

MARKSCHEME

November 2007

HISTORY – AFRICA

Higher Level

Paper 3

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1. Compare and contrast the factors that led to the spread of Islam and Christianity in Africa in the nineteenth century.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century Islam was much more widespread than Christianity. Muslims had conquered much of the Mediterranean coastlands of North Africa. It had spread across the Sahara into parts of West Africa, and Arab Muslims had traded with East Africans through many points on the coast and had penetrated deep into the interior. From these bases Islam continued to spread throughout the nineteenth century, often through trade (Dyula traders in the Mandinka Empire), but also, in West Africa, through the major Jihad movements like those of Usman dan Fodio and Al Hajj Umar.

Whilst Islam spread largely through trade, Christianity spread mainly as a result of missionary activity. Christian missions were sent out by many denominations – the Catholic “White Fathers” and the Anglican “Church Missionary Society” were two major examples.

The spread of both religions depended on their appeal to Africans and this was rarely the result of religion alone. Economic, social and cultural factors were often more important than religious ones in inspiring positive responses from Africans.

The French and the British authorities often banned the presence of Christian missions in areas where Islam was already firmly established: *e.g.* the British in the Sokoto Caliphate and the French in the interior of Senegal. Muslim workers from these Islamic strongholds migrated to neighbouring parts of West Africa, carrying their religion with them.

Islam had an advantage over Christianity on religious grounds. It had a message that was simpler and easier to understand than that of Christianity. Socially and culturally Islam was more compatible than Christianity with African cultures and traditions: *e.g.* in its acceptance of polygamy. Islam was also free of Christianity’s associations with the colonial powers. Against these factors which helped the spread of Islam, Christianity was linked with the progress which came with Western education and Western medicine through missionary provision of schools and hospitals.

Decisions taken by African rulers often played a big part in the spread of these religions. Mutesa I of Buganda encouraged trade with Muslim traders from the east coast. For a time this promoted the spread of Islam in Buganda. Later, however, when faced by the threat of Muslim invasion from the Sudan, Mutesa invited Christian missions into his country in the 1870s and, as a result, Buganda became one of the big success stories for conversions of Africans to Christianity. This was due largely to the work of young, educated African converts setting up “reading rooms” and churches around the country. Similar large-scale conversions took place in parts of West Africa *e.g.* in Yoyubaland and the Niger Delta due to the work of African-controlled missions and to the emergence of Independent African Christian Churches.

N.B. There are no geographical limitations on this question; but many candidates may produce vague answers unsupported by any specific knowledge. Such answers will belong to the **[0 to 7 marks]** bands.

[0 to 7 marks] for superficial, general answers showing little specific, relevant knowledge and no attempt to compare and contrast.

[8 to 10 marks] for descriptive answers with some understanding of how the religions spread but with little or no attempt to compare and contrast.

[11 to 13 marks] for some explicit and specific compare/contrast content.

[14 to 16 marks] for in-depth, specific, comparative answers.

[17+ marks] for comprehensive, well balanced answers showing evidence of wide reading and well-developed analytical skills.

2. How and why did Dahomey and Opobo in the Niger Delta make the transition from the slave trade to legitimate trade successfully?

Answers should focus on showing how, and explaining why, the two states named made the transition successfully. The main factors on which success depended included:

- the availability of suitable legitimate exports for which there was a steady demand by European traders: *e.g.* palm oil products. Palm oil trees grew naturally in the Delta states like Opobo; but in the case of Dahomey these had to be acquired from neighbours, usually by force;
- adequate transport facilities to get the legitimate products to the coast for export. These again were readily available in Opobo in the network of rivers in the Delta which provided cheap and easy transport for bulky goods. In Dahomey, slave labour in the shape of “pulla boys” provided the transport;
- able leadership and a centralised administrative system; a well-organised economy; an efficient army or navy. These were available in Dahomey under the leadership of Kings Gezo and Glele who ran one of the best administrative systems in pre-colonial Africa. Some details should be given of this system. In the Delta the widespread development of the “House System” (companies whose main role was the promotion and the organisation of trade), which emerged specifically to meet the new conditions and challenges created by the abolition of the slave trade, also provided these conditions. The heads of these Houses were often men of humble origins, or even ex-slaves like Jaja of Opobo.

In addition to covering these key points, answers deserving a mark in one of the higher mark bands should be reasonably evenly balanced between Dahomey and Opobo. Serious imbalance will restrict the mark to the *[8 to 10 marks]* band.

[0 to 7 marks] for vague, general answers which fail to identify and respond to the key demands of the question.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers which fail to identify reasons for success.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers which analyse reasons but only in general terms.

[14 to 16 marks] for fuller analysis based on some detailed knowledge.

[17+ marks] for well balanced analytical answers giving adequate coverage to both countries.

3. Assess the part played by Tewodros II and Yohannes IV in the revival of Ethiopia in the second half of the nineteenth century.

A summary of the aims of each would make a good introduction. These were similar: to end the instability of the Era of Princes by reviving the power of the Emperor and curbing that of the Rases and to unite the country under his control; to create a well trained, well equipped standing army to defend the country against foreign and domestic enemies; they also wanted to modernise the country by introducing badly needed reforms.

Tewodros began well. After being crowned as Emperor in 1855 he split the old, large provinces into small ones and appointed his own governors. This, along with taxation and church reforms, antagonised powerful groups like the Rases and the priests. His unstable character led him to use the army to commit acts of violence and cruelty. The country was laid waste by endless campaigns to suppress rebels. The peasants were alienated by being required to feed the army. Troops deserted in large numbers. Finally his over-ambitious foreign policy led him into war with Britain and defeat. He committed suicide to avoid capture in 1868. Ethiopia seemed to have lapsed again into chaos. One achievement, however, was not forgotten: his vision of a briefly reunited country and a few steps towards modernisation.

In 1872 a rebel who had helped the British to overthrow Tewodros Emperor was Yohannes IV. He was a contrast in many respects to Tewodros and learned from the latter's mistakes. He repaired relations with the Church without abandoning most of the reforms of Tewodros; he preferred to deal with rebels by using diplomacy rather than force; he created a federal state rather than a centralised one; and made a pact with Menelik, potentially his most dangerous rival, by recognising him as his successor. His greatest achievement was to rebuild a powerful, modern army led by Ras Alula, a brilliant general who helped him defeat invasions from the Egyptians, the Italians and the Mahdists from the Sudan. He had little time to introduce modernising reforms but he protected his country's independence at a time when almost all of Africa was being colonised. He prepared the way for Menelik to inflict a decisive defeat on the Italians before embarking on a programme of modernisation.

A fitting concluding assessment would be to point out that, in contrast to Tewodros's short-lived contribution to Ethiopia's revival, that of Yohannes was long-lasting. He paved the way for Ethiopia's greatest Emperor to continue the revival.

The key words here are "assess the part played by" and candidates who make no attempt to "assess" the contribution of the two rulers and merely describe their work will not reach the **[8 to 10 marks]** band. This is not a "compare and contrast" question, but candidates who treat it as such should be well rewarded provided the work of the two rulers is evaluated.

[0 to 7 marks] for superficial answers which show little accurate, specific knowledge of the work of the rulers and make no real attempt to respond to the key phrase "assess the part played by".

[8 to 10 marks] for narratives which are unbalanced and only implicitly make any attempt at assessment.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers that have some analysis and assessment but are still unbalanced.

[14 to 16 marks] for balanced, analytical answers that make an explicit attempt to assess the contributions of the two rulers to Ethiopia's revival.

[17+ marks] for answers which meet the **[14 to 16 marks]** description and demonstrate the skills needed to produce a comprehensive answer.

4. Analyse the results of the establishment of the Omani capital in Zanzibar for the East African mainland and its people in the years 1840 to 1900.

This question requires an analysis of the wide-ranging results of Seyyid Said's decision in 1840 to move the capital of his Empire from Oman to Zanzibar. The impact was mainly economic. His interest in the mainland was almost exclusively commercial though some of his successors had political ambitions and his own commercial activities had social, cultural and political consequences. Trade with the mainland increased significantly and was carried on by well organised caravans, financed by Indians and led by Arab-Swahili merchants. The trade was mainly in slaves and ivory and its impact on the mainland was mixed. It was partly negative: wars waged for the capture of slaves led to economic, social and political disruption. Agricultural production declined. Land was laid waste and crops destroyed. People were killed and social and political units were undermined or destroyed.

However, there were also positive results. New states like the Nyamwezi empire of Mirambo and that of Tippu Tip emerged. The penetration of the mainland by traders as far as the Great Lakes and Buganda not only increased trade in slaves but in other imports and exports. New commercial centres sprang up along the trade routes. It also speeded up the spread of Islam and of the Swahili culture and language as a "lingua franca" throughout the region. Zanzibar rapidly became the main gateway through which many Europeans including explorers, missionaries and imperialists entered East Africa.

Some of the results of European penetration are difficult to classify but were certainly mixed and included the "official" banning of the slave trade from Zanzibar in 1873 and the European colonization of the region with all that meant: the spread of Christianity and of Western education and culture; and ultimately the end of Omani political power in the coastal area.

[0 to 7 marks] for superficial answers which do not focus on results for the mainland and its people and/or cover only a limited part of the period 1840 to 1900. (Results for Zanzibar will not be relevant.)

[8 to 10 marks] for answers that are simply descriptive and fail to emphasise the mixed character of results: positive and negative, economic, cultural and political.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers that are analytical, but too general and lacking in specific knowledge.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers that focus on the wide-ranging, mixed nature of results supported by adequate, accurate, and specific evidence.

[17+ marks] for comprehensive answers which focus on the mainland and its people and meet the *[14 to 16 marks]* description.

5. What were the causes and results of the jihad of Usman dan Fodio?

Answers should achieve a reasonable balance between the two parts of the question.

Causes:

The religious causes were paramount and central to the movement. There was a strong feeling that in Hausaland the rulers were corrupt and oppressive and that Islam had become adulterated and needed to be purified. In the Western Sudan as a whole Islamist fundamentalist groups like the Tijanniya and the Qadirriya had emerged. Usman dan Fodio was a respected Islamic scholar and a member of the Qadirriya brotherhood which had established members in all the towns along the trade routes of the region. There was a mood of expectancy amongst Muslims about the appearance of a “Mahdi” or spiritual leader.

Dan Fodio, a Fulani, lived in Gobir and was critical of the religious laxity of the Hausa rulers of the state. The latter regarded him as a direct challenge to their authority. Matters came to a head with the accession of a new Sultan, Nafata, who tried to curb the powers and influence of dan Fodio. In 1804 dan Fodio led a “hijra” (flight) out of Gobir and proclaimed a “jihad”, or holy war, against the Hausa dynasty. Though the desire to purify Islam was at the heart of the jihad the movement gained wider support from Muslims and non-Muslims alike for a variety of secular reasons. The Fulani, mostly non-Muslims, were its main supporters. The Cattle Fulani felt themselves oppressed and exploited by heavy taxation, and the Town Fulani felt that they were “rightless” and deprived of political influence. Even the more devout Hausa and Tuaregs joined dan Fodio’s followers and all groups looked forward to fairer and more just rule if the jihad succeeded. Support grew with the first military victory of the jihadists over Gobir in 1804. By 1810 their victory was complete, and the Hausa dynasty overthrown.

Results:

Usman dan Fodio set up his capital at Sokoto and took the title of Commander of the Faithful, receiving tribute from the Fulani Emirates which had replaced the old Hausa states. In all these states Islam was “purified”. Koranic schools were opened throughout the area and Islamic courts were established to dispense justice according to Islamic law. Kano and Zaria became centres of trade which began to flourish under the peaceful conditions which now existed. Dan Fodio’s success inspired other jihads like that of Al Hajj Umar which led to the founding of the Tukolor Empire and the further spread of Islam in the Western Sudan. The Sokoto Caliphate still exists today.

[0 to 7 marks] for answers which analyse or describe only the causes or the results and do so inadequately.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers which are thin on accurate knowledge and are unbalanced.

[11 to 13 marks] for more accurate and analytical answers but lack balance between the two parts.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which show accurate knowledge of both causes and results and are well balanced.

[17+ marks] for answers which meet the *[14 to 16 marks]* description, show well-developed analytical skills and consider short and long term causes and results.

6. **How and why did Samori Touré succeed in building the Mandinka Empire between 1853 and 1890? What were its main political, economic and social features?**

Samori built on foundations already laid by Dyula traders with whom he had close links; but his military skills, acquired when serving in the Sise army, were the main factor behind his success as an empire-builder. He broke away from the Sise army in 1853 and became a warlord in his own right. He built up a powerful, professional, well-trained army equipped with weapons obtained through Freetown. His main military conquests were made between 1857 and 1881 but others followed until 1888. He also used diplomacy and marriage alliances to expand his territory. By 1873 he had established his capital at Bissandugu. As his Empire grew, a sound economic base, helped by his commercial links with Dyula traders, and religious factors (he was a Muslim and a member of the Tijanniya Brotherhood) helped him consolidate his military gains. (See Tidy and Leeming, *A History of Africa 1840–1914*, Vol.1, pp.62-65 for further details).

Main features

Political: The Empire enjoyed efficient government and administration. Samori’s military and religious strengths were reflected in his system of government. Military and religious personnel – “Sofas” and “Qadis” – held prominent posts. Samori, though head of state, was not a despot. He was helped by a Council of Advisers each of which was responsible for a particular sector of government (justice, finance, foreign relations *etc.*). The Empire was divided into 10 provinces. Samori himself, who took the title Almami, ruled the three central provinces. Provinces were subdivided into cantons, 126 in all, and each canton consisted of 20 villages. In conquered regions former rulers were allowed to retain some influence under the provincial head, an army official. The army, with highly trained cavalry and infantry units, was recruited from all parts of the empire to help unify the state.

Social: Islam was used as a unifying factor within the empire. The principle of promotion on merit enabled people with humble origins to hold important posts in both the army and the administration. The Tijaniyya Brotherhood of which Samori was a member, placed great emphasis on equality. Birth and ethnicity counted for nothing, but great weight was attached to education, and Koranic schools existed throughout the Empire. Other religions besides Islam were tolerated until the late 1880s when Samori unwisely attempted enforced conversions. These led to the Great Rebellion of 1888–1889 and had to be abandoned.

Economic: Samori never forgot his origins as a Dyula trader and he owed much in his new role to Dyula support and wealth. In return the Dyula were guaranteed freedom to trade in stable conditions throughout the empire. Gold, horses and firearms were amongst the main items of trade. The Empire’s agricultural production was highly organised. The Almami’s fields were a feature of every village and provided the basis of the army’s food supply.

N.B. Material on Samori’s struggle with the French will not be relevant here.

[0 to 7 marks] for unbalanced answers which are largely narrative accounts of Samori’s military achievements and may fail to respond to the second part of the question.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers with little explanation of Samori’s success as an Empire builder and only limited analysis of “main features”.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers with adequate explanation of success in Part 1 and adequate analysis of main features in Part 2.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which focus on explanation in Part 1 and analysis in Part 2.

[17+ marks] for balanced answers which adopt the approach required for **[14 to 16 marks]** and avoid involvement with irrelevant developments after 1890 which led to the decline and fall of the Mandinka Empire.

7. “Both Shaka Zulu and Mosheshwe of the Sotho were nation builders in southern Africa, but their motives and methods differed.” To what extent do you agree with this statement?

Answers to this question might well be approached as if it were a compare/contrast question. The most significant and obvious difference between the two men is that Shaka was an aggressive nation-builder concentrating on the expansion, by military conquest, of his own Zulu kingdom; and Mosheshwe was a defensive one, using the natural defences of his mountainous country as a refuge for his own people and for others fleeing from Shaka’s wars. Shaka’s basic method was to attack and defeat neighbours with his reformed army, trained in the use of new tactics and new weapons, and then to absorb them and their territory into his own kingdom.

Some of his victims, however, like the Ndebele and the Swazi escaped to form new kingdoms of their own. The Ndebele under Mzilikazi were helped on their way by Mosheshwe who gave them shelter, supplied them with cattle and sent them on their way. Both men relied heavily on their armies. Both took advantage of the Mfecane, in different ways, and of contacts with foreign traders. Mosheshwe established good relations with European missionaries and finally sought protectorate status for his country from Britain. Some of these points will need supporting with detailed evidence. Candidates will no doubt agree that both leaders were nation-builders but may disagree about how their motives and methods differed.

[0 to 7 marks] for answers which show no understanding of the basic difference between Shaka and Mosheshwe as nation builders.

[8 to 10 marks] for unbalanced answers showing little knowledge of one of the rulers and basing their response to part 2 on scant evidence.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers that are more balanced but still based on limited knowledge.

[14 to 16 marks] for balanced, comprehensive and well documented answers.

[17+ marks] for answers which meet the **[14 to 16 marks]** requirements and make a clear response, perhaps mainly in the conclusion, to the key words “to what extent”.

8. For what reasons did the European partition of Africa accelerate between 1875 and 1890?

Answers here should focus on an analysis of the events and developments between 1875 and 1890, which led to the “scramble for Africa”. Before 1875 European powers were interested in “informal Empire”, that is to say in “profit through trade without responsibility”. After the Brussels Conference (1876) called by Leopold II of Belgium, this approach to Africa became increasingly difficult to sustain as protectionism replaced free trade. Henceforth, nothing short of establishing colonies in Africa would ensure profit through trade. The events and developments which led to the scramble included: the spread of protectionism; the activities of Leopold II and the explorer H. M. Stanley in the Congo Basin and the reactions of other powers to these; De Brazza’s treaty with Makoko, made in 1880 but not ratified until 1882 after Britain had occupied Egypt; the Berlin West Africa Conference (1884–1885) and the impact of its decisions like the doctrine of “effective occupation” and the designation of spheres of influence. Within six years of the calling of the conference the scramble was well under way as the European powers set about making treaties with African rulers and establishing effective occupation of potential colonies.

[0 to 7 marks] for answers which show no understanding of the developments between 1875 and 1890 that acted as accelerating factors of the European partition of Africa.

[8 to 10 marks] for answers which describe the general factors which motivated European powers to colonise African territory – economic, prestige and power, strategic, philanthropic and humanitarian – without identifying specific events and developments.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers which identify some of the specific events which led to the “scramble”.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which identify most of the relevant developments and events between 1875 and 1890 and link them with the beginning of the “scramble”.

[17+ marks] for answers which mention most of the developments above and show a clear understanding of how they are linked with the “scramble”.

9. “Africans who resisted Europeans were always losers.” To what extent do resistance movements in East Africa before 1914 confirm this view?

Good candidates are likely to challenge the truth of this view and should find no difficulty in producing evidence to show that Africans who resisted were not always losers in every respect. It is easy to find evidence that most resisters lost, *e.g.* the Nandi in Kenya; Mkwawa and the Hehe; Mwanga in Buganda. However, the Maji Maji Rising in German East Africa, though it was crushed with the loss of 75 000 lives and the rebels were once again brought under German rule, their resistance brought them significant gains under the new, reformed administration of Governor Rechenberg because the Germans feared another rising. Forced labour was abolished; settlers who punished African workers were punished; African peasants were encouraged to grow cash crops; more education was provided in mission schools. Africans also learned two useful lessons: the futility of armed resistance against Europeans with overwhelming military superiority, and the importance of unity amongst Africans if freedom was to be gained. Thus the resistance movements in East Africa do not confirm the view that all resisters were losers. The clearest challenge to this view came in Ethiopia when Menelik inflicted a crushing defeat on the Italian invaders at Adowa in 1896.

[0 to 7 marks] for generalized accounts of resistance movements with little or no understanding of the quotation.

[8 to 10 marks] maximum for answers which refer to the many resisters who were losers *e.g.* the Nandi in Kenya; Mkwawa and the Hehe in German East Africa; Mwanga in Buganda; but fail to challenge the reference in the title to resisters “always” being losers.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers which challenge the claim that “Africans who resisted” were always losers only by a general reference to gains made by Ethiopians and by Africans in German East Africa after Maji Maji.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which challenge the claim by giving details of gains made by Africans in German East Africa and in Ethiopia.

[17+ marks] for answers which argue that, though most resisters in East Africa were losers (*e.g.* the Nandi, the Hehe and followers of Mwanga in Buganda), the Ethiopians under Menelik rejected the Europeans and the Maji Maji resistance partially challenged their validity.

10. For what reasons was John Chilembwe an important and representative figure in the African history of his time?

The focus of answers should be on the reasons why Chilembwe was an important and representative figure in the history of his own country and of Africa generally. His reputation and importance rested on his development of an African Independent Church, a baptist mission station, and several schools in Malawi after his return in 1900 from training in an American Theological College; his part in founding a Natives' Industrial Union in 1909; and his leadership of the 1915 Rising. These were all activities associated with members of the African educated elite. They mostly came too early to attract wide support and be effective. The rising was easily crushed and Chilembwe was shot whilst trying to escape. It was not an attempt to win independence. Its aim was to win reforms which would give Africans leadership roles but use European help in promoting a multi-ethnic state. Chilembwe had some forward-looking ideas and advocated the wearing of European clothes by those on his mission station; but he also wanted traditional elements of African culture to be introduced into African Independent Churches. Perhaps his main importance was that of a man born before his time. He became a martyr who inspired the mass nationalist movements in post-Second World War Africa.

[0 to 7 marks] for superficial, vague answers based on limited knowledge of Chilembwe's work and career.

[8 to 10 marks] for answers that identify his main achievements without linking them to his importance as a representative figure.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers that give some explicit attention to the latter.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers that focus on the reasons for his being seen as a representative figure of the African history of his time.

[17+ marks] for answers which use knowledge of his achievements as outlined above to demonstrate that he was an important and representative figure in the history of his time.

11. Why, and with what results, did Cetshwayo's relations with Britain change?

When Cetshwayo became King of Zululand in 1872 his country was still independent. It faced threats, however, from the British in Natal and the Boers in the Transvaal. British policy at the time was to create a federation of settler-led states in southern Africa. Cetshwayo tried to play off the two white states, British and Boers, against each other and initially he allied with the British in Natal to counter the threat from the Boers in Transvaal.

In 1877 the British annexed the near bankrupt Transvaal which had recently been defeated by the Bapedi, to save it from a Zulu attack. In 1879 after a border incident between the Transvaal and Zulu, Sir Bartle Frere, the British High Commissioner at the Cape, sent an ultimatum to Cetshwayo demanding that he should disband his army and accept a British Resident. He knew that Cetshwayo, reluctant as he was to fight the British, would have to reject the ultimatum. An Anglo-Zulu war followed in which, initially, a surprising defeat was inflicted on the British at Isandhlwana. This defeat was reversed at Ulundi with the arrival of British reinforcements.

The results of the changed relations with Britain were: Cetshwayo was exiled to the Cape. Zululand was divided into thirteen small chiefdoms and civil war followed. In 1883 Cetshwayo was restored to a broken kingdom in an attempt to re-establish order. He failed and died the following year. The Transvaal no longer felt threatened by the Zulu and was less likely than ever to join a British led federation in southern Africa. Zululand had been destroyed as an independent nation. In 1887 it was annexed by Britain and became part of Natal.

[0 to 7 marks] for very general answers which do not show how Cetshwayo's relations with Britain changed, still less "why, and with what results".

[8 to 10 marks] for a narrative of the events which implicitly explain the change in relations and summarise the results.

[11 to 13 marks] for a more explicit explanation of the change and a fuller analysis of the results.

[14 to 16 marks] for an in-depth coverage of both parts of the question.

[17+ marks] for answers which show a broad understanding of the wider context of the change in Anglo-Zulu relations with references to Britain's hopes of creating a federal state in southern Africa and anxiety to avoid the defeat of a white army by an African one, in addition to meeting the requirements for *[14 to 16 marks]*.

**12. “The Boers lost the war (the South Africa war of 1899–1902) but had won the peace by 1910.”
To what extent do you agree with this judgment?**

The best way to justify the judgment quoted would be to begin by accepting that the Boers had not only suffered a military defeat but in other ways the war had been a disaster for them. When the capture of Pretoria did not end the war as expected, the British looted and burned and put thousands of Boers in concentration camps. The social order they had created had broken down and they faced economic ruin. An analysis of the terms of the Treaty of Vereeniging (1902) and of the South Africa Act (1910) show that these were both favourable to the Boers and that the British had been generous in victory. The way was left clear for the Boers to recover economically and gain, politically, almost all that they had fought for:

Terms of the Peace of Vereeniging:

- the two Boer Republics who had lost the war were promised the right of self-government at an early date;
- there were to be no final decisions on the future franchises until after the grant of self-government;
- Afrikaans, the language of the Boers, was accepted as an official language alongside English;
- £3 000 000 in compensation was to be paid to Boer farmers for the resettlement of their farms.

The terms of the South Africa Act 1910:

- there were to be no voting rights for non-whites in the two Boer provinces. Effectively these were to be given only in Cape Province;
- no non-whites were allowed to stand as candidates for election to the Union parliament;
- the boundaries in rural constituencies in the Union were drawn to give maximum influence and weight to Afrikaner voters;
- only on the issue of excluding the three British Protectorates of Basutoland, Bechuanaland and Swaziland from the Union did the terms go against the wishes of the Boers.

Narratives of the war will not reach *[8 marks]*.

[0 to 7 marks] for generalized narratives of the war which show that the question has not been understood.

[8 to 10 marks] for answers which show limited understanding of how the outcome favoured the Boers.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers showing fuller, more explicit analysis.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which use the post-war settlements in general terms to demonstrate in what ways the judgment is justified.

[17+ marks] for answers which give the main terms of the Peace of Vereeniging and the South Africa Act (see above) and show how these gave the Boers, economically and politically, most of what they had fought for.

13. Explain the emergence of the African Independent Church Movement and assess its results with reference to *two* countries.

Explanation of emergence of the movement

The main reasons were:

- the style of management of mission controlled churches: in particular the slow speed of the ordination of African priests and of their promotion within the hierarchy; and the reluctance of the leadership to incorporate aspects of African culture within the form of worship;
- to create a means of protest against certain aspects of colonial rule (*e.g.* land alienation, oppressive taxation, the use of forced labour) in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century.

The best choice of two countries for explaining the reasons for, and assessing the results of, the emergence would be Malawi and Nigeria.

Assessment of results

Reasons for emergence varied from one leader to another. There was greater similarity about their results. All were examples of protest against colonialism in general and against foreign control of churches. All were, therefore, early examples of African nationalism. Only Chilembwe in Malawi carried protest to the point of open rebellion. Most leaders were opposed to the use of violence. All were advocates of more and better education as a means of improving living standards and promoting progress and justice. All believed that Christianity in Africa must come to terms with African culture and the African personality and did their best to bring this about.

[0 to 7 marks] for unbalanced, superficial answers with little focus on explanation and which make no attempt to assess results.

[8 to 10 marks] for answers that are mainly narratives but show an implicit understanding of reasons and results based on a limited amount of knowledge of the movement.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers which are more explicit in their analysis of reasons and results but mostly in reference to only one country.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers that are analytical, and comprehensive in their coverage of reasons and results.

[17+ marks] for answers that meet the requirements of the **[14 to 16 marks]** band answers and are reasonably well balanced in their treatment of the two countries.

14. Assess Haile Selassie’s achievements as leader of Ethiopia and explain his downfall in 1974.

Haile Selassie’s career as leader of Ethiopia falls into two parts: as Regent (1916–1930), as Emperor (1930–1974). As Regent he spent much time pacifying the country and introducing reforms in health and education. He continued this work as Emperor, along with attempts to centralise government, until it was interrupted by the Italian invasion and occupation from 1936 to 1941.

He played a part, along with the allies, in expelling the Italians. After the war he gained a reputation as an elder statesman in Africa by becoming involved in attempts to achieve a form of African unity. In 1963 he hosted the meeting of African states in Addis Ababa which set up the Organisation of African Unity, perhaps his greatest achievement. From then on his reputation declined. His social reforms remained beyond the reach of the mass of the population. Attempts at industrialisation achieved little and the economy remained underdeveloped. As criticism of his regime increased it became oppressive. Arbitrary arrest and imprisonment were common.

Opposition from junior civil servants and army officers grew during the mid-1960s and drought and a disastrous famine in the early 1970s led to strikes and revolts. In 1974 he was deposed by a coup led by young, left wing army officers. His downfall sprang from his failure to meet the needs of the great mass of poor Ethiopians.

[0 to 7 marks] for unbalanced answers which fail to explain his downfall and make an uncritical attempt, on the basis of limited knowledge of his achievements, to assess these.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers which make little attempt at assessment and are based on limited knowledge of his achievements.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers which make some attempt at assessment, reach a mixed verdict about his achievements and a brief explanation of his downfall.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which focus on assessment of his various achievements on the basis of adequate, accurate knowledge and also attempt a reasonable explanation of his downfall.

[17+ marks] for answers which make a critical assessment of his achievements followed by a persuasive explanation of his downfall.

15. Which factors helped, and which hindered, progress to independence in Tanganyika and Kenya?

Factors that helped progress were dominant in Tanganyika; those that hindered were dominant in Kenya.

Tanganyika

Factors that helped

A single, dominant nationalist party, TANU; an able leader, Julius Nyerere, who fought a non-violent campaign through TANU, using democratic, constitutional methods, and established good relations with Governor Turnbull from 1958; the absence of any serious rivalry between large tribes; the absence of a large settler population; the UN Trusteeship status of the territory which required Britain to report progress towards independence annually and which Nyerere used skilfully to his advantage.

Factors that hindered

The country's poverty and economic backwardness coupled with the shortage of well-educated citizens which raised doubts about its ability to run its own affairs.

Kenya

Factors that helped

Jomo Kenyatta, when he first returned to Nairobi in 1946 after a long absence in Europe, was accepted as a national leader and became President of the Kenya African Union in 1947. He seemed set to lead an independence campaign.

Factors that hindered

The violent Mau Mau Emergency which started in 1952. Though this was denounced by Kenyatta, he was arrested and charged with controlling the movement and sentenced to seven years imprisonment; Kenyatta's imprisonment led to divisions in the independence struggle and competition between rival leaders; it also led to rivalry between the two largest tribes, the Kikuyu and Luo, represented by KANU, and the large number of small minority tribes represented by KADU; the presence of a large settler population who were reluctant to surrender power to the African majority; the British were reluctant to grant independence because they feared that civil war would break out between the two rival political parties.

The outcome was that Tanganyika became independent in 1962, a year before Kenya.

[0 to 7 marks] for answers which are generalized and vague, showing little or no understanding of which factors helped or hindered progress towards independence.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers which lack focus on factors that helped and those that hindered progress to independence.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers that randomly identify a limited number of the factors listed above without emphasizing the contrast between the situation in the two countries.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers that identify a good selection of the factors listed above and also comment on their impact on the independence campaigns in the two countries.

[17+ marks] for answers which cover most of these factors and link them to the fact that Tanganyika achieved independence earlier than Kenya.

16. Why did the Gold Coast (Ghana) achieve independence before Nigeria?

In 1946 a new constitution in the Gold Coast gave Africans a majority in the Legislative Council. In 1949 the Gold Coast developed Africa's first nationalist party with mass appeal, the Convention People's Party (CPP), to campaign for "self government now" and "justice and equality for all". It was ably led by the charismatic Kwame Nkrumah who also established a good working relationship with an understanding Governor, Sir Charles Arden Clarke.

Nigeria's path to independence was much less smooth. It was complicated by regional, ethnic and religious differences which made cooperation between its leaders, and agreement on an acceptable independence constitution, more difficult. Three tribally based parties and three ethnic leaders emerged. The National Council for Nigeria and Cameroon (NCNC) in the south east, led by Namdi Azikiwe, was dominated by mainly Christian Ibos; the Action Group (AG) in the south west was dominated by Yoruba, also mainly Christian; and the Northern People's Congress (NPC) which was largely Muslim. A compromise had to be found and this delayed Nigerian independence until 1960.

In the Gold Coast, a much smaller country, similar regional/ethnic problems emerged in the late stages of the independence struggle when opponents of the dominant CPP tried to play on the ethnic fears of the Asante and Ewe. These were nothing like so serious as those in Nigeria, and Ghana moved smoothly to independence in 1957. Agreement was finally reached in Nigeria three years later on a federal constitution which gave significant powers to the prime ministers of the three regions and reserved only limited powers to the federal government.

A comparative approach to this question would probably work better than separate accounts for each country.

[0 to 7 marks] for superficial, general answers based on limited specific, accurate knowledge of one or the other of the two countries' independence campaigns which do not answer the question effectively.

[8 to 10 marks] for a mainly narrative answer on the road to independence in each country with implicit references to factors which accelerated progress to independence in Ghana and delayed it in Nigeria.

[11 to 13 marks] for similar answers with more explicit comments on the above factors.

[14 to 16 marks] for analytical answers with comparative approach, which focus on the differences between the two countries and show how these affected the achievement of independence in each.

[17+ marks] for answers which meet most of the requirements of the *[14 to 16 marks]* answers and show how the majority of the differences between the two countries speeded up progress to independence in Ghana and delayed progress in Nigeria.

17. **“The establishment of the Central African Federation was a blatant attempt by the white settlers in the area to prolong their political dominance in three countries.” How valid is this claim?**

From the outset of the campaign for a Federation of the Rhodesias and Nyasaland, the Africans in the region were against the project because they feared that this was the settlers’ objective. The British Government approved the scheme after being assured that African interests would be protected. Events soon raised serious doubts about such assurances and confirmed the fears of the Africans. The first changes to voting rights in the Federation were insignificant. The British Government set up two Commissions under Lord Devlin and Lord Monckton in 1958 to report on the situation. Devlin reported that “African opposition was deeply rooted and almost universally held”. Monckton said that in the Federation “partnership for Africans was a sham”, and that, unless the review of the three constitutions due between 1960 and 1962 made “drastic changes” in their racial policies, the federation should not be allowed to continue. The Southern Rhodesian constitution, the first to be reviewed, contained no such changes. Dismemberment of the Federation started and Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia became independent in 1964.

[0 to 7 marks] for generalized accounts with little or no reference to the quotation.

[8 to 10 marks] for answers which make reference to the claim but do not mention the Devlin and Monckton Commissions as evidence for doing so.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers which examine the claim and show awareness of the two commissioners’ support for this conclusion.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which analyse the claim, focus on the reports of the two commissioners and also use other evidence.

[17+ marks] for answers which analyse the claim in full and focus closely on the two commissioners’ reports, and use other evidence perceptively.

18. For what reasons, and with what results, was Zaire unstable between 1960 and 1965?

The time frame spans the few years between independence and the beginning of Mobutu's presidency in November 1965. The short, basic answer is that, at the end of 1959 Belgium, fearing the spread of violence and anarchy, decided to grant independence to the Belgian Congo by the end of June 1960. This gave too little time for preparing the country for a transfer of power at a time when few Congolese were educated beyond primary level and the country had very few university graduates and skilled personnel. Its inhabitants had not had any experience of participation in politics or economic management.

Another root cause of the breakdown of order was tribal rivalry in this huge country of many tribes. The main tribes were the Bakongo, the Kasai and the Katanga. There were two tribally based parties: ABAKO, led by Kasavubu, representing the interests of the Bakongo, and CONAKAT, led by Tshombe, representing those of Katanga. A third party, the Mouvement National Congolais (MNC) was led by Lumumba. At the end of June 1960, the country became independent. Kasavubu became President and Lumumba Prime Minister. There was tension between them from the start and the country began to fall apart. Within a week of independence the army mutinied and attacked the Europeans, most of whom left the country. A week later mineral-rich Katanga seceded under its Prime Minister Tshombe, who had not been given a place in the Federal government. Law and order collapsed. The economy went into rapid decline. Local tribal wars broke out. A UN force sent into the country to restore law and order refused to end the secession of Katanga as Lumumba wished and Lumumba appealed to the Russians. For a time there was a danger of a West-Communist bloc confrontation. Tshombe created an army consisting mainly of white mercenary troops. Lumumba, expelled from the national government by the intervention of the army under Colonel Mobutu, set up a rival government in Stanleyville. Lumumba fell into the hands of Tshombe's troops and was murdered. In July 1964 Tshombe, after a year's exile in Europe, was appointed Prime Minister by Kasavubu and used mercenary and Belgian troops to bring rebellious areas back under the control of the Leopoldville government in November 1964. By 1965, however, he was dismissed after being involved in election rigging. Finally after over five years of chaos Mobutu, now a General, staged another coup and declared himself President in November 1965.

[0 to 7 marks] for largely narrative answers to a question which essentially requires explanation.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers based on limited knowledge which show a general understanding of the fact that basic internal factors were mainly responsible for the instability but that a bad situation was made worse by various forms of foreign intervention.

[11 to 13 marks] for fuller, analytical answers which, based on more knowledge, reach the same conclusion.

[14 to 16 marks] for in-depth analytical answers which, based on extensive knowledge, reach the same conclusions.

[17+ marks] for answers which, though they can contain the story of the first five or six years of Zaire's independence, also contain an analytical element which identifies and explains the reasons for the chaos which followed the granting of independence in 1960.

19. In what respects was apartheid, as established between 1948 and 1961, different from the segregation which preceded it?

The main features of South Africa's policy of apartheid were identifiable in the system practised before 1948: virtually no political rights for Africans; residential segregation of the races; exploitation of African workers, and severe restrictions on the jobs available to them. This system was built on a few key pieces of legislation: the Natives Land Act 1913; the Native Urban Areas Act 1923; the Mines and Works Act 1926 and Hertzog's Segregation Laws 1936.

Nevertheless there were fundamental differences between apartheid and what had preceded it:

- apartheid was presented as a new, positive ideology developed to meet new and changing circumstances *e.g.* the emergence of a new kind of mass opposition in the form of the reformed ANC;
- apartheid was formalised and underpinned by massive, new legislation which was constantly being updated to meet new threats to white domination. The main pieces of new legislation included: the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act 1949; the Immorality Amendment Act; the Population Registration Act; the Suppression of Communism Act; the Group Areas Act 1950; the Bantu Authorities Act 1951; the Abolition of Passes and Coordination of Documents Act 1952; the Bantu Education Act 1953; the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act (PettyApartheid) 1953; the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act 1959; the Extension of University Education Act 1959; the General Laws Amendment Acts 1961–64.

[0 to 7 marks] for superficial, generalized answers based on inadequate knowledge of the two different bodies of legislation which underlined the two systems: segregation pre-1948 and apartheid post-1948.

[8 to 10 marks] for answers which give limited identification of differences based on inadequate knowledge/understanding of the two systems.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers giving more complete identification of differences based on fuller knowledge/understanding of the systems.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers based on comprehensive knowledge of the systems, illustrated with specific references to pre-1948 and 1948–61 legislation.

[17+ marks] for answers which meet the requirements for the **[14 to 16 marks]** band and also contain some explanation of why much additional legislation was needed after 1948 to safeguard white domination.

20. Analyse the rise and fall of Idi Amin in Uganda.

Rise

With the benefit of hindsight it can be seen that, unwittingly, the rise of Amin was brought about by the actions of President Obote himself who was overthrown by Amin in an army and police coup in January 1971 when Obote was out of the country. In 1966 Amin had been appointed by Obote as Commander in Chief of the army and police. Obote's action was taken at a time when his relations with Buganda and its Kabaka were strained and the Kabaka had been sent into exile. Amin's rise was, therefore, the result of Obote's sense of insecurity and Amin's ambition. After the coup Amin took immediate action to make himself an absolute ruler. He dissolved Parliament and set up a Defence Council with himself as chairman. Temporarily he tried to win the support of the Baganda who had cause to be grateful to him for the overthrow of Obote. His main support, however, came from the Muslim north of the country. In these early days he also received some support from Britain and Israel.

Fall

Much of his initial support was quickly eroded by his purges of suspected enemies and his corrupt management of the economy. In the autumn of 1972 he expelled 40 000 Ugandan Asians, a step which sent the economy into serious decline. His relations with Britain became strained over the threats to execute the author Denis Hills who had written a book which was critical of the president. Infringements of the borders with Kenya and Tanzania led to minor local clashes. Finally, in 1979 Tanzania, which had given refuge to Obote, launched a full-scale invasion. After eight months fighting, Amin's army, which had been seriously weakened by Amin's attempts to purge it of Obote's Lango and Acholi supporters, surrendered and Amin escaped to Libya.

Good answers here may be based on narrative interspersed with some analysis and explanation, as in the notes above.

[0 to 7 marks] for narrative answers which may be limited to one part of the question and contain little or no analysis.

[8 to 10 marks] for unbalanced two-part answers or largely narrative answers containing little or no analysis of either rise or fall.

[11 to 13 marks] for more balanced two-part answers with some analysis of rise and fall.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers which are mainly analytical and focused explanations of rise and fall.

[17+ marks] for well balanced answers which focus on an in-depth analysis of the reasons for Amin's rise and fall.

21. Compare and contrast Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia and Hastings Banda of Malawi as rulers of their countries since independence.

Since two leaders are involved do not expect too much detailed knowledge to be shown. A good introduction might summarise the problems which faced their countries at independence. Answers in the form of running comparisons will be more acceptable and effective than two end-on outlines of the leaders' careers and work with a concluding paragraph which briefly compares their achievements.

Both were charismatic and popular at the start of their presidencies. Each had played a leading role in the struggle for independence and were obvious choices to become the first presidents of their countries after independence. Both made their countries single party states. Kaunda did so in 1972 with some excuse in a country inhabited by more than seventy tribes which was in danger of falling apart. Eventually, however, under pressure, Kaunda agreed to hold multi-party elections and in 1991 he was defeated in the first of these by Chiluba. Banda's regime was far more repressive than that of Kaunda whose Christian humanism did much to temper his authoritarianism. Banda gradually concentrated more power in his own hands and held the offices of Foreign Minister and Minister of Justice as well as that of Prime Minister. Malawi was also more corrupt than Kaunda's Zambia and a small proportion of the population owned a large part of the national wealth. Kaunda diversified Zambia's economy to make it less dependent on copper. He promoted education to make it more widely available whereas in Malawi there were a few prestigious schools which were accessible only to the wealthy elite.

In foreign policy, though Kaunda disapproved of the racist policies of South Africa and Southern Rhodesia he tried to restrain the Zambian militants who wanted strong action against them. He held talks with the South African President Vorster to try to find a solution to the crisis caused by the Smith regime in S. Rhodesia. In contrast, under Banda, Malawi had commercial links with South Africa and was the first African country to establish diplomatic relations with South Africa, a policy which left Malawi more politically isolated.

[0 to 7 marks] for answers which are generalized and may include irrelevant material.

[8 to 10 marks] maximum for unbalanced answers which are virtually restricted to one ruler and where comparison and contrast are therefore absent.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers which, though unbalanced, attempt some comparison/contrast.

[14 to 16 marks] for balanced answers based on a well documented, running comparison/contrast which covers different aspects of the policies of the two leaders.

[17+ marks] for answers which are based on sound knowledge of the domestic and foreign policies and well balanced in every sense. In particular, answers should identify both similarities and differences between the characters and policies of the two rulers.

22. How do you account for the length and stability of the rule of *either* Leopold Senghor in Senegal *or* Félix Houphouët-Boigny in the Ivory Coast?

Some reasons are common to both leaders; others apply to only one or the other.

Reasons which apply to both leaders:

- each had acquired a reputation and prestige as a leader of the struggle for independence in his own country;
- each had served as a member of the French Assembly and Houphouët-Boigny as a member of the French cabinet (1956–1959) after severing his links with the French Communist Party; thus both had close links with France and French political life. By 1960 when each became President of his country, they were trusted as moderates;
- after independence French expatriates continued to hold important posts in both countries, especially in education and commerce;
- France also continued to keep a military presence in each country (a military base in Dakar in Senegal and garrisons in Ivory Coast). This helps to explain why both leaders survived in times of crisis. In Senegal Senghor was threatened in his early years as President. Houphouët-Boigny's position was at risk several times in the 1970s.

Reasons which apply to only one or the other leader:

- Senghor, by 1966, managed to persuade many of those who were originally his opponents to switch their allegiance to his own party (the Union Progressive Sénégalaise) and in the 1970s he felt secure enough to legalise the existence of several opposition parties which he later defeated in democratic elections. He survived, in spite of being threatened by economic crises, until 1980;
- Houphouët-Boigny formed a one party state (Parti Démocratique de la Côte d'Ivoire) and banned all opposition parties. He suppressed all serious opposition and survived with the help of a skilful mixture of compromise and persuasion until 1993.

[0 to 7 marks] for generalized answers which make no reference to the reasons for the length and stability of the rule of the chosen leader.

[8 to 10 marks] for mainly narrative answers which, implicitly, contain some reasons for the length and stability of the chosen leader's government.

[11 to 13 marks] for narrative answers with more explicit focus on the reasons for the length and stability of the chosen leader's rule.

[14 to 16 marks] for analytical answers with focus on the reasons for the length and stability of the chosen leader's rule.

[17+ marks] for analytical answers which focus on the reasons for the length and stability of the chosen leader's rule and include most of the reasons given in the notes above.

23. Analyse the impact of African membership on the activities of the United Nations Organisation up to 1995.

The decolonisation of Africa led to some fifty additional countries becoming members of the UNO. These new members were active in calling for the liberation of countries still under colonial rule. They were also active in arranging for UN aid to be sent to help newly independent countries solve their problems as happened in the case of the Congo between 1960 and 1964. They also played a part in sending UN aid to countries where civil wars had broken out since independence e.g. Mozambique. The General Assembly and the Security Council both passed resolutions relating to Rhodesia after its unilateral declaration of independence in 1965.

Candidates might mention the reaction of the UN to the civil wars in Angola and the work of UNAVEM; or to the situations in Somalia and Rwanda in the early 1990s and the work of UNOSOM and UNITAF. The African members took the lead in the passing of many resolutions condemning apartheid in South Africa and assisted in the dismantling of the system. Several UN bodies including the International Court of Justice, the Security Council and the Trusteeship Council were involved in the affairs of Namibia where eventually the transition to independence was overseen by UNTAG.

Candidates may also refer to the appointment of two Africans, Boutros Ghali and Kofi Annan, to the office of Secretary-General of the Organisation.

Increased African membership has also led to an increase in the number of special agencies (the establishment of UNEP in Nairobi); and an expansion in the scope of the activities of some existing agencies (UNICEF, UNHCR, WHO, FAO and WFP).

N.B. This question is open ended, with no specified number of required references and no geographical restrictions. Clearly, however, the wider the coverage the better, providing references are linked to African membership.

[0 to 7 marks] for narratives of the activities of the UNO which are not linked to the impact of African membership in any way.

[8 to 10 marks] for answers which are limited to a general summary of UN activities in Africa with implicit reference to African members' influence.

[11 to 13 marks] for analytical answers with some explicit reference to the impact of African members on any UN activities.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers with in-depth analysis of the impact of African membership supported with detailed knowledge of a variety of activities.

[17+ marks] for answers as in the *[14 to 16 marks]* band supported with references to six or more of the activities listed in the notes above.

24. How successful has the Organisation of African Unity been in achieving its aims?

The Organisation was established in 1963.

The obvious introduction would be a statement of the Organisation's aims:

- to promote closer ties and solidarity amongst Africa's states with the ultimate aim of political unity;
- to liberate African countries still under colonial rule;
- to mediate in conflicts between member states;
- to avoid interference from outside the continent, whether in the form of military aggression or neocolonialism and protect members from such interference;
- to promote economic and social cooperation and progress amongst member states.

How successful?

The area in which the greatest success has been achieved is that of freeing the continent from colonial rule. From the foundation of the Organisation this has been the one area on which there has been no disagreement amongst members. This has enabled the Organisation to put strong pressure on colonial powers, and on individual members to give support and refuge to nationalist organisations in exile. Egypt and Tanzania have played major roles in this respect. Success has been less complete in combating interference and less overt forms of neocolonialism by outside powers. During the Cold War there were examples of the rival blocs introducing their rivalry into the continent: *e.g.* in the Belgian Congo, Angola and Ethiopia. Nor has there been much success in mediating in inter-state disputes *e.g.* Ethiopia/Somalia; Kenya/Somalia; and in civil wars in Nigeria; Sudan; Somalia; the Belgian Congo and Angola.

There has been limited success in the achievement of economic, social and political co-operation at regional level in: the East African Community (EAC); the Economic Organisation of West African States (ECOWAS); the Southern African Development Coordination Conference (SADCC).

[0 to 7 marks] for answers which make no attempt to define the OAU's aims and provides no basis on which to answer the question.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers that give a reasonably accurate definition of aims and a summary of the problems facing the organisation but have little or no focus on its success in achieving aims.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers that focus on the question but lack depth and are thin on analysis.

[14 to 16 marks] for answers that clearly identify the aims and assess the extent to which they have been achieved.

[17+ marks] for answers which meet the requirements of the **[14 to 16 marks]** band but also show an understanding of the continent's situation in the post-independence years and the formidable obstacles to complete success.

25. **“The growth of urbanisation since independence has had an enormous impact, mainly negative, on economic, social and political conditions in much of Africa.” Using specific examples, explain how far you agree with this statement.**

Migration from the countryside into towns had already become significant in the last years of colonial rule. The phenomenon had accelerated in the 1960s as a result of countries becoming independent, population growth and perceived employment opportunities in towns. Capitals attracted most migrants, but many provincial centres also experienced a rise in population. By the beginning of the 1990s town dwellers in sub-Saharan Africa comprised nearly one third of the population. The most rapid growth was in those countries which suffered serious rural dislocation, often as a result of civil wars. Lack of housing and poverty were amongst the biggest problems and these led to the appearance of slums around all Africa’s capital cities and most major provincial centres. The expectations of better employment opportunities did not last. Initially, in the 1960s, urban wages were much higher than those in rural areas. By the 1980s they had fallen by 30% on average and urban unemployment of around 20% became a major problem in many countries. Bare survival in many towns and cities became dependent on “informal” occupations in the absence of “real” jobs. A “second economy” came into existence. This was very dependent on ethnic ties and in many capital cities ethnic “communities” emerged to provide services like “private schools”, vigilante forces, welfare associations which were no longer provided by local authorities. The usual rise in crime rates followed these mounting problems and created new ones: street children, prostitution, drug abuse, urban riots over food prices. In some countries the decaying capital cities became centres of political activity. This helped to precipitate military coups which became common in the late 1960s; but by the end of the 1980s the targets of urban political activity became one party states and one outcome was a rise in multi-party states. Another less desirable outcome, however, was the emergence of armed groups of youths who terrorised countries like Mozambique, Somalia, Sierra Leone and Liberia.

One would expect that the material provided in answers would lead candidates to express general agreement with the comment in the quotation in the title.

[0 to 7 marks] for answers consisting of vague generalizations about the problems and difficulties of urban life in post-independence Africa, unsupported by specific evidence; and ignoring the instruction “explain how far you agree”.

[8 to 10 marks] for descriptive answers with only implicit reference to impact and no response to “explain how far you agree...”.

[11 to 13 marks] for answers with some explicit reference to the impact of urbanisation on two of the areas in the title and some response to “explain how far you agree”.

[14 to 16 marks] for analytical answers covering the impact of urbanization on all three areas in the title: economic, social and political, and showing general agreement with the comment in the quotation in the title.

[17+ marks] for answers meeting the requirements of the *[14 to 16 marks]* band and providing specific examples from three or more different countries.
