in the night, the police arrested us for being idle and disorderly. We explained that we were students, but they could not listen to us. One policeman remarked in surprise,

"Students who spend a night in a club!". We were all taken to the police station. Our parents were called upon the following morning. Our parents were mad at us".

1. Explain why you think their parents were angry with them.
2. Discuss the reasons why these children felt that they would not get permission from their parents to go to the party.
3. How can this way of behaviour affect the academic performance of these teenagers?

The following are some of the causes of conflict between parents and children.

- Income levels on the side of parents determine what they can and cannot afford for their children. When children's needs are not met by their parents regularly, it creates misunderstandings.
- Some Rwandan parents do not allow their children to participate in sporting activities. When this happens, their children feel betrayed. They feel that they have been denied their rights.
- Some parents lack ways of motivating their children who do not perform well in school. This is because every parent expects good results from their children. This situation sometimes creates misunderstandings.
- Ways of bringing up a family differs from one parent to another. Some Rwandan parents are authoritarian while others are permissive. Children whose parents' authoritarian feel restricted. Those whose parents are permissive feel neglected.
- Another cause is age and peer influence among the adolescents especially in relation to dating issues. Most Rwandan parents stop their children from having relationship with their peers of the opposite sex. The children feel offended and therefore misunderstandings begin.
- Divorce and separation make children blame their parents for not being able to resolve their conflict. In most cases, divorce makes children stay with only one parent. Such children will hate the other parent.
- Parents tend to choose friends for their children. Parents often do not like friends of their children or some of them, because the worry about bad influence. This causes conflicts between children and their parents.

- There are conflicts about dress code. Parents do not understand clothes young people want to wear. To their opinion, it breaks rules and norms of the society. Therefore, parents do not want to buy such clothes.
- Some parents like to choose education institutions or jobs for their children. This annoys children as they have their own preferences.
- Parents do not like bad habits of teenagers. Habits like smoking or drinking alcohol, even if they smoke themselves. Children tend to disobey their parents and smoke and drink. This annoys their parents.
- There are conflicts about housework and home duties. Children think that they are too busy to spend any time helping in the house. On the other hand, parents feel their children are not helping them.



Application Activity 14.1.

Discuss the consequences of engaging in sexual relations at an early age. Present your findings to the class.

Remember

It is very important to have time and talk to your parents about your concerns. Dialogue helps to solve parent-child conflicts and therefore creates peace.

14.2. Importance of parents-child dialogues.



Learning Activity 14.2.

1. Discuss the challenges of child-parent gap.
2. Suggest the measures for bridging that gap in Rwanda. Present your findings in class.

Dialogue is a live conversation between two or more individuals intended for a good outcome. It is important that parents and children discuss openly. This will help them to know and commit to their duties and responsibilities, and rights and liberties. The following are importance of parent-child dialogue:

- Dialogue gives way to parents to always let their children know what they can and cannot afford. This helps the children understand that their parents love them. It also helps the children to accept their economic status and even hope for better.

- It creates trust, confidence and self-esteem in the two parties to always do things after they have mutual agreement. This creates peace in the family.
- Dialogue helps the parents and their children to always make choice on what type of entertainment they should have. Parents show their children the disadvantages of the bad entertainment.
- Dialogue helps children to make the right choices in life. This is because they talk with their parents, and they understand the importance of making the right choices. They also understand the dangers of making wrong choices.
- Dialogue improves children's performance in school. When parents talk with their children, they get to identify their areas of weaknesses. Most parents would help their children deal with it. Thus, better results.
- It is the only way parents can have influence on their children's lives. The children will start taking their parents as friends and guides other than being looked at as rulers. Parents can also influence the type of friends their children can have hence reducing peer influence.
- Rwandan parents can give career guidance to their children during the dialogue.
- Children always confide in their parents since these become the closest and lasting friends. This friendship is built through dialogue.
- Dialogue gives a chance to parents to witness how their children grow especially the adolescents. Parents can therefore have chance to share experience on how one must behave to overcome that period. This is better than constant punishment and accusations of children.
- Dialogue prevents misunderstanding between parents and children. It also reduces conflicts in the family.



Application Activity 14.2.

Describe the importance of dialogue between parents and their children.

Remember

Effective communication between parents and their children can enable them to discuss sexuality.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Define the term 'conflict'.
2. Examine the causes of the child-parent conflict.
3. Explain the importance of parent-child dialogue in upbringing of the proper Rwandan citizens.

GLOSSARY.

Absolute: complete and total.

Agitated: troubled or nervous.

Antagonistically: acting in opposition.

Apparatus: equipment.

Auditory: related to hearing.

Authoritarian: strict, dictator.

Beasts of burden: animals which carry load such as donkeys.

Bourgeois: the capitalist class who own most of society's wealth and means of production.

Capitalism: an economic and political system in which a country's trade and industry are controlled by private owners for profit, rather than by the state.

Cartographer: a person involved in developing maps.

Complementarities: things that make each other complete.

Deculturalisation: forcing people to leave their culture.

Democratic process: practice that allows democracy.

Derivative: imitative of the work of another person with disapproval.

Detribalisation: causing people to abandon their customs.

Exhaustion: act of using all of something.

Fencer: a person who participates in sport of fighting with thin sword.

Genocidaires: those who commit genocide or with genocide ideology.

Governesses: a woman employed to teach and train children in a private household: people who live in the same house.

Homogeneity: similarity or sameness of things. Homogenous: similar in

kind.

Impartial: not taking side. Indigenous: originating.

Interlacustrine: existing between lakes.

Interstate trade: trade between two or more countries. Manpower: skill.

Massacres: indiscriminate killing of people.

Mercantilism: belief in making profit in trade. Mobility: movement.

Nominal: existing in name only. Optimally: good, well.

Permissive: lenient.

Regiments: military units.

Rivalry: competition for superiority. Seized: take hold of.

Sovereign: unrestricted.

Stalwarts: those who supported Americans during the American Revolution. Sufficient: enough.

Transcontinental: across continents.

Tyrant: dictator.

Upheaval: violent change or disturbance.

War booty: Looting, also referred to as sacking, ransacking, plundering, despoiling, despoliation, and pillaging, is the indiscriminate taking of goods by force as part of a military or political victory, or during a catastrophe, such as war, natural disaster, or rioting.

Key unit competence: By the end of this unit, the learner should be able to identify the hindrances of dignity and self-reliance in Rwandan society.

UNIT 15

HINDRANCES TO DIGNITY AND SELF-RELIANCE IN RWANDAN SOCIETY



Introductory Activity

Definitions of dignity and self-reliance have been discussed in senior one:

1. Use the internet and textbooks, find out how dignity and self-reliance were promoted in ancient Rwanda.
2. Tell the class about your findings.

Dignity is a condition of being worthy of respect, esteem or honour. Self-reliance is a state of being independent in all aspects. The independence could be social, political or economic.

15.1 Types of hindrances to dignity and self-reliance.



Learning Activity 15.1.

1. Discuss the meaning of dignity and self-reliance Present the findings in class.
2. The types of hindrances of dignity and self-reliance can be categorised into three basic groups:
 - (a) Social hindrances
 - (b) Economic hindrances
 - (c) Political hindrances.

a) Social hindrances

They are based on the social relations and interactions among Rwandans because of many different social groups. We have farmers and the business class; educated and non-educated. An example of a social hinderance in Rwanda is health education.

b) Economic hindrances

Economic hindrances are those that are related to trade and

commerce. Rwanda faces various challenges that hinder trade and commerce. Some of these hindrances that Rwanda has are due to the following reasons.

- (i) Rwanda is a landlocked country which limits her way of doing business beyond her borders.
- (ii) Rwanda lacks some natural resources.
- (iii) Rwanda does not have a reliable market for some of her exports.
- (iv) There are low levels of production.

c) Political hindrances

They include the effects of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. They also include instabilities in Rwanda's neighbouring countries such as Burundi and Democratic Republic of Congo.



Application Activity 15.1.

1. Make a table and classify the following challenges to dignity and self-reliance as either political, social or economic hindrances.
 - Limited capital to exploit the available resources:
 - Limited entrepreneurial skills
 - Poor infrastructural development
 - Limited market.
 - Low levels of technological development
 - Political instability in neighbouring countries
 - Effects of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi
 - Illiteracy
 - Poverty

15.2. Importance of dignity and self-reliance in Rwandan society.



Learning Activity 15.2.

1. Discuss the importance of dignity and self-reliance in Rwanda.
2. Present in class the results from your group discussion.

Self-reliance is about one's ability to make decisions and implement them so as to meet his or her goals. **Dignity** is the sense of self-worth and respect. It is a combination of these two that Rwanda started developing

the dignity and self-reliance programme. The programme has continued to be implemented for its various importance.

- Rwanda is able to plan and implement her budget. She visualises where she wants to be in the next fifty years which cannot be possible if the country is not self-reliant.
- Self-reliance has given Rwanda the capacity to optimally use the available resources. The resources are used to meet the needs and desires of the citizens without waiting for help from other countries.
- Self-reliance has created a feeling of bigger independence in the Rwandans. They have managed to accomplish many things without waiting for foreign aid. For example, Rwanda was able to finance more than 60% of its budget in 2014/2015.
- Dignity and self-reliance have won Rwanda and Rwandans international respect.
- The idea of dignity and self-reliance has acted as a bond that brings Rwandans together to achieve common objectives. Many Rwandans have willingly contributed to various development projects because they believe they are for common interests.
- Dignity and self-reliance have increased patriotism among the Rwandans. The population has developed extreme love for homemade products. Rwandans have gone to the extent of organising the exhibition called “made in Rwanda” where only locally made products are exposed.



Application Activity 15.2.

1. Write short notes on the following measures used to overcome hindrances of dignity and self-reliance in Rwandan society.
 - (a) Agaciro development fund
 - (b) Ishema ryacu
 - (c) Ubudehe
 - (d) Kuremera
 - (e) One-dollar campaign

The above measures have been put in place to achieve self-reliance in Rwanda.

Remember

With a developed economy, it is possible for a country to be self-reliant.



End of Unit Assessment Activity

1. Explain the meaning of self-reliance.
2. Describe various types of hindrances of dignity and self-reliance.
3. Explain the importance of dignity and self-reliance in Rwandan society.
4. Explain how Rwanda has promoted dignity and self-reliance.

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