

A Short History of Africa

Chapter 1. The Races of Africa.	3
Chapter 2. The Kushites : Meroe : Nubia.	5
Chapter 3. North Africa until the 7th Century A.D. : Carthage : Rome : The Vandals : Byzantium.....	6
Chapter 4. North Africa : The Arabs.	9
Chapter 5. The Early Kingdoms of the Western and Central Sudan.	11
Chapter 6. Eastern and Central Africa : The Swahili.	13
Chapter 7. The West African Forest Kingdoms.	15
Chapter 9. Portuguese Exploration and Colonisation.....	18
Chapter 10. The Slave Trade.	20
Chapter 12. Africa in the Early Years of the 19th Century.	22
Chapter 12. European Exploration 1770-1870.	25
Chapter 13. French and British Activities in Africa from the 1820s to 1880s.	27
Chapter 14. The "Scramble for Africa".....	30
Chapter 15. The Colonial Period.	34
Chapter 16. The Africans become Independent.	36
Chapter 18. After Independence: North Africa.....	42
Chapter 19. After Independence: The Countries of the Sudan.....	45
Chapter 20. After Independence - West Africa.....	48
Chapter 22. After Independence: Central Africa.	59
Chapter 23. After Independence: Southern Central Africa.	64
Chapter 24. Southern Africa since 1965.	67
Map: Ancient Africa	71
Map: 15 th to 19 th Centuries	73
Map: The Colonial Period	75
Map: After Independence	76

Foreword.

This is a short history of Africa excluding Egypt, Ethiopia and (Dutch and British) South Africa, which are the subjects of separate histories. Some of the history of these countries, however, is naturally mentioned in this history of the rest of Africa - but is kept to the minimum needed to make the rest comprehensible.

This short history has been compiled from the study of a number of works, including the Encyclopedia Britannica, the Encyclopedia Americana, Every-man's Encyclopedia, W.L.Langer's "Encyclopedia of World History", other reference books such as Whitaker's Almanack and The Statesman's Year Book, "The Last Two Million Years" published by the Readers' Digest, and "Discovering Africa's Past" by Basil Davidson.

Chapter 1. The Races of Africa.

The two main races inhabiting Africa in early times were the Berbers of the Mediterranean coastlands and the Negroes of equatorial Africa. The Berbers (and the ancient Egyptians) were of Hamitic stock - racially Caucasian, with "European" facial characteristics. The Negroes included the small-statured Pygmies. The pygmies, and a third race - the rather yellow skinned Bushmen - may have been widely spread over central and southern Africa until they were driven from the most fruitful lands by the Negroes. The descendants of the Pygmies now inhabit the forests of central Africa. Only small numbers of Bushmen now survive, mainly in the Kalahari desert in the south.

Between the northern coastlands and equatorial Africa is the Sahara desert. Until the end of the last Ice Age (about 8000 B.C.) the Sahara was a fertile grassland. It then started to dry up, much of it remaining habitable until about 2000 B.C. The early inhabitants of the Sahara were probably a mixture of Berbers and Negroes. Recently discovered rock paintings show that cattle keeping was a major occupation in what appears to have been a peaceful life. The paintings also show that music and dancing were important to these ancient Africans - as they are to the modern Negroes.

Between about 4000 and 2000 B.C., as the desert spread, the peoples of the Sahara gradually emigrated to the north, east and south though some remained, learning to live with little water: their descendants are the Berber Tuareg of the desert today (whose men wear veils).

Those who went South settled in the western and central Sudan. (The term Sudan relates to the wide strip of grassland stretching across Africa, south of the Sahara and Egypt. The western Sudan is separated from the coast to the south by a belt of dense forest.) In the Sudan the newcomers mixed with other Negro tribes to form the Bantu-speaking peoples, who gradually spread into central, eastern and southern Africa.

In the eastern Sudan, south of Egypt, another civilisation arose, starting about 1000 B.C. - that of the Kushites, probably a mixture of Hamitic and Negro stock. Further east is Ethiopia. The Ethiopians were probably of Hamitic origin, mixed later with Arabs from Arabia.

Historical times, that is when history is known with reasonable accuracy and some detail, started on widely different dates in the different regions of Africa, very roughly as follows: -

Egypt - about 3000 B.C.

Nush - about 1000 B.C.

Berber North Africa - about 1000 B.C.

Ethiopia - about A.D. 0

Western and Central Sudan - about A.D. 300.

East Africa - about A.D. 700.

The Forest lands south of the Western Sudan - about A.D. 1000.

As mentioned in the foreword, Egypt and Ethiopia (and modern Dutch and British South Africa) are the subjects of separate histories. The following chapters deal with the early histories of the peoples in the other five regions

Chapter 2. The Kushites : Meroe : Nubia.

During the time of ancient Egypt's glory - during the third and second millennia B.C. - the influence of Egyptian civilisation was strong in the land to the south, the eastern or Egyptian Sudan, often called Nubia and known to the Egyptians as Kush. The northern Nubians, darker skinned than the Egyptians, may have originally come from Asia; those further south were Negroes. Egypt traded with, fought with, and to some extent ruled over these peoples.

A Kushite civilisation in Nubia, with its capital at Napata, flourished from the 11th century B.C.; and at the same time Egypt entered into a long period of weakness and divided rule. About 750 B.C. the Kushites began the conquest of Egypt, and in 715 established there a Kushite dynasty (misleadingly known as the Ethiopian Dynasty). But about 50 years later the Kushites were driven out of Egypt, after some tremendous battles, by invading Assyrians.

The Kushite kings retired to their old capital at Napata, where they continued to rule until early in the 6th century B.C. They then transferred their capital to Meroe, 300 miles further south, perhaps because Meroe was situated in an area rich in iron ore.

The Kushite Kingdom of Meroe lasted for eight centuries, until about A.D. 320, when it was destroyed by the King of Axum, the rising power in Ethiopia. The Kushite civilisation vanished completely. It was not until very recently that knowledge of it has been compiled, from inscriptions in tombs and the ruins of Meroe and Napata. The Meroitic writing has been partly deciphered, though the language is dead.

The Kushites were great traders - from Red Sea ports to the east, and through Egypt where their relations with the Ptolemies in the last centuries B.C. were generally friendly. The Kushites were skilled iron workers; and their armies gained strength from their horsed cavalry and their taming and use of the elephant. Meroe was a splendid city, with a magnificent palace and a beautifully decorated Temple of the Sun.

About 200 years after the destruction of Meroe the Nubian descendants of the Kushites were converted to Christianity by missionary monks from Egypt (where at that time Christianity was widespread). There then existed for many centuries Christian kingdoms in Nubia, where the people appear to have led a comfortable life. Good farmers and craftsmen, they were also greatly interested in learning. They developed a modified form of Greek writing suitable for their own language, and built schools and libraries.

After the Moslem conquest of Egypt in the 7th century (see chapter 4) the Nubian Christians continued on friendly terms with Egypt until about 1250, when their kingdoms were invaded by Moslem Arabs and African neighbours who had been converted to Islam. By the 14th century this Nubian Christian civilisation had faded out.

Chapter 3. North Africa until the 7th Century A.D. : Carthage : Rome : The Vandals : Byzantium.

North Africa in this history refers to what is now Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Libya. In Roman times Mauretania (the land of the Mauri - or Moors) coincided roughly with modern Morocco. It is not to be confused with present day Mauritania; which is further south. And the Roman name for part of what is now Tunisia and Algeria was Numidia. Western Libya was (and still is) called Tripolitania, and eastern Libya Cyrenaica.

The Berbers of North Africa in ancient times were largely nomadic, and never united into a single state. There were also many traders, engaging particularly in the trans-Saharan trade with the peoples of the Sudan. The traders settled in towns, which often developed into kingdoms.

During the second millennium B.C. Libyan chiefs periodically raided Egypt. Then, during the time of Egypt's weakness after the power of the Pharaohs collapsed in the 11th century B.C., Libyan mercenaries in the Egyptian army established the Libyan Dynasty in Egypt, about 950 B.C. The dynasty lasted for two centuries (followed by a further period of confusion in Egypt and its conquest by the Kushites).

In the 7th century, B.C. the Greeks colonised Cyrenaica, building the city of Cyrene, which became famous for its intellectual life, notably its schools of philosophy and medicine. The Greeks continued to rule there until the Persians conquered Egypt and Cyrenaica towards the end of the 6th century. In the 330s B.C. the Persian Empire was destroyed by Alexander the Great; and on the division of Alexander's empire after his death Egypt and Cyrenaica passed to the Greek Ptolemies.

Meanwhile in Tunisia the sea trading Semitic Phoenicians from Tyre (in Lebanon) had founded the colony of Carthage about 800 B.C. near the present day city of Tunis. By the 5th century Carthage had become the capital of a huge trading empire on the coasts and islands of the western and central Mediterranean, in places, particularly Sicily, rivalled by Greek colonies.

In Africa, Carthaginian trading ports extended all along the coast from Tunisia to Morocco, and their ships went through the Straits of Gibraltar and down the Atlantic coast in search of trade. (They also went as far as Britain, where they traded for tin from the Cornish mines.) They founded settlements on the west African coast in Senegal and Guinea. They also took part in the trans-Saharan trade.

By the 3rd century B.C. Carthage - a republic ruled by an aristocracy based on wealth - came into conflict with the rising power of Rome, which had taken over from the Greek colonies as Carthage's main rival in the central Mediterranean. Two long wars between Rome and Carthage ensued, from 264 to 241 B.C. and 219 to 201 (known as the Punic Wars).

The result of the first war was the cession of Sicily to Rome. There was then a period of uneasy peace. Carthage had to deal with a revolt of her African mercenaries, who formed the bulk of the rank and file of her armies and had not been paid. Rome took advantage of this to seize Corsica and Sardinia. Then the Carthaginian Hamilcar

Barca, having quelled the mercenaries' revolt, proceeded during the next ten years, until his death in 228 B.C, to build up an empire in Spain (where the Carthaginians were already established as traders) as a base for a land attack on Rome.

Carthage was now at the height of her prosperity. Her population is said to have been about a million, fed from the very fertile surrounding district; and her trade and manufactures were thriving.

In 221 B.C. Hamilcar's son, the 26 year old Hannibal, became Commander-in-chief in Spain. As a child he had pledged to his father his dedication to the cause of revenge against Rome. In 219 he picked a quarrel with Rome and led an army of some 25,000 African and Spanish troops - and some war elephants - through Gaul and across the Alps to Italy, raising an army of Gauls on the way as his ally.

For 14 years the brilliant Hannibal campaigned against vastly more numerous Roman forces without defeat; but without siege equipment he could not capture Rome. Meanwhile the Roman general Scipio had evicted the Carthaginians from Spain, and in 204 B.C. he invaded Africa. Allied to the African King Massinissa of eastern Numidia, Scipio defeated the Carthaginians. The oligarchy of Carthage recalled Hannibal from Italy, but with a hastily levied army he suffered his first and only defeat, at Zama in 202 B.C. This concluded the Second Punic War and Carthage lost all except her African possessions to Rome.

Hannibal became head of the Carthaginian government, so ably that Rome - which feared a Carthaginian recovery - forced him to be exiled. After many adventures, in which he acted as adviser to enemies of Rome, he committed suicide, in 182 B.C, to avoid falling into Roman hands.

Carthage's commercial ability, however, enabled her revival to continue, to the extent that she again became a source of fear and envy to Rome. In 149 B.C. Rome found an excuse for launching the Third Punic War, Carthage having been provoked into breaking a clause in the previous peace treaty by the aggressive action of the now aged King Massinissa. Rome sent an army to Africa, and after a heroic resistance the city of Carthage fell in 146 B.C. The Romans totally destroyed the city, and the site was ploughed over and salted so that the land would remain infertile. Only about 50,000 of the population survived, many to be sold to slavery. So ended the Carthaginian Empire, and all its possessions passed to Rome.

From this time until early in the 5th century A.D. the whole of North Africa was under varying degrees of Roman rule or influence. Egypt was virtually a Roman dependency from 168 B.C, and became formally a province of the Roman Empire after the defeat and suicide of Cleopatra in 30 B.C. Cyrenaica became a Roman province in 74 B.C, after being bequeathed to Rome by one of the later Ptolemies. Tripolitania, after the defeat of Carthage, fell to Massinissa and was ruled by Numidian kings until annexed by Julius Caesar in 46 B.C. Pezzan, the Libyan desert area where the native Garamantes had for several centuries dominated the Sahara caravan route, was conquered by Rome in 19 B.C. Numidia, under King Jugurtha (Massinissa's grandson), gave Rome a lot of trouble in a war from 111 to 106 B.C. After Jugurtha's defeat Numidia went through various vicissitudes until it finally became a Roman province. Mauretania appears in history as a kingdom at the time of the Jugurthine war. The degree of Roman control was less here, with native kingdoms surviving as allies or subject states of Rome.

North Africa as a whole flourished during the Roman period. Roads and towns were built, and Tunisia provided a granary for the sustenance of the Roman armies. The population was a mixture of the indigenous Berbers, the remaining Phoenicians from the Carthaginian era, and Roman colonists - who intermarried with the Africans.

Carthage itself was rebuilt, the first colonists being sent there by Julius Caesar a hundred years after its destruction. It became the capital of Roman Africa; and in the early centuries A.D. it was a Roman/African centre of learning. Among those who worked there were the writer and philosopher Apuleius and the Christian theologians Tertullian, Cyprian and Augustine. In the early history of Roman Christianity North Africa was more important than Rome.

Another great city was Leptis Magna in Tripolitania. Originally the most important Phoenician settlement in Libya (when its name was Lepcis) it became in Roman times the largest city in Africa after Alexandria and Carthage. Its ruins are now the remains of many imposing Roman buildings.

In Cyrenaica, Cyrene continued to be a leading city until it declined after repressive measures taken by the Romans against a Jewish revolt, in the course of which some of the city was destroyed, in A.D. 115.

The Romans were not great traders, and do not seem to have taken much interest in the Sahara trade routes. However, it was during the Roman period, about A.D. 300, that the Arabian camel was introduced into North Africa. This greatly boosted the Saharan trade, the camel being much more efficient for desert transport than the horse or donkey.

In the 3rd and 4th centuries the Roman Empire in Europe was increasingly threatened by the German tribes in the north. At the beginning of the 5th century one of these tribes - the Vandals took advantage of a weakening of Roman defences in western Europe, and swept through Gaul into Spain. From Spain a vast horde of Vandals, under their leader Gaiseric, set sail for North Africa in A.D. 429 - and the "Roman peace" of the previous centuries was broken.

The Vandals by-passed much of Mauretania, which reverted to Berber chieftains, but went on through Numidia, Tunisia, Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. After five years of warfare Gaiseric made terms with the Western Roman Emperor*, leaving only Carthage in Roman hands. In 439 Gaiseric seized Carthage, which he made the headquarters of a pirate fleet which dominated the western Mediterranean. In 455 an expedition under Gaiseric looted Rome itself (and 20 years later another German tribe finally extinguished the Western Empire).

The Vandal kingdom lasted for a hundred years, until in 533 the Byzantine Emperor Justinian sent an army under his brilliant general Belisarius to re-conquer North Africa. Belisarius did so, and the Vandals then disappear from history, having left little impression in Africa. Roman North Africa, except for Mauretania, returned to Roman (Byzantine) rule until the coming of the Moslem Arabs in the 7th century.

*The Roman Empire had by now split into two - the declining Western Empire with Rome as capital, and the Eastern, or Byzantine, Empire with its capital at Constantinople.

Chapter 4. North Africa : The Arabs.

After the birth of Islam early in the 7th century the armies of the Semitic Arabs quickly conquered the whole of the Middle East, including Egypt in 642. Later in the century they went on from Egypt to the rest of North Africa, converting the Berbers as they went. By the end of the century the Arab empire had reached Morocco. The conversion was generally peaceful, the Berbers readily accepting Islam. About the only section of the population not converted were Jewish communities (which had been in North Africa for several centuries) and which were tolerated and treated well by the Arabs.

The Arab invasions, however, were not unopposed. Byzantine resistance resulted in the complete and final destruction of Carthage; and further west, in Algeria, there was considerable Berber opposition. Though the Berbers accepted Islam, there was a long period of anarchy and warfare.

From Morocco the Arab armies, reinforced with Berbers and led by the Berber Tariq, moved on to Spain and conquered most of the county between 710 and 720. Apart from some areas in the north the Moors, as they were called, remained masters of the Iberian peninsula until late in the 11th century, and were not finally driven out until the 15th century.* As time went on, and more came to Spain from Africa, the Moors in Spain became more Berber than Arab.

Meanwhile in Morocco the Berber tribes united in a series of Moorish dynasties, under the first of which Fez was founded as the capital towards the end of the 8th century. Fez became - and still is - the great intellectual and religious centre of Morocco. When the Moors were finally expelled from Spain intellectual refugees gathered in Fez.

In the Arab world divisions soon appeared. Rival families fought for the Caliphate (leadership of Islam), and there was a serious split between the Shiites and the Sunnites. The Shiites held that the head of Islam must be a descendant of Ali and his wife Fatima (Mohammed's nephew and daughter)**. There was also a third sect, the Kharijites, who held that the Caliph could be any believer fit for the office. They were at first numerous in North Africa, but few still remain.

These family and religious rivalries are exemplified by events in Tunisia. At the end of the 8th century a dynasty was founded by the Aghlabids, who broke away from the ruling Abbasid Caliphate and extended their control over some of Algeria and Tripolitania. (The Aghlabids also conquered Sicily, which became another main outlet for Arab learning into Europe.) At the beginning of the 10th century the Aghlabids were overthrown by the Shiite Fatimids, who claimed descent from Fatima. (later in the century the Fatimids conquered Egypt and founded Cairo, from which they ruled for the next 200 years.)

In the 11th century there was a renewal of Islamic energy in North Africa, accompanied by a further wave of Arab immigration. And at this time there arose in the Sahara a sect of fanatical Berber Moslems, the Almoravids. In about 1060 they

founded Marrakesh and conquered Morocco, and then went on to Spain where they temporarily arrested the Christian re-conquest.

In the middle of the 12th century some even fiercer and more intolerant Berber Moslems issued from the region of the Atlas mountains in western and central Morocco - the Almohades. They extinguished the power of the Almoravids, and extended their empire in North Africa from Morocco as far as Tripolitania. (Cyrenaica in these times was generally tied to the fortunes of Egypt.) The Almohades also followed in the footsteps of the Almoravids in Spain, from which they were not expelled until the middle of the 13th century (leaving the whole Iberian peninsula in Christian hands except for Granada in the south).

The empire of the Almohades in Africa then declined and gradually broke up. Separate dynasties were established in Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Tripolitania.

*In the middle of the 8th century the state of Cordoba, in Andalusia in southern Spain, was founded by Abd al Rahman, son of an Arabian prince and a Berber princess. In the following centuries Cordoba became the centre of a renaissance in art, science and literature in which, while Europe was in a state of virtual intellectual stagnation the Arabs led the western world. Cordoba became the leading intellectual centre of Europe where students came from far and wide to study medicine, mathematics, science, philosophy and music under Moslem Christian and Jewish professors.

** The split still exists; but the great majority are Sunnites. The Shiites are strong only in Persia and southern Iraq.

Chapter 5. The Early Kingdoms of the Western and Central Sudan.

In early times the peoples of the western and central Sudan were subject to many outside influences - from the Egyptians, the Kushites, the Carthaginians - but mainly from the Berbers of the North African coastlands. The links were the trade routes across the Sahara.

The Berber trade was largely for gold from the district south of the western Sudan, in exchange for salt and manufactured goods. The greatly increased trade after the introduction of the camel about A.D. 700 led to the formation of Berber states south west of the Sahara. This helped to cause a greater degree of co-ordination between the Negro tribes and the creation of the first large West African kingdom, probably some time in the 4th century A.D. This was ancient Ghana, formed by the Soninke people who lived in the grasslands of the western Sudan north of the headwaters of the Senegal and Niger rivers. (Ancient Ghana was - rather confusingly in present-day Mali, and a quite different land from modern Ghana.)

The empire of Ghana dominated West Africa for seven centuries, reaching its peak in the 11th century. Based on the gold trade, the Kings of Ghana were immensely rich, and powerful. King Tunka Manin, who ruled in the middle of the 11th century, had a magnificent court in his stone-built capital of Kumbi Saleh, and is said to have been able to field an army of 200,000 men.

Ghana, however, was unable to withstand Moslem invasions in the second half of the 11th century. The Moslem Arabs had been infiltrating the settlements in the Sahara oases since the 7th century. Then, in the 1070s, Ghana was attacked by the armies of the Almoravids of Morocco. Though the Almoravids retired or were driven out, after destroying Kumbi Saleh, Ghana was permanently weakened. In the course of the next 150 years it was absorbed and its place as the leading West African power taken by the Kingdom of Mali.

Mali, of the Mandinka people, was the great empire in West Africa for about two centuries, from the middle of the 13th to the middle of the 15th. Its territories extended well beyond those of ancient Ghana. It rose to prominence under Mari-Djata (the Lion Prince) and was at the height of its power under the Emperor Kankan Musa early in the 14th century. On the way to a pilgrimage to Mecca, Kankan Musa exchanged greetings and presents on equal terms with the Mameluke Sultan of Egypt. (The kings of Mali had embraced Islam - and so became members of a world civilisation.) Mali was famous for the wealth of its rulers, the peace and order in its territories, and for its learned men - influenced by Islamic studies in law, government and business affairs.

These advances made society more complex - and more divided. At the bottom were those who had lost the right to be treated as free men, either through some serious offence or by capture in war. They were "rightless persons" or "permanent servants" and subject to sale, in effect slaves, but it was usually a form of slavery which was tolerant and allowed them to work in much the same way as other people.

The pre-eminence of Mali was followed by that of the Songhay people of the central Sudan, with their capital at Gao. The Songhay had her trading connections with the Berbers for many centuries, and their Kings of Gao had accepted Islam early in the 11th century. At various times they had been subject to Ghana, and then to Mali; but towards the end of the 14th century they threw off the over-lordship of Mali, and then their power increased as that of Mali declined. Their prosperity grew as gold began to come from the forest country south of Gao (modern Ghana).

The main founder of the Songhay Empire of Gao was Sunni (King) Ali, a warrior king who reigned from about 1464 to 1492. He transformed a small trading kingdom into a large empire, including in his domains the rich trading centre Timbuktu, which had been one of the main cities of Mali. In the Songhay times Timbuktu became a renowned centre of learning, known throughout the Moslem world.

Under Askia Mohammed (c 1493-1528) the empire expanded further, becoming as extensive as Mali had been at its peak. A source of weakness in the empire, though, was a conflict of beliefs and interests between the Moslem traders of the towns and the country people who remained true to their old Songhay religion.**

Late in the 16th century Songhay came into conflict with the Sultan of Morocco, who in 1590 sent an army across the Sahara to seize the sources of gold. The Moroccans captured and looted Gao and Timbuktu, sending back much gold - and slaves - but they failed to win control of the trade routes to the south. Twenty years later the Moroccan leader in Timbuktu threw off allegiance to the Sultan, and the "Niger Moors" remained as rulers there for nearly 200 years quarrelling among themselves and oppressing the Negro tribes. The Songhay Empire was destroyed, and so was the culture of Timbuktu.

As well as the three great empires of Ghana, Mali and Songhay there were many other kingdoms in the grasslands of the Sudan. One was Kanem-Bornu, around Lake Chad; and between Kanem-Bornu and the Songhay - in the central and western part of present-day northern Nigeria - were the many city states of the Hausa people.

Kanem-Bornu and the Hausa kingdoms were created in about the 10th century, and like the other empires in the Sudan were dependent for their prosperity on the Berber trade. Kanem-Bornu reached its zenith at about the same time as Songhay.

The Hausa cities were noted for their leather goods and textiles. The most famous of them was the walled city of Kano. The Hausa political and social organisation was much influenced by the penetration of Islam in the 13th-14th centuries.

Another people who succeeded in remaining independent of the great Sudanese empires were the Mossi, who occupied the basin of the upper Volta, south of the bend in the Niger river. They are said to have a line of kings who have ruled for a thousand years.

**Each African people had its own religion. Most of them believed in a single God in Heaven who made the world, and also in lesser gods and spirits. They also believed in the power of evil, as the work of witchcraft. The 'witch doctors' were fighters against evil anti-witchcraft specialists.

Chapter 6. Eastern and Central Africa : The Swahili.

Along the east coast of Africa an Indian Ocean trade conducted by Bantu-speaking peoples existed about 2000 years ago; and it received a great impetus from the Arabs after the rise of Islam in the 7th century. The Bantu-speaking Africans were called Swahili by the visiting Arabs; and the name remained attached to them and to their descendants of mixed Bantu-Arab stock, and to their language - now the common language of East Africa.

In the 9th-10th centuries the Swahili adopted Islam; and, as the Moslem power and influence spread to all the lands bordering the Arabian Sea and the Indian Ocean, so a string of trading city states arose on the east coast of Africa, from Somalia in the north to Mozambique in the south.

By the 13th century these cities were entering a golden age of prosperity, which lasted throughout the 14th and 15th centuries. Ships from all over the eastern world - India, Malaysia, Indonesia, and as far as China, were welcomed in their harbours, bringing silk and cotton cloth, pottery, porcelain and beads in exchange for gold and ivory.

Among the most important and powerful of these ports were Mogadishu (in Somalia), Malindi and Mombasa (in Kenya), Zanzibar and Kilwa (in Tanzania). The most famous and imposing was Kilwa, situated on a small island. Kilwa became the main centre of the East African gold and ivory trade. A finely built city was presided over by the King of Kilwa in his luxurious cliff-top palace. From the wealth derived from control of the gold trade the King minted a currency of his own.

Much of the gold for this trade came from the inland people of Zimbabwe - the Shona tribes of the Bantu-speaking peoples. This export trade may have started in about the 10th century, by when the Shona had probably been settled in the Zimbabwe region for a thousand years, raising crops and cattle and becoming skilled miners and iron workers. Between the 12th to 14th centuries they built the city of Great Zimbabwe, of which the surrounding stone wall, probably completed about 1400, still survives.

In the 15th century the Shona started on a policy of political expansion. Their King Mutota moved his capital from Great Zimbabwe northwards, where he conquered other peoples and acquired the royal title Mwana Mutapa**. He, and then his son Matope added to the Shona kingdom all the land from the edge of the Kalahari desert in the west to Mozambique in the east, excluding the Swahili cities on the coast. After Matope's death in about 1490, civil wars broke out and the empire became divided into two - one under the Mwana Mutapa in the north, and one in the south ruled from Great Zimbabwe by another Shona dynasty. It was under this dynasty - the Rozvis, who ruled for over three centuries - that some of the largest buildings in Great Zimbabwe were constructed.

In the north-east in the 16th century the Somalis spread southwards beyond Mogadishu, and transferred their capital to Harar (now in Ethiopia). In the 17th century they - and the Ethiopians were harassed by the Gallas, another Hamitic people with an infusion of Negro blood, who inhabit northern Kenya and some of

south eastern Ethiopia. Though driven by the Somalia from Somalia, the Gallas so weakened the Kingdom of Adel that it broke up into a number of small states, Zeila becoming a dependency of Yemen.

During this period there were many other Bantu kingdoms in central Africa (present-day Zaire, Uganda, Zambia and Angola). The Kingdoms of Luba and Lunda in the grasslands of the upper Congo basin joined in trade with the west coast as well as with the east. The farming people of the Kingdom of Kazembe, in Katanga in southern Zaire, appear to have led an untroubled existence until the middle of the 19th century - and contributed much to African culture in art, music and dancing. The Katanga region was noted for copper production, and the Malawi on the western shore of Lake Nyasa were famous for iron smelting. In the East African highlands around Lakes Victoria and Tanganyika were the Kingdoms of Buganda, Rwanda and Burundi.

In Angola two large kingdoms had been formed by about 1400 - the kingdoms of Kongo (along the lower Congo river) and Ndongo.

To complete the picture of East Africa, the early inhabitants of the island of Madagascar (the Malagasy) are thought to have been of Polynesian and Indonesian origin. Later, Indians, Arabs and Swahili arrived, and slaves from Africa. A tribal organisation probably continued until late in the 16th century, when small kingdoms began to be formed. In the 17th and 18th centuries Madagascar was the haunt of many pirates.

Apart from all these African kingdoms there were many peoples in Africa who had not reached this stage of political organisation, or saw no necessity for it. Among these, in East Africa, were the Kikuyu of the Kenya highlands and the Luo of Kenya and Uganda, and the nomadic Masai of Kenya and Tanganyika.

*The Hamitic Somalis are thought to have come from Yemen in southern Arabia in perhaps the 8th century A.D. They settled in the Zeila area, on the Gulf of Aden, and their history was greatly influenced by neighbouring Ethiopia. By the 13th century they had formed a number of Moslem kingdoms, of which the strongest was the Kingdom of Adel. In the following two centuries there were many wars between the Somali states and Ethiopia, resulting in most of them, but not Adel, becoming vassals of the Ethiopians.

** From this term was derived the European name Monomatapa for the Shona empire.

Chapter 7. The West African Forest Kingdoms.

In the thick forest belt south of the western Sudan grasslands movement was difficult except along the rivers, and the Negro tribes here in early times tended to remain small and scattered. The forest also protected them from the Sudanese empires to the north, whose military strength was based on their cavalry. The first known organized forest kingdoms were formed in about the 11th century A.D. by the Yoruba and the Edo peoples of western Nigeria.

The Yoruba lived in their forest cities (the farmers preferred to live in towns rather than in villages near their land), of which the chief was Ife. Perhaps as early as 1200 Ife began to become famous for the work of its sculptors in bronze and terra-cotta.

In the 17th century many of the Yoruba became united under the central government of the city of Oyo; and by the end of the century the empire of Oyo included much of Nigeria. The empire was powerful for over a hundred years. The Yoruba of Oyo were basically farmers, but their craftsmen were proficient in spinning, dyeing and metalwork.

The Edo people were centred on Benin City in southern Nigeria, which rose to importance under some enterprising and powerful kings in the 14th and 15th centuries. The Benin empire reached its peak in the 16th century, when the Kings of Benin established close relations with the Portuguese - the first Europeans to explore the West African coast. An ambassador from Benin visited Portugal (about 1510), and Portuguese missionaries tried to introduce Christianity into Benin, but without much success. More successful was the development of an ocean trade (an innovation on the west coast), mainly with the Portuguese and the Dutch. Pepper and dyed cotton goods were exported in exchange for European manufactures. Benin City was a walled city 25 miles round, with wide streets and spacious wooden houses. Like Ife earlier, Benin was remarkable for its bronze sculptures.

In south eastern Nigeria the Ibo tribes, productive and prosperous, never amalgamated into a single state, preferring to remain organised into a vast number of self-governing villages. The Benin empire began to decline in the 17th century; and in the 19th century the empire of Oyo disintegrated through invasions by its neighbours and revolts by some of its subject kingdoms. Meanwhile two other powerful states arose to the west of them – Dahomey** and Ashanti.

Dahomey became an independent kingdom about 1625, and reached the height of its power some 200 years later, in the middle of the 19th century. It became notorious for its "customs", which included human slaughter on a grand scale on the death of a king, to provide him with wives and attendants in the spirit world; and Dahomey played a large part in the slave trade (see chapter 10). Another curious institution was the training of women as soldiers. The women's regiments were the elite of the Dahomeyan army.

The Ashanti were groups of the Akan peoples, who from about 1200 formed a number of forest states. They had a well developed community culture, with the emphasis on music and dancing. By about 1400 there were several strong Akan states, and it was they who produced the gold which led to the prosperity of

Songhay to their north. Later, when the European traders began to arrive, the Ashanti found another outlet for their gold - to European merchants established along the coast to the south (to become known to Europeans as the gold coast).

At the end of the 17th century the Ashanti groups, hitherto divided, succeeded in uniting; and for the next 200 years their power and prosperity grew. In the 18th century, to protect their trade, they extended their domains to the north, into the grasslands; and early in the 19th century they conquered the tribes in the coastal belt to the south.

The early Ashanti kings were great conquerors; and as the empire grew the kings in the later part of the 18th century and early 19th were also reformers. They modernised the system of government to keep up with changing conditions, and they selected men to help them based on ability irrespective of rank - or colour; Europeans were employed in many important posts. There was a federal police force, and civil servants with regular pay and pensions. Kumasi, the capital, was a fine city, kept spotlessly clean; and Ashanti was famous for its wood carvings.

* South of the forest belt there is a narrow strip of open land along the sea coast.

**Rather confusingly Dahomey is now modern Benin - a different land from the old Benin empire.

Chapter 8. North Africa from the 15th to 19th Centuries.

The 15th and 16th centuries in North Africa were a period of struggles between dynasties, insurrections, raids, and near anarchy. During this period, too, the Spaniards and Portuguese obtained a foothold in the ports of the Mediterranean coast. In 1415 the Portuguese captured Ceuta in Morocco; and the Spaniards took Oran in Algeria in 1409 and Melilla in Morocco in 1496. In 1578, however, a Portuguese crusade against the Moors in Morocco ended in disaster, in which the King of Portugal and the flower of the Portuguese nobility were killed.

It was shortly after this, in 1590, that the Sultan of Morocco, Ahmed al Mansur, sent an army across the Sahara which led to the destruction of the Songhay Empire (see chapter 5), and from which great riches were acquired. The reign of Ahmed al Mansur (1578-1603) is regarded as a "golden age" in Moroccan history.

In the 16th century Spain and Portugal were confronted in the Mediterranean by the Ottoman Turks, who had taken over the leadership of the Moslem world. After taking Constantinople in 1453 (and so obliterating the remains of the Byzantine Empire) the Turks conquered the whole of the Middle East (including Egypt in 1517), advanced far into south-eastern Europe, and dominated the eastern Mediterranean. From Egypt they extended their Empire along the North African coast as far as Algiers by the end of the 16th century, after being opposed for a time by the Spaniards in Tunisia.

Until early in the 19th century North Africa, except for Morocco, then remained under Turkish suzerainty. But the Turks did not take much interest in ruling their vassal states in North Africa, interfering little in the feuds of the native dynasties and tribes provided that they paid their taxes - and the money to pay the taxes came mainly from piracy in the Mediterranean. For some 300 years the headquarters of the notorious pirates of the Barbary (Berber) coast was at Algiers, which survived many bombardments and blockades by the European trading nations.

Morocco also took part in the piracy, extending it into the Atlantic.

By the 18th century the native rulers in Algeria, Tunisia, Tripolitania and Cyrenaica, though nominally subject to the Sultan of Turkey, were virtually independent.

Chapter 9. Portuguese Exploration and Colonisation.

Soon after the capture of Ceuta in 1415 the Portuguese, under an organisation set up by Prince Henry (the Navigator), became the pioneers in European exploration to the western coasts of Africa and the search for a sea route round Africa to the East. The trade route to the East through the Mediterranean and overland to the Red Sea and Indian Ocean had for long been dominated by the Arabs - and was also subject to interference by the Barbary pirates of the Mediterranean.

In the first half of the 15th century the Portuguese discovered the Atlantic island of Madeira, the Azores and the Cape Verde Islands. All were uninhabited, and the Portuguese annexed them. In 1446 they landed and established trading posts in the Senegal district of West Africa. In the south west they reached the Congo estuary in 1482, and later made settlements in Angola, with access to trade with the Kingdoms of Kongo and Ndongo. In 1497-98 the Portuguese Vasco da Gama sailed round the south of Africa and on to India, calling at the East African ports Malindi and Mombasa on the way.

When da Gama returned to Portugal he described the great wealth of the Swahili cities; and subsequently the Kings of Portugal sent fleets to capture and loot these cities. The Swahili trading community was largely ruined, and some of the cities were abandoned. But some survived, as did the Swahili culture; and at the end of the 17th century the Portuguese were expelled from the East African ports north of Mozambique by Arabs from Oman in south eastern Arabia.

Portuguese activity in Benin and Morocco in the 16th century has already been mentioned (see previous chapters). Also in this century they tried, from settlements on the Mozambique coast, to gain control of the gold mines of Zimbabwe - unsuccessfully in the Rozvi Kingdom of southern Zimbabwe, but with more success in the northern Kingdom of the Mwana Mutapas. In 1573 they persuaded the King to give them possession of some mines and permission to settle along the Zambezi river in northern Mozambique. But the settlers wanted more, and gradually increased their influence over the affairs of the kingdom. In 1628-29, with hired African soldiers, they defeated the King's forces, and a new treaty made him a puppet of the Portuguese.

The same thing happened in Angola. At first on friendly terms with the King of Ndongo*, the settlers' ambitions culminated in a war of conquest. This went on intermittently from about 1580 to 1670, by when Ndongo was a broker kingdom; but resistance continued, and Portuguese penetration of the interior was very slow. The Kingdom of Kongo suffered the same fate. At first an ally of Portugal, Kongo later became a target for military invasion - about 1665, when the King of Kongo was captured and killed, and the independence of Kongo was ended.

One of the motives in these Portuguese conquests was the procurement of slaves. When the Portuguese first landed in West Africa in 1446 they brought back, not only gold, but a few slaves; and during the rest of the 15th century the trade for slaves in return for European goods expanded partly to relieve Portugal's limited resources of manpower.

The sale of slaves was no new custom in Africa (nor in Europe). In Africa there were "rightless persons" who were subject to sale; and at first these were the people sold to Portugal, where they became household servants or were trained as craftsmen.

Their lot in Portugal was probably little worse than that of the free, but poor, Portuguese. A big change in the nature and extent of the slave trade, however, came after the discovery of America and the beginning of European colonisation there in the 16th century.

* In Ndongo the King's title was Ngola - which the Portuguese mistook for the name of the country; hence Angola.

Chapter 10. The Slave Trade.

The European colonists in America soon found the need for imported labour to work on the sugar plantations and in the mines, and later on the tobacco and cotton plantations. The Spaniards started using Negro slave labour in their West Indian colonies early in the 16th century; and the Portuguese in the middle of the century started sending slaves from Africa to Brazil. Other European nations soon joined in this lucrative trade, and the slave trade became big business.

The trade went on until the 19th century, with Europeans of many countries taking part in it - notably the British, French, Dutch and Danes as well as the Spaniards and Portuguese. The British first engaged in the trade as agents providing slaves for the Spanish colonies in 1562 - over 50 years before slavery itself was introduced into British North America.

The traders operated from "factories" and forts established along the African coast, mainly in West Africa, from where they exchanged European goods for gold, ivory and slaves. By the end of the 18th century there were some 40 of these factories - which sometimes changed hands as the nations competed with each other in the trade. Altogether they were exporting perhaps between 70,000 and 80,000 slaves annually.

The procurement of the slaves was sometimes by raids into the interior, or even actual wars, but more usually by trading agreements with the local native rulers or by providing them with military help against their African enemies. As the trade expanded some African chiefs continued it with reluctance, but found it difficult to withdraw. Some of the main European commodities supplied in exchange were guns and gunpowder - and if an African chief stopped getting the guns he would be at the mercy of more unscrupulous neighbours.

One of the worst features of the trade was the voyage to America. The slaveship owners, in search of a bigger profit, packed more and more slaves into their vessels - often on shelves across the holds which allowed no room to stand, or even to kneel. The voyage lasted anything from three weeks to two months or more, depending on the weather; and fever and hunger were often suffered in addition to the appalling living conditions. Large numbers died before arrival.

It has been estimated that the total number of African slaves who reached America and the West Indies in the course of the trade was about 9 to 10 million. It may well have been more; and this does not include those who died on the voyage or those who were killed in Africa in slaving raids or wars. Probably between a half and two thirds of the total came from West Africa, most of the others from Angola and the Congo, some from Mozambique.

Apart from the actual loss of manpower, the slave trade inhibited social and economic progress in the African regions most affected. The trade degraded political life, and encouraged the continuation of slavery in Africa; and while the European nations were organising and inventing new means of production these Africans were depending economically upon a trade which was totally unproductive - and which, by the loss of the fittest members of the community, curtailed production.

Until late in the 17th century no one in Europe or the colonies seemed to see anything wrong in the slave trade. Then the lead was taken by the Quakers in England and North America in protesting against it. But it was another 100 years before the British parliament, due mainly to the efforts of William Wilberforce, began to consider abolition of the trade. It took Wilberforce 20 years to get Parliament to agree; and in 1807 Britain ceased to engage in the trade. Denmark had already done so. The other European nations followed, some less willingly than others. By 1850 the trade was almost ended. The last slave ship sailed in the 1880s.

Long before this both the British and the Americans (who became independent in 1783) started settlements in Africa for freed slaves the British in Sierra Leone in 1787, the Americans in Liberia ("the land of the free") in 1822. Both ventures, which were organised by private associations, suffered a number of setbacks some financial and some through the resentment of the local tribes due to the privileged status given to the ex-slaves. The British base was Freetown, and British control was gradually extended inland. Liberia was declared an independent republic in 1847.

Slavery itself was abolished by the European and American nations at various times during the 19th century - by Britain in all her colonies in 1833, by the United States in 1865 after the American Civil War, by Brazil (independent of Portugal since 1822) in 1888. In Brazil the numbers of slaves had been substantially reduced during the 19th century, from nearly 2 million to about 700,000 at the time of abolition.

The subsequent history of the Negroes in the Americas is part of the history of those countries rather than of Africa. Their contribution to Western music, singing and dancing has been notable - for instance jazz and Negro spirituals, the latter made world famous by the great American Negro singer Paul Robeson. And American Negroes have provided a remarkable number of world champions in boxing and athletics.

On the political side, one episode before the abolition of the slave trade and slavery, should be mentioned. This was in the French colony of Saint Domingue in the West Indies. During the Napoleonic Wars the slaves in Saint Domingue, led by Toussaint L'Ouverture**, expelled the French and in 1804 established the Negro nation of Haiti.

In the 19th century, while the Atlantic slave trade was dwindling, another slave trade grew up in East Africa. The Arabs who ruled in Zanzibar and other places on the east coast (see previous chapter), raided far into the interior for slaves, in partnership with the Swahili traders. Some were sold to Arabian dealers, some to the French for work in the Indian Ocean islands, some even to North America. However, by the 1880s this trade, like the Atlantic trade, had ceased.

* Manpower it includes women. Though the slaves were mainly male, there were many women.

* Toussaint L'Ouverture, reputed to be the son of an African chief, was brought to Saint Domingue as a slave and rose to the position of superintendent of other Negroes on the plantation. He joined in a rebellion in 1791, and later raised and disciplined a Negro army. He led a further insurrection in 1796. His armies defeated a French force sent by Napoleon, but Toussaint L'Ouverture was captured and died in a French prison.

Chapter 12. Africa in the Early Years of the 19th Century.

In the early part of the 19th century the political situation in the different countries and regions of Africa was one of varying degrees of independence; and the social Organisation still varied from the kingdom to the tribal. The following is a brief summary of the position.

North Africa.

Morocco was ruled by the Filali dynasty (since the mid-7th century). There was considerable trade with European nations - the French, British, Dutch - in spite of some high-handed treatment of European emissaries. The possession of Ceuta had passed from Portugal to Spain, which also still held Melilla.

Algeria was under nominal Turkish suzerainty. Algiers was still the main centre of the Barbary pirates. Oran had been taken from Spain by the Turks.

Tunisia was ruled by Beys, originally appointed by the Turks, but becoming hereditary in the 18th century. They paid tribute to the Sultan, but were otherwise independent. Under pressure from the European powers piracy was abandoned as a main occupation about 1820.

Tripolitania was virtually independent in the 18th century, but the Turks re-asserted their authority in 1835 after a civil war. Piracy was still rampant at the beginning of the 19th century.

Cyrenaica was practically free from Turkish control, and more or less in a state of anarchy. In the 1840s it became the main base of a Moslem religious reform group, the Senussi. Their leader, Mohammed Ben Ali as-Senusi, preached a return to the simplicity of early Islam.

(In Egypt power was seized in the first decade of the 19th century by the Albanian Mohammed Ali, whose descendants ruled until late in the century.

West Africa.

The Forest and Coastal Lands: -

Nigeria. On the disintegration of the Oyo Empire, Nigeria consisted of a large number of states and communities, mainly of the Yoruba, Ibo and Hausa peoples. At the beginning of the 19th century the Hausa states were conquered by the Fulani, a lighter-skinned people with mixed Negroid and Hamitic features, who had penetrated into Nigeria and the central Sudan from the west. (They are thought to be descended from the rulers of the ancient kingdom of Tekrur, in the Senegal river area, which in the 10th to 15th centuries sometimes rivalled the empires of Ghana and Mali.) The Fulani, ardent Moslems, set up emirates in northern Nigeria. Their religious centre was Sokoto.

Ashanti and Dahomy were the main kingdoms in West Africa, The conquest of the coastal tribes brought the Ashanti into political rivalry with the British stations on the coast early in the 19th century. After several armed conflicts an uneasy peace ensued, with British influence in the coastal area (which they called the Gold Coast) increasing.

Further west were the ex-slave states of Liberia and Sierra Leone; and on the "bulge" of West Africa -there were French settlements on the coast of Senegal, which had started about 1650, and British in Gambia. The British and French had for long fought for supremacy in "Senegambia". Guinea and Ivory Coast were inhabited by mixtures of peoples - Fulani and Mandinka in Guinea, and Mandinka, Mossi and Akan in Ivory Coast.

The Sudan.

In the central Sudan the kingdom of Kanem-Bornu , which had reached its peak in the 16th century, fell to the Fulani in about 1808, but was soon reconquered from them. However, the ruling dynasty, which had reigned for 1000 years, was extinguished. In the Western Sudan political power had reverted from the "Niger Moors" to various tribes of the Mandinka (the original founders of ancient Mali).

East and South Africa.

The Swahili area of the East African coast (Kenya and Tanganyika) was controlled by the Arabs from Oman. In 1832 the Sultan of Oman transferred his court to Zanzibar; and the Sultans of Zanzibar extended their influence along the coast from Mogadishu to the Portuguese-controlled territory of Mozambique.

Inland were the kingdoms of Buganda, Rwanda and Burundi, and the Kikuyu, Masai and Luo tribes. Buganda was one of the most advanced kingdoms in East Africa. The people lived a peaceful and orderly existence in spacious dwellings - which, in the absence of suitable stone or clay, were constructed of grass and reeds.

In Zimbabwe the Rozvi kingdom was destroyed and Great Zimbabwe devastated in 1830 by an invasion from the south, caused by the northern movement of the Bantu Zulu people who had formed a nation in Natal. The Zulus then founded a Matabele (Zulu) kingdom among the Shona of Zimbabwe.*

Somalia was still divided into many small Somali states. (Ethiopia. During the 18th and the first half of the 19th century the power of the Kings of Ethiopia dwindled, and the country was in a continual state of turmoil.)

Angola and the Congo basin were largely controlled by the Portuguese. Both territories had suffered very severely from the slave trade.

Madagascar. By the end of the 18th century the Hova, the lightest coloured of the peoples of the island, had established supremacy over most of the island. The French had intermittently held stations there and exerted considerable influence; but the Hova Queen Ranavalona, who reigned from 1828 to 1861, pursued a policy of excluding all Europeans, and foreign commerce almost ceased.

As with the political and social organisation, the way of life in Africa also varied, basically between the more advanced peoples of the coastlands and the less

advanced in the interior but perhaps the latter had the benefit of a calmer and more unhurried existence in which the community spirit prospered.

Educationally, Islam played a prominent part in the lands in which it was predominant - the north, the east coast, and to a lesser extent West Africa. For many centuries Arabic was the language of business and learning for Moslem Africans, and the Arabic script their medium of writing; but at some time between the 16th and 18th centuries Africans began to write their own languages, using the Arabic letters. Books, at first for religious purposes, appeared in Swahili, Hausa, Mandinka, Fulani and Yoruba.

Apart from the Christian Nubian kingdoms in the 6th to 13th centuries, Christianity - until the coming of the Portuguese - played little part in African history (except in Ethiopia which has been basically Christian since the 4th century, and in Egypt where there are still a million or more Christians of the Coptic Church). European missionaries started activities in Africa in about 1500, but Christianity did not become at all widespread until the later part of the 19th century.

The Africans' love of music continued unabated. Various instruments were played, but pride of place was taken by the drum. It was used for many different purposes, including dancing, drama, ceremonies, and sending messages. The royal drums were often an important symbol of kingship, through which the king communicated with his ancestors. Some of these drums measured 12 feet across.

* The Zulus later came into conflict with both the British and Dutch in South Africa. The Dutch had first settled in South Africa in 1652, and the colony had been taken over by Britain in 1806. During the mid-19th century both the British and the Boers (the Dutch South Africans) advanced from the original Cape Colony eastwards and northwards, the Transvaal and Orange Free State being occupied by Boers dissatisfied with British rule.

Chapter 12. European Exploration 1770-1870.

Exploration of the interior of Africa by Europeans, in search of geographical and other knowledge of the continent, did not start until late in the 18th century. Previous expeditions for any distance into the interior - mainly by the Portuguese in the south - had been basically in search of trade or of slaves for the slave trade.

The new phase of exploration, starting in the 1770s, was fraught with many difficulties peculiar to Africa. The tropical climate and diseases of central and west Africa were a great hazard to the European; the tribes of the interior, seeing in every European an emissary of the slave trade, were naturally often hostile; and in Moslem areas the European had to contend with Moslem fanaticism. A high proportion of the early explorers died or were killed.

Some of the earliest were two Scotsmen - James Bruce, who went through Ethiopia and the Sudan and traced the course of the Blue Nile in 1770-72; and Mungo Park, who was drowned on his second attempt (in 1805) to find the source of the Niger. In the south-east the Portuguese de Lacerda died in 1798 near Lake Mwera in northern Zambia, having reached there from the Zambezi; and in the first decade of the 19th century two half-caste Portuguese crossed southern Africa from Angola to the Zambezi.

Between 1820 and 1834 several British expeditions explored northern Nigeria, the first expedition starting from Tripoli and going to Nigeria via the Kingdom of Kanem-Bornu. Later expeditions reached northern Nigeria from the west and south. The leaders were the Naval Commander Hugh Clapperton and - after his death from dysentery - his ex-servant - Richard Lander, who also died after being wounded in an affray with Africans. Clapperton was the first European to publish descriptions of the Hausa states from personal experience.

The first European to reach Timbuktu was the Scotsman Major Laing in 1826. He was murdered on leaving it. Two years later the Frenchman René Caillié, having learned to speak Arabic, disguised himself as an Arab and joined a Mandinka caravan travelling inland from Senegal. He reached Timbuktu, stayed there for two weeks, and then joined another caravan crossing the Sahara to Morocco - becoming the first European to return alive from Timbuktu.

The first non-Africans to penetrate far into central Africa were Arabs from Zanzibar, one of whom crossed the continent to Benguela in Angola in 1848. Then came the best-known of all explorers of Africa, the Scottish doctor and missionary David Livingstone. In 24 years (1849-1873) of travels over a third of the continent - from the south to the equator - he not only vastly increased European knowledge of central Africa, but by his interest in the Africans and their welfare, his kindness and gentlemanly behaviour towards them, he was trusted and revered by them wherever he went. His journeys were unhurried, allowing time for meticulous observation and often delayed by fever or dysentery - and sometimes by slave traders, against whom he raised a strong feeling in Europe which greatly contributed to the final extinction of the trade.

Amongst Livingstone's achievements were the crossing of the Kalahari desert, the crossing of central Africa in both directions, and the discovery of Victoria Falls and

Lake Nyasa*. In a search for the source of the Nile, starting in 1866, he was out of contact with Europeans for four years until met at Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika by the Welshman Henry Morton Stanley, journalist and explorer who had been commissioned by an American newspaper to find him. Still exploring, Livingstone died of dysentery in 1873. His body and all his instruments and papers were carried by his faithful African porters 700 miles to Zanzibar.

Meanwhile detailed exploration of the land between Timbuktu and Lake Chad had been carried out by the German Heinrich Barth in the 1850s; and the British Richard Burton, John Hanning Speke, Samuel Baker and James Grant, in expeditions in the north-east in the 1850s and 1860s solved the problem of the sources of the Nile.

In the later part of the century interest in Africa had been so inspired by the example of Livingstone and other pioneers that it became almost crowded with explorers and missionaries.

* On his journey along the west coast of Lake Nyasa, Livingstone was appalled at the activities of the Arab slave traders among the Malawi tribes.

Chapter 13. French and British Activities in Africa from the 1820s to 1880s.

In the 1820s the main European colonies in Africa were Portuguese Mozambique and Angola in the south, the French settlement in coastal Senegal, and the British possessions (in addition to South Africa) in Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast and Gambia.

Then the first big step in European colonisation was by the French in Algeria. Though still under nominal Turkish suzerainty, Algeria was in practice ruled by local chiefs. One of these, in 1827, insulted the French consul; and after failing to get an apology the French sent an expeditionary force which captured Algiers in 1830. After some indecision as to what to do next, the French embarked on a policy of further conquest. Though strongly opposed by some of the Algerian chiefs, the conquest of Algeria was virtually completed towards the end of the 1840s - and the Barbary pirates at last quelled. Some 40,000 French colonists were settled there.

French rule was later extended into the Algerian Sahara, and a policy of "assimilation" of Algeria to France adopted. In 1881, by when there were nearly 400,000 European settlers, Algeria became politically part of metropolitan France.

In 1881, also, the French invaded Tunisia from Algeria, and established a French protectorate there.

Elsewhere in North Africa - Morocco remained independent, with the European powers, chiefly Spain, France and Britain, from the middle of the century rivalling each other in spreading their influence. The Spaniards extended their foothold on the north coast in the 1860s.

In Cyrenaica and Tripolitania the power of the Senussi increased. By the 1880s they had over 100 monasteries in North Africa and elsewhere. They were basically peaceable and a civilising influence, but there were opposed to Europeans as being incompatible with Islam - and also to the Turks as not fulfilling its precepts. The Turks had to accept the authority of the Senussi over the Bedouin tribes of the desert.

West Africa.

In Senegal the French started an advance into the interior in the 1850s, and Senegal became an important base for further expansion into the Sudan and the extension of French influence in West Africa generally. The French also started moving into Dahomey from the coast in the 1880s.

The British throughout the 19th century were involved in a series of minor wars in the Gold Coast with the Ashanti, who were not resigned to British influence, in the coastal area. After an invasion of this area by the Ashanti in 1817, a British punitive expedition destroyed the capital, Kumasi, and forced the Ashanti to agree to refrain from further invasion of the coast.

In Nigeria the British - in order to stop the slave trade through the port of Lagos, and to stop aggression from the King of Dahomey, captured Lagos in 1851, and it became a British colony in 1861. British influence then spread in the Yoruba area of Nigeria, and the British made efforts to stop the civil wars which had engulfed the country since the breaking up of the Oyo empire. In the 1880s Nigeria became a British protectorate.

Further south - on the equator the French in 1849 founded a colony for freed slaves at Libreville in Gabon; and in the 1870s they started advancing into the interior of this region.

On the other side of Africa the French acquired from the local sultan the port of Obok in Somalia in 1862.

Egypt and the Eastern Sudan.

In 1869 European interest in Africa became focussed on Egypt, with the opening of the Suez Canal (built under the direction of the French diplomat and engineer Ferdinand de Lesseps). Egypt at this time, though still nominally under Turkish suzerainty, was ruled by the Khedive (viceroy) Ismail, great grandson of Mohammed Ali. Ismail had many ambitious schemes, one of which was the conquest of the southern part of the Egyptian (or Eastern) Sudan and the suppression of the slave trade there. The northern part had been conquered by Mohammed Ali.

In 1870 Ismail commissioned the British explorer Samuel Baker to carry out this conquest with Egyptian troops - which he did: and on the completion of Baker's 4-year contract Ismail obtained the services of the British General Gordon as Governor of the Sudan.

Ismail's foreign adventures, public works schemes, and personal extravagance brought Egypt to financial collapse in 1875; and after an international investigation her finances were placed under the joint control of Britain and France. A nationalist movement then arose, and several years of turmoil culminated in 1882 in serious riots, which resulted in Britain putting down the Nationalists by force. The Khedive's authority was restored, but Britain now effectively ruled Egypt.

The Liberal government in Britain did not wish to perpetuate this control, and intended to withdraw British troops as soon as order and good government was restored; but this policy was thwarted by events in the Sudan. General Gordon, after 5 years as Governor, during which he established firm military control and did much to suppress the slave trade, resigned in 1879; and the Sudan reverted to an oppressive Egyptian rule. In 1881 there was a formidable revolt led by Mohammed Ahmed of Dongola, who claimed to be the Mahdi, or Messiah, destined to conquer the world for Islam. An Egyptian army under the British Colonel Hicks was sent in 1883 to suppress the Mahdi - and was wiped out.

The British government, reluctant to extend British involvement, persuaded the Egyptian government to abandon the Sudan, and sent Gordon there to evacuate the Egyptian garrisons. Gordon began trying to arrange for the future settlement and welfare of the Sudan after the evacuation; but his ideas were rejected by the Mahdi - who then besieged the capital, Khartoum. Inspired by Gordon, the Egyptian troops held out for 10 months; but in 1885 Khartoum fell, and Gordon and the garrison and many of the inhabitants were massacred.

This disaster caused a demand in Britain for retribution and the restoration of British prestige. The British withdrawal from Egypt was indefinitely postponed.

Chapter 14. The "Scramble for Africa".

Until the 1870s only Portugal, Britain and France of the European nations had made any substantial colonisation in Africa. And, the French and British advances had been rather spasmodic, their colonial policies varying with the government or regime in power, and with the enterprise of its representatives in Africa.

In the 1870s, however, the outlook of the European nations towards African colonisation changed. This was partly due to the greater knowledge of the continent obtained from exploration, and consequent increased opportunities for trade and access to valuable raw materials; and partly due to efforts to protect the explorers and missionaries and to suppress slavery and the remnants of the slave trade. But it was also due to a new spirit of national prestige, stemming largely from the unification of both Germany and Italy in the period 1859-1870; and perhaps to some extent due to the rise of a sentiment that it was the duty of the "superior" white man to civilise, educate and convert the Africans - a sentiment which ignored the fact that the white man was not necessarily superior, and that the Africans might well be much happier, and certainly preferred, to be left alone.

The result was the "scramble for Africa", in which the European nations competed with each other for colonies there. One of the earliest targets was Tunisia, where Italy had greatly extended her commercial interests and hoped to gain control of the country but, as already mentioned, was forestalled by the French in 1881. The

French people were no very ardent colonists; but France's policy, after her humiliating defeat by Prussia in 1870, had become one of vast colonial expansion, partly to restore her international prestige. Bismarck, the creator of Germany, did not want colonies, but deferred to pressure by German commercial interests, and Germany joined in the competition.

There then followed, in 1884-85, a remarkable international conference in Berlin at which rules were drawn up for colonisation in Africa. There were many provisions in the Act emanating from the conference, the main one being that all signatories had to notify the others of any intended action to take possession of any part of the African coast or to penetrate into the interior - and in effect to obtain the approval of the other signatories. In this way, although there were international disputes and 'incidents', Africa was carved up by the European nations without armed conflict between them.

One of the first agreements arising from the Berlin conference was the recognition of the "Congo Free State" as the personal possession of King Leopold II of the Belgians. (Belgium had been an independent country since 1830). The enterprising Leopold, seeing the possibilities of central Africa opened up by the explorations of Livingstone, Stanley and others, had called an international conference in 1876 to co-ordinate further exploration and suppress the slave trade. (This was the forerunner of the Berlin conference eight years later.) An international association was formed - largely Belgian - and Leopold engaged Stanley to establish trading posts in the Congo area and make treaties with the African chiefs. Stanley spent 5 years doing this. The international aspect of the operations soon evaporated, and Leopold financed the enterprise from his private fortune - hence the award of the Congo Free State as his

personal property. Early in the 1900s mismanagement and ill-treatment of the Africans in the Congo Free State led to international concern, particularly in Britain and the United States. The result was that in 1908 the Belgian government took over the colony, and the worst of the abuses were removed.

In general, the period from 1885 to about 1920 was one of invasion, conquest and/or negotiations with African rulers by the European powers in their chosen and allotted areas, and the setting up of colonial rule. The only African states to survive as independent were Ethiopia and Liberia. In some of the more powerful and organised African countries resistance was fierce and prolonged, but in the end they succumbed to the superior weapons and equipment of the invaders. Another cause of the defeat of the Africans was that there was no unity amongst them - either between different states, or within each state. Some countries comprised several different African peoples, with one ruling and oppressing the others. The Europeans could often recruit African soldiers for their invading armies.

Altogether some 40 colonies or protectorates were formed. Taking in turn the European nations involved: -

France was the most active colonial power, and acquired the largest area of territory. By 1900 her African empire included Algeria and Tunisia in the north; Senegal, French Guinea, Ivory Coast and Dahomey in the West African coastlands; French West Africa which took in nearly all the Sahara and western Sudan; French Equatorial Africa which comprised Gabon, some of the Congo and central Sudan (modern Chad); French Somaliland (Djibouti), and the island of Madagascar.

France did not achieve this without a number of severe struggles, particularly in Dahomey, and in the Lake Chad area where they met with resistance from the Senussi. It was well into the 20th century before the French had won control in the western and central Sudan. In Madagascar resistance by the Hova dynasty was not finally overcome until 1896.

The last stage of French colonization was in Morocco, where France, Spain, Germany, Britain and Italy competed for influence over the Sultan. Eventually, in 1912, the country became a French protectorate, except for the Spanish possessions in the north - around Ceuta and Melilla. Resistance by the Riff tribes continued. A prolonged rising by them in the 1920s was suppressed, but guerilla action went on into the 1940s.

Britain completed her occupation of Nigeria, the Gold Coast, Gambia and Sierra Leone in West Africa, and acquired Kenya, Nyasaland*, Uganda, Zanzibar (where the Arab Sultan accepted a British protectorate) and British Somaliland in the east. In the Gold Coast there were two more wars with the Ashanti before it became a British colony in 1902. In Somaliland a Moslem Somali leader, nicknamed the "Mad Mullah" by the British, caused a lot of trouble by raids against the British forces during the first 20 years of the 20th century.

In Egypt a British-officered Egyptian army defended the frontier with the Sudan for 10 years against the Mahdi's successor until Britain decided on re-conquest to end this nuisance and to deliver the Sudanese from tyranny. In 1896-98 the re-conquest was achieved by a British/Egyptian army under Lord Kitchener. The eastern Sudan came under the joint control of Britain and Egypt - and Britain continued to rule

Egypt until 1922. (By a British unilateral declaration Egypt then became formally independent, but with certain powers reserved to Britain, including the future of the Sudan. The last British troops left Egypt in 1956, leaving the Sudan a separate state, independent of Egypt.)

In British South Africa the dominant personality in political affairs in the 1880s and early 1890s was Cecil Rhodes who had visions of British dominion from Cape Colony to Cairo. He was alarmed at the threat to the route to the north by German infiltration in South West Africa on one side and the Boers of the Transvaal on the other; and when the Bechuana tribes in 1885 asked for protection against Boer aggression, Britain proclaimed Bechuanaland (modern Botswana) to be a British protectorate.

Rhodes later turned his attention to the land north of the Transvaal - ancient Zimbabwe - then divided between the Shona and the Zulus (with whom Britain had already had a serious conflict in 1879). The British now intervened in a Shona-Zulu war, defeating the Zulus; but some years later, in 1896, they were faced with a formidable rising of both peoples, which they suppressed. The whole area was given the name Rhodesia, separated in 1911 into the two protectorates of Northern and Southern Rhodesia, north and south of the Zambezi. Northern Rhodesia is modern Zambia, Southern Rhodesia modern Zimbabwe* *

Returning to the "scramble" - Germany acquired the Cameroons and Togo, South West Africa (Namibia) and Tanganyika. To the latter were joined Rwanda and Burundi, to form German East Africa. In the first decade of the 20th century the Hottentots and the Herero tribes in South West Africa and the African tribes in Tanganyika all rebelled, unsuccessfully, against German rule.

Italy, after being disappointed in Tunisia, was 'awarded' Eritrea (north of Ethiopia) and Italian Somaliland. Not content with this she embarked in 1887 on an attempt to conquer Ethiopia. After establishing a sort of protectorate, with the terms of which the Emperor of Ethiopia did not agree, the Italians invaded the country again in 1896, only to be disastrously defeated at Adowa. Still in search of a greater African empire, Italy invaded Tripolitania in 1911. The Turks, attacked by a league of Balkan countries, withdrew from Tripolitania to meet the menace nearer home - and Italy conquered Tripolitania and Cyrenaica; but they had great difficulty with the Senussi, who were not finally subdued until the early 1930s. In 1934 Tripolitania and Cyrenaica were united to form the Italian colony of Libya.

Portugal, as well as being confirmed in her possession of Mozambique and Angola, was awarded "Portuguese" Guinea. Portugal also still possessed the Cape Verde Islands and Madeira.

Spain kept her ancient possessions - in northern Morocco, the Canary Islands and the island of Fernando Po (which she obtained from Portugal in the 18th century). To Fernando Po she added the nearby mainland area of Rio Muni, to form Spanish Guinea; and along the north-west coast she acquired the Spanish Sahara.

*Nyasaland was ancient Malawi, Uganda largely the ancient Kingdom of Buganda. Britain acquired both mainly by peaceful agreement with the Africans.

**The history of Rhodesia, while it was Rhodesia, is included in the history of South Africa. (After the Boer War of 1899-1902, the Boer Transvaal and Orange Free State became British colonies, and in 1910 were united with Cape Colony and Natal to form the British dominion, the Union of South Africa.)

Chapter 15. The Colonial Period.

The colonial period lasted for different lengths of time in the different colonies, ending with most African states obtaining independence in the 1950s and 1960s. The peak of the colonial era was roughly the first half of the 20th century - a period which included the two world wars.

On the outbreak of the First World War the German colonies in Africa were invaded by Allied forces - the Cameroons and Togo by the British and French, German East Africa by British imperial armies (including Indian and South African), and South West Africa by the South Africans. The Germans were quickly defeated in Togo and South West Africa, in the Cameroons by 1916. In East Africa the campaigns went on throughout the war.

At the end of the war Tanganyika became a British mandate under the League of Nations, South West Africa a South African mandate, and the Cameroons and Togo were each divided between Britain and France (the British shares being administered by the neighbouring colonies Nigeria and the Gold Coast respectively). Rwanda and Burundi were detached from Tanganyika and became Belgian mandates, administered as part of the Congo Free State.

European-officered African regiments took part in all these campaigns, and fought loyally for their "mother" countries. For instance, battalions of the Nigeria Regiment fought with distinction in the British campaigns in the Cameroons and East Africa, and Algerian and Senegalese levies fought on the western front in Europe as citizens of France.

Between the two world wars good progress was made in industrial development. This benefited the Africans when they later became independent, but did not benefit them very much at the time. The profits largely went to European companies, which relied on cheap African labour. The means of recruiting this labour varied. Sometimes it was by force, sometimes voluntary, the latter sometimes by a contract system which often caused the African worker to be away from his home for long periods. And, although tribal conflicts were to a large extent eliminated, the Africans became involved, as we have seen, in the wars between the European powers. So it cannot be supposed that the Africans were entirely happy under the colonial system. But they did receive the benefits of education - in missionary and government schools* - and the establishment of medical services. And some European modernisation made a big difference - for instance to the forest-bound villager in West Africa whose vista was transformed by European road building.

Throughout this period there was a gradual build-up of a new spirit of nationalism among the African peoples, particularly in the more advanced countries of North Africa, but also in the rest of Africa, led by the better educated Africans. In effect they were copying the nationalism of their European masters, and saw no reason why the Africans in each colony should not become free nations like those in Europe. This movement, however, made little progress until after the Second World War.

Before that war the status quo in north-east Africa was challenged by Mussolini's Italy. Mussolini was obsessed with the idea of winning an important place in the

world for Italy, and with the determination to wipe out the memory of the humiliating defeat by the Ethiopians in 1896. In 1935 the Italians invaded Ethiopia from Eritrea and Somaliland, and quickly overran the country. Ethiopia was then joined with the other two colonies to form Italian East Africa.

In the Second World War, after the collapse of France in 1940, Italy entered the war on the side of Germany; and the war then spread to Africa, with Italian offensives from Libya against British-controlled Egypt and from Italian East Africa into British Somaliland.

In East Africa the Italian invasion was soon halted; and a counter-offensive by a British Commonwealth force (including Indians, South Africans, East Africans and West Africans), assisted by an Ethiopian revolt, was overwhelmingly successful. The campaign was over by May 1941. Ethiopian independence was restored, and Eritrea and Italian Somaliland came under British administration.

In the north a fluctuating desert war, in which British Commonwealth forces were opposed by the Italians and Germans, continued until late in 1942, with Libya the battlefield. Then the British drove the German/Italian armies back across Tripolitania into Tunisia. Here they were joined by an Anglo-American army which had landed in Morocco and Algeria. By May 1943 they had cleared North Africa of German and Italian troops; and in July the Allies, from their bases in North Africa, invaded Sicily, and later Italy.

The position of the French colonies, after the collapse of France, was complicated. Her North African and West African colonies remained under the "Vichy" government, but French Equatorial Africa opted for General de Gaulle and became an important base of the 'Free French'. From Chad a Free French force conquered the Fezzan in Libya in 1942-43.

After the war all the pre-war French colonies were once more under the French government, headed by de Gaulle until his resignation in 1946. Madagascar, which had been taken by the British from Vichy control during the war, to prevent it from falling to the Japanese, was returned by Britain to France.

Libya, no longer an Italian colony, remained under a British/ French administration for several years, and then - in 1951 - it became, by a decision of the United Nations, an independent kingdom under Idris I, the leader of the Senussi.

* In the early days of the colonial period education was provided mainly by missionary schools; but after the Second World War there was a great expansion of state education. For example, in 1950, in Nigeria there were some 9000 primary schools, 100 secondary, over 100 teacher training colleges, and a University College at Ibadan. In the much smaller Senegal (a tenth the population of Nigeria) there were 200 primary schools and some secondary schools, teacher training colleges and technical colleges. In Kenya there were separate primary and secondary schools for Europeans, Africans, Indians, and Arabs.

Chapter 16. The Africans become Independent.

After the Second World War nationalist movements in Africa quickly gained momentum. This was largely due to the war itself, and its effects. Many thousands of Africans had fought in the Allied armies, expanding their outlook and their knowledge of international affairs; and the war had been to some extent an anti-racist war - against the racist governments of the Axis powers. And many more Africans had by now received the beginnings of a modern education and begun to take an interest in political matters. In many parts of Africa outstanding leaders arose - such men as Kwame Nkrumah of the Gold Coast, Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya, Julius Nyerere of Tanzania, Sékou Touré of (French) Guinea, Houphouët-Boigny of Ivory Coast.

Moreover the status of the two great colonial powers in Africa - France and Britain - had changed, and also their attitude to colonialism. France had been defeated, and after the war soon had serious troubles in her south-east Asian colonial empire, which she abandoned altogether in 1954. Britain had withdrawn from her Empire in India in 1947, and British opinion was becoming favourable to political concessions towards self-government in her colonies and protectorates.

The first moves came in the north. After their withdrawal from south-east Asia the French were faced with nationalist unrest in Morocco and Tunisia which they were unable to subdue, and both were granted independence in 1956 - the year in which the British left the (Egyptian) Sudan to be an independent nation.

The greatest blow to France, though, was a Moslem revolt in Algeria, regarded as part of France, and where there were over a million European settlers. For four years, 1954-58, huge numbers of French troops were sent to Algeria to crush the rebellion, but failed to do so. In 1958 the French government decided to negotiate, whereupon the settlers and French military leaders in Algeria seized power. To restore the situation de Gaulle came back, on a wave of public enthusiasm, to govern France. But the war went on; and in 1962, with the approval of a referendum in France, the independence of Algeria was accepted. Nearly a million settlers moved to France.

Meanwhile France had launched, in 1958, a "Community of African nations" to include all the remaining French territories in Africa. (De Gaulle had probably hoped that Algeria would fit into this.) In the Community each state was to be self-governing, but closely linked to France in foreign, strategic, financial and economic affairs. The following became members: Senegal, Gabon, Chad, Congo, Central African Republic, Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Upper Volta, Ivory Coast, Benin (Dahomey), and Malagasy (Madagascar)*. Guinea did not join, and became independent.

Two years later all members of the Community became fully independent - whereupon six of them withdrew from the Community (Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Upper Volta, Ivory Coast, and Benin).

The organs of government in the Community later dropped into abeyance, but French influence remained dominant. The ex-mandates Togo and Cameroon also

became independent in 1960, and remained territories associated with the Community. French Somaliland became a "territory associated with France" and fully independent as the Republic of Djibouti in 1977.

In all these ex-French African states, except those in North Africa, French is still an official language - and it is also much spoken in ex-French North Africa.

The first Negro state to gain independence was the British colony, the Gold Coast, which became independent Ghana in 1957 under the leadership of Nkrumah (and the British part of the Togo mandate was added to Ghana). The other British possessions in West Africa - Nigeria, Sierra Leone, and The Gambia - followed between 1960 and 1965. (Gambia took the name "The Gambia" after independence.)

Progress towards self-government and eventual complete independence was probably smoother in these West African states where there were few white settlers than it was in some of the climatically more salubrious territories in East Africa, where there were significant numbers of Europeans and Asians who were apprehensive of their future under African rule. For instance, in Kenya there were some 40-50,000 whites, about the same number of Arabs, and nearly 200,000 Indians or Pakistanis who had originally been imported for work on railway building.

Nevertheless, between 1960 and 1964 independence was granted to all the British possessions in East Africa : British Somaliland (which was united with ex-Italian Somaliland to form the new state of Somalia), Tanzania**, Uganda, Kenya, Malawi, and Zambia. In Kenya Britain had been confronted during most of the 1950s by a terrorist Organisation, the Mau Mau, a Kikuyu secret society expressing resentment against the European settlers and against the restrictions on allotment of land to Africans.

In South Africa the British protectorate of Bechuanaland became independent Botswana in 1966; and two other tribal territories - Basutoland and Swaziland - which were surrounded by the Union of South Africa and had become British protectorates in 1868 and 1902 respectively, also gained independence, Basutoland (as Lesotho) in 1966, Swaziland in 1968.

In 1960 the Union of South Africa became a republic, and in 1961 withdrew from the British Commonwealth. The former British colonies and protectorates Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, The Gambia, Tanzania, Uganda, Kenya, Malawi, Zambia, Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland all remained in the Commonwealth.

The situation in Southern Rhodesia was more difficult. Britain's plans for her independence with majority rule (in effect African rule) were bitterly opposed by most of the ¼ million or so white settlers. Failing to reach any agreement on the question, the white Rhodesians in 1965 declared Rhodesia to be an independent Dominion, within the Commonwealth. Negotiations and discussions - and internal troubles - continued for 15 years, until in 1980 Rhodesia became the independent African nation Zimbabwe - staying in the British Commonwealth.

The remaining territory in southern Africa, South West Africa or Namibia, is still administered by South Africa, which would like to incorporate it into the republic - against the ruling of the United Nations.

Belgian Africa. The Congo Free State became independent Zaire in 1960. Rwanda and Burundi were detached from it, and became separate states in 1962.

The Portuguese were reluctant to give up their African empire; but in all three colonies - Mozambique, Angola and Guinea-Bissau (Portuguese Guinea) - they were faced with continuous warfare from the early 1960s onwards against the guerillas of African resistance organizations. In 1974-75 Portugal abandoned the struggle, and all three became independent.

Spain granted independence to Spanish Guinea in 1968 - under the name Equatorial Guinea; and in 1975 the Spanish Sahara came under the joint control of Morocco and Mauritania.

So, between 1951 (Libya) and 1980 (Zimbabwe) colonial Africa ceased to exist. Instead there were (apart from Egypt, Ethiopia*** and South Africa) 43 independent countries, of which only one - Liberia - had been independent in 1950; and the unsolved problem Namibia.

*Senegal, Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Upper Volta, Ivory, Benin and Guinea are parts of what was French West Africa; Gabon, Chad, Congo and Central African Republic parts of what was French Equatorial Africa.

** Tanzania consisted of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. They were granted independence separately; but in Zanzibar the African majority rebelled against and overthrew the Arab Sultan and elected to join with Tanganyika.

***The ex-Italian colony of Eritrea was joined, by a United Nations decision, to Ethiopia in a federation, and was later (in 1962) incorporated in Ethiopia as a province of that country.

Chapter 17. After Independence: General.

The newly independent African nations faced many problems, particularly those countries - the great majority - with no recent experience of being a national state.

One awkward problem was that the boundaries of the new states often bore little or no relation to racial or tribal divisions. The boundaries had mainly come about as a result of the "scramble" for Africa", and had been drawn after bargaining between the European powers concerned with little consideration for tribal organisation. When independence was gained these artificial boundaries were accepted, because there was no other practicable way of obtaining independence without prolonged discussion, negotiation and strife. There was some talk of federation in West Africa, uniting the ex-British and also the ex-French colonies, but it came to nothing.

There were nevertheless many frontier disputes and small wars; but the "Organisation of African Unity", which was formed in 1963 by representatives of some 30 of the new states, helped to settle them. The OAU aimed to help towards independence those which had not yet, at that time, achieved it, and to improve economic, political and cultural conditions throughout Africa. Its permanent headquarters was established at Addis Ababa, in Ethiopia. The new states also became members of the United Nations; indeed, African countries number about 30% of the whole.

Another difficult problem facing particularly the East African countries, was the position of the European and Asian minorities in the new order.

Nearly all the new nations became republics. The few exceptions were the Kingdoms of Lesotho and Swaziland in the south, and Morocco and Libya in the north, but Libya became a republic later. And, in the other direction, the Central African Republic later changed to the Central African Empire.

With little experience of democratic government, there has been an inevitable trend in many states towards autocratic rule. Military coups and dictatorships have been frequent, and Communist interference by the Soviet Union in some areas has added to the problems.

The remaining chapters of this history will give some general information about all the states (populations and other statistics are estimates in the mid 1970s) and a brief history of each since independence. They are grouped as follows; and some notes are here given regarding previous names, to assist in identification

North Africa

Morocco

Algeria

Tunisia

Libya - Tripolitania and Cyrenaica.

The Countries of the Sudan

Mauritania - part of French West Africa. Not to be confused with Roman Mauretania, which was roughly modern Morocco.

Mali - part of French West Africa. In roughly the same position as ancient Mali from which it has taken its name.

Niger - part of French West Africa.

Chad - part of French Equatorial Africa. Named after Lake Chad, includes much of ancient Kanem-Bornu.

Sudan - Nubia, Egyptian or Eastern Sudan.

West Africa.

Liberia

Nigeria - includes ancient Oyo and Benin.

Ghana - Ashanti, Gold Coast. A different land from ancient Ghana, whose name it has taken.

Sierra Leone

The Gambia - Gambia.

Senegal - part of French West Africa.

Benin - Dahomey, part of French West Africa. A different land from ancient Benin.

Ivory Coast - part of French West Africa.

Upper Volta - part of French West Africa.

Guinea - French Guinea, part of French West Africa.

Togo - Togoland.

Guinea-Bissau - Portuguese Guinea.

East Africa.

Somalia - British and Italian Somaliland.

Djibouti - French Somaliland, Territory of the Afars and Issas.

Kenya

Uganda - Buganda, Bunyoro and other kingdoms.

Tanzania - Tanganyika and Zanzibar.

Mozambique

Malagasy - Madagascar.

Central Africa.

Central African Empire - Central African Republic, part of French Equatorial Africa.

Cameroon - Cameroons.

Congo - ancient Kongo, part of French Equatorial Africa. Different from the 'Belgian Congo'.

Gabon - part of French Equatorial Africa.

Equatorial Guinea - Spanish Guinea.

Zaire - Congo Free State, Belgian Congo. (Includes ancient Lunda, Luba, Kazembe.

Rwanda & Burundi - ancient kingdoms, then part of German East Africa, then part of the Belgian Congo.

Southern Central Africa

Zambia - Northern Rhodesia. Includes some of Central ancient Monomatapa

Malawi - Ancient Malawi, then Nyasaland.

Angola - parts of ancient Kongo and Ndongo.

Southern Africa

Zimbabwe - ancient Zimbabwe, then Southern Rhodesia, then Rhodesia.

Botswana - Bechuanaland.

Lesotho - Basutoland.

Swaziland.

Namibia - (German) South West Africa.

Note. The Central African Empire has recently (1979) reverted to being the Central African Republic.

Chapter 18. After Independence: North Africa.

Morocco. Resumed independence in 1956

Population – 16 ½ million. Arab 65%, Berber 35%, foreign population about 100,000.

Density of population - about 90 per square mile.

Religion - Moslem.

Language - Arabic (official), Berber, French, Spanish.

Literacy - 15%.

Exports - Phosphates and other minerals, citrus fruits.

Main towns -

Rabat	435,000.	Capital. Seaport.
Casablanca	1,370,000	Port. Economic centre of the country.
Marrakesh	330,000	Tourist centre. Ancient capital.
Fez	320,000	Sacred city. Ancient university. One-time capital
Meknes	300,000	Agricultural centre. One-time capital.
Tangier	185,000	Port and commercial city. Held by Portugal 1471-1662. Later a centre of the Barbary pirates. (Ceuta-and Melilla still belong to Spain.)

On Morocco's resumption of independence the Sultan Sidi Mohammed assumed the title King Muhammad V. On his death in 1961 his son became King Hassan II. A constitution providing for representative government was adopted by referendum in 1962; but after serious disturbances in 1965 the King suspended parliament. In 1970 he brought in a new constitution; in which he kept considerable powers. Discontent with the monarchy led to attempted coups by military officers in 1971 and 1972. The King survived, and brought in another constitution, also approved by referendum.

Morocco has kept aloof from the conflicts in the Middle East, and her economy has made progress - Morocco is the world's third largest producer of phosphates, and her tourist industry has increased.

Algeria Became independent (from France) in 1962.

Population - 15 million. Arab/Berber.

Density of population - about 18 per square mile.

Religion - Moslem.

Language - Arabic (official), French, Berber.

Literacy - 15%.

Exports - Oil, natural gas, wine, fruit.

Main towns –

Algiers	1,000,000	Capital. Seaport. Industrial centre.
Oran	400,000	Seaport. Former French naval station.
Constantine	250,000	

On attaining independence a leader of the Nationalists, Ben Bella, became President, but he was deposed by a military coup in 1965. Colonel Boumédiène came to power, and remained President until his death in 1978. His government maintained a neutral foreign policy, but Soviet influence increased.

The mass exodus of French colonists after independence weakened Algerian economy, but the discovery of huge deposits of oil and natural gas helped recovery.

Tunisia. Became independent (from France) in 1956.

Population – 5 ½ million. Arab/Berber.

Density of population - about 90 per square mile.

Religion - Moslem.

Language - Arabic (official), French.

Literacy - 30%.

Exports - Olive oil, mine, phosphates.

Main towns –

Tunis	500,000	Capital. Seaport. Near ruins of Carthage.
Sfax	200,000	
Bizerta	100,000	Seaport.

On becoming independent an elected Assembly abolished the monarchy and deposed the Bey, and Habib Bourguiba, a Nationalist leader, became President of the Tunisian Republic. He still is. He is immensely popular and has ruled with farsightedness and moderation - in both internal and foreign affairs, including his attitude towards Israel. Under his guidance Tunisia has been one of the most stable states in the Arab world.

Libya. Became independent in 1951.

Population – 2 ½ million. Arab/Berber.

Density of population - about 4 per square mile.

Religion - Moslem.

Language - Arabic (official), Italian, English.

Literacy - 25-30%

Exports - Oil.

Main towns –

Tripoli	400,000.	In Tripolitania.	
Benghazi	200,000.	In Cyrenaica.	Joint capitals.

A new capital is being built at Beida, in Cyrenaica.

Like Algeria, Libya contains a high proportion of desert. A sparsely populated country - with its inhabitants about a third nomadic - Libya was the first ex-colonial African state to become independent . From 1951 to 1969 it was a monarchy under King Idris, the Senussi leader. He was then overthrown by a military, coup, and the Libyan Arab Republic has since then been ruled by a left-wing military regime led by Colonel Gaddafi. Gaddafi expelled foreigners and aligned Libya with the more militant Arab countries in the Arab-Israeli confrontation.

The international position of Libya, hitherto of little consequence, has been transformed by the discovery of vast oil reserves, and Libya has become one of Western Europe's most important sources of oil.

Chapter 19. After Independence: The Countries of the Sudan.

Mauritania. Independent (from France) 1960.

Population – 1 ½ million. Arab/Berber 80%, Negro 20%.

Density of population - 3-4 -per square mile.

Religion - Moslem.

Language - French and Arabic (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 1-5%.

Exports - Iron ore.

Main town –
Nouakchott 50,000 Capital.

Much of this sparsely populated country is part of the Sahara desert. Many of the people are nomadic.

After independence there was prolonged friction with Morocco, owing to Moroccan claims to some of northern Mauritania - where there are large iron ore deposits which have become the basis of Mauritania's prosperity. Agreement to share these resources, and to share in a partition of the Spanish Sahara (see below) was eventually reached. Copper deposits are also being exploited.

The President of the "Islamic Republic of Mauritania" was Mokhtar Ould Daddah until 1978. His government was economically progressive, and appeared stable except for some discontent amongst the Negro minority. However, in 1978 Daddah was ousted by a military coup. A military government took over and suspended the constitution.

Spanish Sahara. This Spanish colony about 100,000 square miles of desert with about 60,000 inhabitants, mainly nomadic - was taken over in 1975, with Spanish agreement, by Morocco and Mauritania. Saharan guerillas, based in the Algerian Sahara, continue to aim at making the territory independent.

Mali. Independent (from France) 1960.

Population - 6 million. Berbers, Tuareg, Negroes the latter the majority (Bambara, Fulani and other tribes).

Density of population - about 13 per square mile.

Religion - about 60% Moslem, 30% tribal, 2% Christian. Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 5%

Exports - Groundnuts, cotton, dried fish.

Main towns –

Bamako	400,000	Capital.
Timbuktu	9,000	Caravan centre on the edge of the Sahara.

After independence Mali, under President Modibo Keita, pursued a strongly left-wing socialist course, assisted largely by Chinese Communists. In 1968 Keita was overthrown by a (bloodless) military coup. A young army officer, Youssa Traoré, became head of state and brought in a more conservative policy. In 1978 the government became mainly civilian, with Traoré still President.

Niger. Independent (from France) 1960.

Population - 4 million. Nomadic Tuaregs in the north, various Negro tribes in the south, Hausa the most numerous.

Density of population - about 8 per square mile.

Religion 85% Moslem, the remainder tribal and some Christians.

Language - French (official), Hausa and other tribal dialects.

Literacy - 5%.

Exports - Groundnuts. (Uranium recently discovered).

Main town –

Niamey	100,000	Capital.
--------	---------	----------

Under its first President, Diori Hamani, Niger kept close ties with France and was politically relatively stable. In 1974, however, the army seized power and military government followed, with Colonel Kouché as President.

Although the majority of the people are Hausa, there appears to be no inclination to unite with the Hausa of northern Nigeria.

Chad. Independent (from France) 1960.

Population - 4 million. About half Negro, half Sudanic (an Arab Negro mixture).

Density of population – about 8 per square mile.

Religion - about 50% Moslem, 40% tribal, 5% Christian.

Language - French (official), Arabic, tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Cotton.

Main town –

Fort Lamy (now Ndjamene)	170,000	Capital.
--------------------------	---------	----------

The people of Chad are a mixture of many tribes, and the country is very much divided, by race and religion, between the Moslems of the north and the Negroes, including Christians, of the south. The first President, Francois Tombalbaye, a Christian, instituted one-party rule in 1962. This was followed by prolonged warfare between the government, assisted by French troops, and the arabic-speaking Moslem guerillas. The French forces were withdrawn in 1972.

In 1975 President Tombalbaye was killed in a military coup, the constitution was suspended, and a military council took over. Since then a state of civil war has existed between north and south.

Sudan. An independent republic 1956.

Population - 18 million. Arab/Nubian in the north (about 65% of the population), Negroes in the south.

Density of population - about 18 per square mile.

Religion - 70% Moslem (including all the north), the remainder tribal, with some Christians.

Language - Arabic (official), English, French, tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10-15%. Exports - Cotton.

Main towns –

Khartoum	250,000	Capital.
Omdurman	160,000.	

The Republic of the Sudan is the largest (in area) country in Africa. Like its neighbour, Chad, there is a marked racial division between the Arab north and the Negro south. The first 13 years of independence was a period of instability and recurrent crises; and there was also continual strife between the government and the six million Negroes who wished to break away from the Arab north. (A factor in that desire may have been their memories of the Arab slave trade.)

In 1969 democracy was abandoned after a military coup. All parties were dissolved, and a revolutionary, council, headed by General Nimeri, brought in a period of firm government Nimeri survived an attempted Communist coup in 1971; and in 1972 he ended the war in the south by granting regional autonomy, within a unified Sudanese state, to the southern Negro provinces.

Chapter 20. After Independence - West Africa.

Liberia. Independent since 1847.

Population – 1 ¾ million. Nearly all indigenous of many tribes. Only about 3-5% descendants of American ex-slaves.

Density of population - about 40 per square mile.

Religion – 90% tribal; some Christians and Moslems.

Language - English (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Rubber, iron ore.

Main town –
Monrovia 150,000 Capital.

The constitution of the Republic of Liberia is modelled on that of the United States. The government has always been dominated by the descendants of the American ex-slaves for whom the state was founded, though they form a tiny minority of the population.

In the 1920s Liberia was rescued financially by the American Firestone Rubber Company, which started large rubber plantations. Liberia is also remarkable for its "flag of convenience" merchant fleet; some 15% of the world's tonnage is registered under the Liberian flag.

The President of Liberia from 1944 to 1971 was William Tubman, who favoured giving the tribal majority more say in the country's affairs - but democracy remains largely nominal.

Nigeria. Independent (of Britain) 1960, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 80 million. Main tribal groups - Hausa/Fulani 18%, Ibo 16%. Yoruba 14%.

Density of population - about 220 per square mile.

Religion - Tribal 43%, Moslem 38% (over 30 million), Christian 19%.

Language - English (official), Hausa (official in the north), and several hundred other tribal languages and dialects.

Literacy - 25%

Exports - Groundnuts, palm oil, cocoa, hides, and recently oil now tenth among the world's oil producing countries.

Main towns –

Lagos	1,000,000	Capital.
Ibadan	750,000	Capital of western province.
Kano	350,000	Capital of Kano province in the north.

Nigeria is easily the most populous state in Africa. The three main groups of people are widely divergent. (For pre-colonial history see previous). The Hausa/Fulani of the north are rigidly Moslem, and are less "modernised" than the rest; the Yoruba country of the south-west is the most highly developed; the Ibo of the east are enterprising, and many have left their homeland for work in the north and west. On attaining independence all three distrusted each other.

The result was that the federal constitution, which allowed a considerable degree of self-government to each of the three, was overthrown in 1966 by an Ibo military coup - followed by a second coup, this time by the Christian northerner, Sandhurst trained General Gowon.

Gowon tried to impose a 12 state federal Organisation, none of which would be powerful enough to dominate; whereupon the Ibos seceded and declared the independent state of Biafra in the east. A violent civil war ensued, lasting until 1970, when Biafra collapsed. It is thought that about a million people died in the war. Gowon then resumed his plan for political reconstruction - and economic progress. In the latter he was helped by Nigeria's boom in oil production.

Gowon's military government was overthrown in 1975, when he was ousted by another coup - and retired to live in Britain. His plan for a federal Organisation was implemented by his successors, and increased to 19 states, but military government continued, with further coups and attempted coups; and jealousy between the three tribal groups remains.

Ghana. Independent (of Britain) 1957, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 10 million. Almost all Sudanese Negroes of various tribes, Ashanti about 15%

Density of population - about 110 per square mile.

Religion - Over 40% Christian, about 12% Moslem, the rest tribal.

Language - English (official), Asante.

Literacy - 25%.

Exports - Cocoa (the world's largest producer), timber, gold.

Main towns –

Accra	700,000	Capital.
Kumasi	350,000	Old Ashanti capital.

On independence, Kwame Nkrumah* became prime minister, and President in 1960, when Ghana became a republic, still within the British Commonwealth.

Nkrumah had grandiose plans for Ghana's economic development, and for the unity of all Africa - under himself. He became increasingly dictatorial and made Ghana a one-party state on Communist lines. This alienated his supporters, and his schemes ruined Ghana financially. In 1966 he was deposed by a military coup and went into exile in Guinea.

The army restored civil government in 1969, providing for a president without executive power and an elected national assembly. After a further military coup in 1971, military government was resumed, and continued after yet another coup (bloodless like its predecessors) in 1978. A return to civil rule was promised in 1979.

Sierra Leone. Independent (of Britain) 1961, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 3 million. Some descendants of freed slaves (called Creoles and a mixture of many tribes.

Density of population - about 110 per square mile.

Religion - mainly tribal, about 30% Moslem, 5% Christian.

Language - English (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Diamonds, bauxite.

Main town –
Freetown 275,000 Capital.

After a military coup in 1967 and a short period of military dictatorship, Sierra Leone returned to civilian government in 1968 with Dr Siaka Stevens as prime minister. With the help of troops from neighbouring Guinea, he defeated another attempted coup by right-wing army leaders. In 1971 Sierra Leone became a republic, remaining in the British Commonwealth, with Stevens as President. A referendum in 1978 approved a new constitution, with a one- party system.

Before independence in 1961 political power had passed from the Creole minority to the tribal peoples, the two chief tribal groups being the Mendez of the south and the Temnes of the north, between whom there is political jealousy.

The Gambia. Independent (of Britain) 1965, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population – ½ million. Mandinka and other West African peoples.

Density of population - about 125 per square mile.

Religion - about 60%. Moslem, 10% Christian, the rest tribal.

Language - English (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy 10%.

Exports - Groundnuts.

Main town –

Banjul (formerly, Bathurst) 50,000 Capital.

Five years after independence, The Gambia in 1970 became a republic, still in the Commonwealth. The smallest African state (200 miles long and 20 miles wide), it is largely dependent on trade with and aid from Britain. Progress is being made in diversification of production, and the tourist Industry is expanding.

The Gambia is virtually surrounded by ex-French Senegal, with which it co-operates in defence and foreign affairs - but has so far resisted moves for a federation with Senegal. Sir Dawda Jawara, who became prime minister on independence, is the President, with considerable executive power. The Gambia has been the most stable politically of the ex-British colonies of West Africa.

Senegal. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population - 5 million. Various West African peoples - Wolof, Yandinka, Fulani.

Density of population - about 6 per square mile.

Religion - about 80% Moslem, some Christian and some tribal.

Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Groundnuts, phosphates.

Main town –

Dakar 700,000 Capital. Seaport. Formerly the seat of government of French West Africa. In the Second World War British and Free French naval forces failed to take Dakar from the Vichy French.

After a brief federation with Mali, Senegal became a separate republic with Leopold Senghor as President, which he still is. Senghor, a poet, has emphasised in his writings the distinctive character of African culture. Senegal has been one of the more stable of the new African nations.

Benin. Independent (of France) : 1960

Population – 3 ½ million. Dahomeyans and other West African peoples.

Density of population - about 75 per square mile.

Religion - mainly tribal, about 15% Roman Catholic and 15% Moslem.

Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Palm oil, groundnuts, coffee.

Main towns –

Porto Novo	100,000	Capital.
Cotonou	150,000	Seaport.

One of the poorer of the new nations, the Republic of Benin has suffered - probably even more than any of the other states - from a series of political crises and military coups. There were nine different governments in the first ten years. It remains under military rule.

Ivory Coast. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population – 6 ½ million. Akan and other West African peoples.

Density of population - about 50 per square mile.

Religion - about 60% Tribal, 25% Moslem, 15% Roman Catholic.

Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 20%.

Exports - Coffee, timber, cocoa, bananas.

Main towns –

Abidjan	800,000	Capital and seaport.
Bouake	200 000.	

Felix Houphouet-Boigny, who succeeded in bringing many improvements to the lot of the Africans under French colonial rule in the 1940s and 1950s, has been President since independence. He has maintained close ties with France, and under his rather authoritarian but practical rule the Ivory Coast has enjoyed an economic boom - exemplified by the magnificent modern buildings in Abidjan.

Houphouet-Boigny, placing economics before politics, has stated his view that reconciliation with South Africa is more likely to lead to changing the apartheid system there than is force - a view which has incurred the criticism of many African leaders.

Upper Volta. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population – 5 ½ million. Mossi and other tribes.

Density of population - about 55 per square mile.

Religion - mainly tribal, about 20% Moslem, and a few Christians.

Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 5-10%.

Exports - Livestock, cotton, groundnuts.

Main town –
Ouagadougou 150,000 Capital.

Upper Volta, like Benin, is one of the poorer of the new states. Economic crisis and austerity led to discontent and the collapse of the government in 1966. After a military coup, General Lamizana became President and the National Assembly was dissolved. Since then varying degrees of military rule have continued, with Lamizana still President.

Guinea. Independent (of France) 1958.

Population - 5 million. Fulani, Malinke (Mandinka) and other tribes.

Density of population - about 50 per square mile.

Religion - 65% Moslem, 30% Tribal, a few Christians.

Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy 10-15%.

Exports - Bauxite, iron ore, bananas.

Main town –
Conakry 250,000 Capital.

Guinea, the only French-ruled West African territory which did not join the French Community in 1958, became independent under the presidency of Samory Touré, a Marxist and ardent nationalist. French assistance ceased, and Touré turned to the Soviet Union and China for aid.

Touré, a close friend of Nkrumah of Ghana - for a short time there was a union between the two countries - gave Nkrumah political asylum in Guinea when he was overthrown in Ghana in 1966. Nkrumah became joint head of state in Guinea, until his death in 1972.

In recent years Touré has shown signs of seeking closer ties with the West in economic development.

Togo. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population – 2 ¼ million. Many tribal groups, Hamitic types in the north.

Density of population - about 100 per square mile.

Religion - mainly tribal, about 20% Christian, 7% Moslem.

Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 5-10%.

Exports - Phosphates, coffee, cocoa, cotton.

Main town –
Lomé 230,000 Capital.

After the First World War the German colony of Togoland was divided between France and Britain as mandates. French and British administration continued after the Second World War. In 1956 British Togoland voted for integration with Ghana, and became part of independent Ghana. French Togoland became independent in 1960 as the Republic of Togo. The first President was assassinated in 1963, and after several military coups direct military rule was imposed in 1967, since when General Eyadema has been Head of State.

The largest tribal element, the Ewe, have campaigned for unification with ex-British Togoland.

Guinea-Bissau. Independent (of Portugal) 1974.

Population - $\frac{3}{4}$ million. Fulani, Mandinka and other tribes.

Density of population - about 50 per square mile.

Religion - mainly tribal, about 35% Moslem, 2% Christian.

Language - Portuguese (official), Guinea Creole, tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Groundnuts, coconuts.

Main town –
Bissau 70,000 Capital.

After becoming independent Guinea-Bissau became a one-party Socialist state with leanings towards the Soviet Union. The one party is the African Party for Independence in Guinea and Cape Verde Islands (PAIGC). It aims at unification with the Cape Verde Islands. These also achieved Independence from Portugal as a separate republic, in 1975.

*Nkrumah was the son of a goldsmith and was educated at Catholic mission schools. He then went to a teachers' training college, and subsequently to university in the United States.

Chapter 21. After Independence: East Africa.

Somalia. Independent (of Britain) 1960.

Population – 3 ¼ million. Somalis, Gallas.

Density of population - about 13 per square mile.

Religion - Moslem.

Language - Arabic, Italian, English (all official), Somali.

Exports Bananas, livestock.

Main town –

Mogadishu 220,000 Capital and seaport.

A democratic regime existed until 1969, when the President was assassinated and the army took over. A Revolutionary Council under General Siyad has ruled since then, the only legal political Organisation being the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party.

Many Somalis inhabited the Ogaden region of Ethiopia, and also northern Kenya. This has been the basis of a "greater Somalia" movement, which culminated in war with Ethiopia. In 1978 the Ethiopians, with assistance from the Soviet Union and Cuban forces, drove the Somalis from the Ogaden.

(In Ethiopia the very ancient monarchy was ended in 1974, when the Emperor was deposed. Since then Ethiopia has come under strong Soviet influence.)

Djibouti. This small territory on the Gulf of Aden, formerly French Somaliland, became independent of France in 1977. French influence is the remains. The population is about 350,000. The capital port, Djibouti. (For a time the territory was known as that of the Afars and the Issas.)

Eritrea. Although incorporated into Ethiopia, Eritrean guerillas have for many years struggled for independence, and by 1977 some 80% of the country was controlled by them. The Eritreans, numbering about 1 ½ million, are mainly agriculturists, some nomadic. Like the Somalis, most are of Arab origin, some Negro. Many are Coptic Christians (the religion of Ethiopia since the 4th century), many Moslems.

Kenya. Independent (of Britain) 1963, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 12 million. Kikuyu, Tuo and other tribes; some British and Asians.

Density of population - about 50-55 per square mile.

Religion - about 50% tribal, 33% Christian, some Moslems and Hindus.

Language - Swahili (official), English, tribal dialects.

Literacy - 20-25%.

Exports - Coffee, tea, oil, maize.

Main towns –

Nairobi	500,000	Capital.
Mombasa	250,000	Seaport.

Jomo Kenyatta*, leader of the Kikuyu, became the country's first President, and remained President until his death in 1978 when in his late 80s. Kenya is a one-party republic within the British Commonwealth; and Kenyatta's conservative policy, which included co-operation with the whites, earned him the reputation of a wise ruler, a friend of Britain, and a bulwark against Communism.

Kenya has been stable and prosperous, and the tourist industry has flourished; but there have been tensions caused by the expulsion of Asians, and discontent among the other tribes, particularly the Tuo, due to the Kikuyu monopoly of power.

*Kenyatta was born in 1891, son of a farmer and grandson of a magician. He was educated at a Scottish mission school. He was for 15 years in Britain, returning in 1946 to Kenya where he led the Kenya African Union, an Organisation pressing for reforms. He was imprisoned and exiled by the British for complicity - which he denied - in the Mau Mau rebellion. He was allowed to return in 1961.

Uganda. Independent (of Britain) 1962, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 11 million. Baganda and other tribes.

Density of population - about 120 per square mile.

Religion - about 50% Christian (roughly equal Roman Catholic and Protestant), 6%. Moslem, the rest tribal.

Language - Swahili (official), English, tribal dialects.

Literacy - 20%.

Exports - Coffee, cotton, tea.

Main town –

Kampala	330,000	Capital.
---------	---------	----------

Uganda consists of what were, in pre-colonial times, four kingdoms, of which the most powerful were Buganda in the south and Bunyoro, often at war with each other. On independence a federal constitution gave Buganda, then the strongest kingdom, considerable control of its own affairs. Its ruler was the Kabaka Mutesa (known as King Freddie), who became President of the Republic of Uganda.

In 1966 Mutesa was deposed, in a brief revolution, by Milton Obote, the prime minister and a northerner of the Lango tribe. Mutesa fled from the country. Obote abolished the old kingdoms and the federal system, and became President. He introduced socialist reforms - and was himself overthrown in 1971 by the army led by General Amin, another northerner and a Moslem.

Amin declared himself Head of State, suspended parts of the constitution, and ruled through a Defence Council. He became increasingly autocratic, and in 1979 he was in his turn removed and exiled by another revolution assisted by Tanzanian troops. A military commission took over the government pending the holding of elections.

Uganda is potentially prosperous, but being landlocked is dependent on good relations with Kenya, through which her exports move by rail to the coast.

Tanzania. Independent (of Britain) 1961, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 15 million. 99% tribes of Bantu descent.

Density of population - about 40 per square mile.

Religion - about 30% Moslem, 25% Christian, the rest tribal.

Language - English and Swahili (both official). Literacy - 15-20%.

Exports - Sisal, coffee, cotton, diamonds.

Main towns –

Dar-es-Salam	350,000	Capital.
Zanzibar	70,000.	

Tanganyika became independent in 1961 and a republic within the Commonwealth in 1962, with Julius Nyerere* as President. In 1963 Tanganyika was joined by Zanzibar to form Tanzania.

Under Nyerere Tanzania became a one-party Socialist state. Tanzania is a poor country, and Nyerere set about achieving Tanzanian self-reliance by co-operative rural development, known as Ujamaa villages. By the 1970s a high proportion of the population lived in them.

In foreign affairs Nyerere has strongly supported the independence movements in Portuguese Mozambique and Angola and opposed the rule of Amin in Uganda and the "U.D.I." regime in Rhodesia. For the latter he blamed Britain, with which for a time he broke off diplomatic relations. Nyerere seems to be one of the most firmly seated African heads of state.

* Nyerere was born in 1922. He is a Roman Catholic. He completed his education at Edinburgh University and became a schoolmaster. In the mid-1950s he created the "Tanganyika African National Union" and worked for African independence. (TANU is now the one political party in Tanzania). Nyerere has a high intellectual reputation - and one for wisdom, moderation and austerity.

Mozambique. Independent (of Portugal) 1975.

Population - 10 million. 98% Bantu, 1½%, European. Most of the Portuguese left before independence.

Density of population - about 33 per square mile.

Religion - about 12% Moslem, 12% Christian, the rest tribal.

Language - Portuguese, tribal dialects.

Literacy - 15%.

Exports - Cashew nuts, cotton, Sugar,

Main town -

 Lourenco Marques (now Maputo) 500,000 Capital.

The Nationalist revolt against the Portuguese was led by the Marxist Liberation Front (FRELIMO). On achieving independence all power was concentrated in FRELIMO; and its president, Samora Machel, became President of the People's Republic of Mozambique. Machel's policy is one of extreme Socialism, including the abolition of private ownership and widespread nationalisation. The basis of the economy is agriculture.

Malagasy. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population - 8 million. Polynesian, Arab, and Negro, also some French, Chinese and Indians.

Density of population - about 35 per square mile.

Religion - about 50% tribal, 40% Christian, 5-10% Moslem.

Language - Malagasy, French (both official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 40%.

Exports - Coffee, cloves, vanilla.

Main town -

 Tananarive 400,000 Capital.

The first President, Philibert Tsiranana, was popular and maintained a stable political situation until there was a left-wing rebellion in 1972. He then resigned and handed over to the army. The newly appointed President was immediately assassinated. After a period of martial law, a new constitution was brought in at the end of 1975, with the civilian element increased. The President since then has been (Naval) Captain Ratsiraka.

The economy is based almost wholly on agriculture - but Malagasy is also the world's largest producer of graphite.

Chapter 22. After Independence: Central Africa.

Central African Republic. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population - 3 million. Many different tribes, including some pygmies. Many came from the north, to escape the European and Arab slave traders.

Density of population - about 12 per square mile.

Religion - about 35% Roman Catholic, 5-10% Moslem, the rest tribal.

Language - French (official), Sango - a common language among the tribes.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Coffee, cotton, diamonds.

Main town –
Bangui 250,000 Capital.

The first president, David Dacko, was deposed in 1966 by a military coup, and Colonel Bokassa became President. He suspended the constitution, dissolved the National Assembly, and ruled by decree. In 1971 Bokassa proclaimed himself Emperor and introduced a "parliamentary monarchy", the country being re-named the Central African Empire. Bokassa accumulated all power to himself - as Emperor, Head of State, Prime Minister and head of all important ministries.

Later Bokassa's delusions of grandeur and acts of cruelty led to his overthrow in 1979. The country became once more the Central African Republic, and Dacko once more the President.

Cameroon. Independent of France (and Britain) 1960-61.

Population – 7 ½ million. Fulani and many other tribes; in the north mainly Sudanic and pastoral, in the south Bantu and agricultural.

Density of population - about 40 per square mile.

Religion - about 33% Christian (the majority Roman Catholic), 20% Moslem, the rest tribal.

Language - French and English (both official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 15%.

Exports - Coffee, cocoa.

Main towns –
Yaounee 300,000 Capital.
Douala 450,000 Seaport.

After the First World War the German colony of the Cameroons was divided between Britain and France, the British part being administered by Nigeria. When both the French Cameroons and Nigeria became independent in 1960, the northern part of the British Cameroons opted by referendum to be part of Nigeria, and the southern part opted for union with the French Cameroons. The resulting Federal Republic of Cameroon was 90% ex-French and 10% (in the west) ex-British. In 1972 local autonomy was abolished and the country became the United Republic of Cameroon.

The French-speaking President Ahidjo has been president since independence; he was re-elected in 1975 for a fourth 5-year term. Under him (and a one-party system) the union, in spite of western fears of eastern domination, seems to have worked satisfactorily, and tribal strife has been avoided.

Congo. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population - 2 million. Various Bantu tribes and about 12,000 pygmies.

Density of population - about 15 per square mile.

Religion - about 50% tribal, 50% Christian (mainly Roman Catholic).

Language - French (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 20%.

Exports - Timber, oil.

Main town –
Brazzaville 300,000 Capital.

In the early years of independence the government was Communist in doctrine; but resentment at the close ties with Communist countries led to the government's overthrow by the army in 1968. General Nguabi became President. A new constitution in 1970, however, remained strongly Socialist, with the leader of the new Congolese Labour Party to be automatically president, and the country renamed the Congo People's Republic. There was frequent friction with the anti-Communist government of "the other Congo" - Zaire.

In 1977 President Nguabi was assassinated, and the government was taken over by a military committee.

Gabon. Independent (of France) 1960.

Population - 1 million. Many tribes, the most numerous being the Fang, once known for their ferocity and cannibalism.

Density of population - about 10 per square mile.

Religion - about 50% Roman Catholic, 50% tribal; a very few Moslems.

Language - French (official), Fang and other tribal dialects.

Literacy - 30%.

Exports - Oil, timber, manganese,

Main town –
Libreville 250,000 Capital.

Mineral and oil resources have made Gabon one of the most prosperous of the new African states. President M'ba and his successor President Bongo (President since 1967) have both kept close ties with France. The government is virtually in the hands of the president, who has the power to dissolve the National Assembly at will. In foreign affairs Bongo maintains a policy of co-operation with France, and no extremes - similar to that of Houphouet-Boigny in the Ivory Coast. In 1973 Bongo, influenced by Gaddafi of Libya, was converted to Islam - but relations with left-wing Libya soon cooled off.

(Lambaréné in Gabon became well known in western Europe early in the 20th century with the establishment there by the French theologian and missionary surgeon Albert Schweitzer of a hospital to fight leprosy and sleeping sickness.)

Equatorial Guinea. Independent (of Spain) 1968.

Population - 300,000. The Fang tribe the majority.

Density of population - 25-30 per square mile.

Religion - about 70% nominally Roman Catholic (see below), some Protestant, some tribal.

Language - Spanish (official), Fang and other tribal dialects.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Cocoa.

Main towns
Malabo 60,000 Capital. In Fernando Po.
Bata 30,000 In Rio Muni.

Equatorial Guinea consists of the island of Fernando Po and the mainland area of Rio Muni. The first president was Francisco Macias Nguema - after whom Fernando Po was renamed Macias Nguema. A one-party political system was introduced, and Macias assumed dictatorial powers. He adopted anti-Spanish policies, which led to disorders and the evacuation of nearly all Spanish residents to Spain in 1969-71. Later, in 1975-76, most of the Nigerian labour force which largely worked the cocoa plantations was repatriated to Nigeria after allegations of bad treatment. The economy became mainly dependent on aid from Communist countries.

In 1976 President Macias was deposed by his nephew Colonel Teodoro Nguema, and a revolutionary military council took over.

In recent years Roman Catholicism has been repressed, and Churches and Church schools closed.

Zaire. Independent (of Belgium) 1960.

Population - 25 million. Some 200 different tribes, mostly Bantu, some Sudanic, in the north; about 100,000 pygmies.

Density of population - about 27 per square mile.

Religion - about 40% Christian (predominantly Roman Catholic), a few Moslems, the rest tribal.

Language - French (official), tribal dialects, Swahili.

Literacy – XX

Exports - Copper, other minerals, diamonds, coffee, palm oil.

Main town –
Kinshasa 2,000,000 Capital.

Independence was rather hastily granted by Belgium due to extremist anti-colonialism and world opinion, and was followed by chaos, the Africans having had little opportunity to take part in the administration under Belgian rule. Tribal rivalries revived, Belgian settlers were driven out, and mineral-rich Katanga, led by Tshombe, broke away from the new republic. In 1964 it was re-united with Tshombe as prime minister; but in 1965 the army, led by Colonel Mobutu, seized power and Tshombe was exiled.

Mobutu became President, and, by the use of force and the help of American economic aid, order was restored by 1968. Various subsequent revisions of the constitution centralised power in Mobutu's hands, with a one-party political system. Continuing extensive American aid has made Zaire stable and prosperous - and an anti-Communist ally of the United States.

Mobutu is still the President - and respect for Mobutu has become virtually the official religion.

Rwanda. Independent (of Belgium) 1962.

Population - 4 million. Mainly the Hutu tribe, some Tutsi, and some Twa pygmies.

Density of population - about 400 per square mile (with Burundi the highest in Africa).

Religion - over 60% Christian, the rest tribal.

Language - Kinyarwanda (the native language) and French (both official).

Literacy - 10%

Exports - Coffee, tin ore, tea.

Main town –

Xigali 100,000 Capital.

The ancient kingdoms of Rwanda and Burundi became part of German East Africa in the colonial period, and then became the Belgian mandate of Rwanda-Urundi after the First World War, attached to the Belgian Congo. They were detached from the Belgian Congo when it became independent Zaire, and resumed their ancient status as the separate states of Rwanda and Burundi.

In the centuries before the colonial period Rwanda was first occupied mainly by the pygmies, then by the Bantu Hutus, and in the 15th century was conquered by the Tutsi, who imposed an over-lordship over their predecessors. (The Tutsi, thought to have come from Ethiopia, are the world's tallest people, averaging nearly 7 feet.)

In 1959 the Tutsi monarchy was overthrown by a Hutu revolt. In 1961 a referendum under United Nations supervision abolished the monarchy, and Rwanda became a republic under a Hutu one-party presidential regime. Though still afflicted by Tutsi tribal disturbances, Rwanda became a more stable, but under-developed, country.

Burundi. Independent (of Belgium) 1962.

Population - nearly 4 million. About 85% Hutu, 14% Tutsi, 1% Twa.

Density of population - nearly 400 per square mile.

Religion - over 50% Roman Catholic, a few Moslems, the rest tribal.

Language - Kirundi (a Bantu language) and French (both official), Swahili.

Literacy - 10%.

Exports - Coffee, cotton.

Main town -
Bujumbura 100,000 Capital.

Burundi has a history similar to Rwanda, except that the Tutsi minority have retained power over the Hutu majority. On independence the Tutsi monarchy ruled, but was overthrown in 1966 by the army, and Burundi became a republic. The government was again overthrown by the army in 1976, and a Supreme Revolutionary Council took over. Tribal conflict between the ruling Tutsi and the much more numerous Hutu farmers continues.

Chapter 23. After Independence: Southern Central Africa.

Zambia. Independent (of Britain) 1964, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population – 4 ¾ million. Bantu tribes. Some British and other Europeans.

Density of population - about 16 per square mile.

Religion - about 15% Christian, some Moslems and Hindus, the rest tribal.

Language - English (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 15-20%.

Exports - Copper and other minerals. (The world's second largest copper producer, after the United States.)

Main town –
Tusaka 500,000 Capital.

Before the end of British rule Zambia, then Northern Rhodesia, was joined in 1953 in a Federation with Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland (now Malawi). The Federation, however, was bitterly opposed by the Zambian nationalists, led by Kenneth Kaunda*, who saw in it an attempt to sustain a white-dominated society based largely on Zambia's mineral wealth. Yielding to African pressure, Britain dissolved the Federation in 1963, and Zambia became an independent republic within the British Commonwealth in 1964, with Kaunda as President.

The Declaration of Independence by the white community in Rhodesia in 1965 complicated affairs for Zambia. Kaunda strongly opposed white rule - in South Africa as well as Rhodesia - but Zambia's economy was closely linked with that of Rhodesia, and international "sanctions" against Rhodesia hurt Zambia as well. However, Zambia survived, and Kaunda supports the new regime in Zimbabwe - and continues to be hostile to the regime in South Africa.

In 1972 Kaunda abolished all political parties except his own. He has extended government control over the economy; and to lessen Zambia's dependence on her southern neighbours a 1000 mile railway is being built - with assistance from Communist China to Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania.

*Kaunda was born in 1924, son of an African Christian missionary. He was a schoolmaster in the 1940s, and in the 1950s the founder of nationalist political organizations. Since becoming President of Zambia he has acquired international prestige in the politics of south-eastern Africa.

Malawi. Independent (of Britain) 1964, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 5 million. Bantu tribes.

Density of population - about 110 per square mile.

Religion - about 40% Christian (mainly Roman Catholic or Presbyterian), a few Moslems, the rest tribal.

Language - English (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 15%.

Exports - Tobacco, tea, sugar, groundnuts.

Main towns –

Lilongwe	100,000	Capital.
Blantyre	200,000	Commercial and industrial centre.

In 1963 Malawi (then Nyasaland) seceded from the Federation with the Rhodesians, and became the independent republic of Malawi within the British Commonwealth, under the leadership of Dr. Hastings Banda*. In 1970 Dr. Banda became President for life. He survived much internal unrest, and strengthened his autocratic rule, proclaiming a one-party state.

Dr. Banda has pursued a realistic policy of co-operation with the white rulers of South Africa and Rhodesia, an attitude which has been much criticised by many African leaders. His relations with Kaunda of Zambia and Nyerere of Tanzania have been extremely unfriendly.

* Dr. Banda (born 1905) took degrees in philosophy and medicine in the United States, and practised as a doctor in England for many years, returning to Nyasaland in 1958. For a short time he was imprisoned by the British for his nationalist activities.

Angola. Independent (of Portugal) 1975.

Population - 6 million. Mainly Bantu tribes.

Density of population - about 12 per square mile.

Religion - the majority tribal, many Roman Catholics.

Language - Portuguese (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - 5%.

Exports - Coffee, oil, diamonds, iron ore.

Main town –

Luanda	500,000	Capital.
--------	---------	----------

Independence was gained in 1975, after 14 years of rebellion against Portugal's repressive rule - and in the midst of civil war for supremacy among several rival nationalist groups. In 1976 Russian/Cuban military assistance enabled the "Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola" (MPLA) to defeat its rivals - which were supported by South Africa and the United States. The MPLA established a government, and started a period of reconstruction. Some Cuban troops were

withdrawn, but Cuban technicians remained. The white population had been greatly reduced by a mass exodus during the wars.

Chapter 24. Southern Africa since 1965.

Zimbabwe. Independent (of Britain) 1980, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population – 6 ½ million. Mainly the Shona* and Matabele* Bantu tribes; about ¼ million whites, chiefly British; some Asians.

Density of population - 45-50 per square mile.

Religion - about 15% Christian, the rest tribal. Language - English (official), tribal dialects.

Literacy - XX

Exports - Tobacco, copper, asbestos.

Main towns –

Salisbury	500,000	Capital. In Mashonaland.
Bulawayo	300,000.	In Matabeleland.

During the period after the white Rhodesians, led by Ian Smith, proclaimed a Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1965, economic "sanctions" were imposed by the United Nations; but this failed to bring down the "illegal" regime. Further negotiations with Britain proved fruitless, and in 1970 Rhodesia declared itself a republic. Ten years later agreement with Britain was at last reached, Ian Smith finally accepting the principle of majority rule. Elections for an Assembly of 20 European and 80 African members were then held under British supervision.

The result was that the two African "Popular Front" parties, led by Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo (both of whom had for many years campaigned for African independence), gained 77 of the 80 African seats. Mugabe's party had 57 and Nkomo's 20, the latter including 15 of the 16 seats representing Matabeleland.

Zimbabwe became a Republic in the British Commonwealth. Mugabe became prime minister, and he nominated Canaan Banana, a Methodist minister and a Matabele, as President.

Mugabe is attempting to obtain the co-operation of all sections of the community, including the whites.

*For the pre-British history of Zimbabwe - which resulted in the division of the country between the Shona and the Matabele - see previous. Matabeleland is in the west, Mashonaland in the east. For the British conquest see previous.

Botswana. Independent (of Britain) 1966, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 3 million. Bechuana tribes (Bantu), some Bushmen.

Density of population - 3 to 4 per square mile.

Religion - about 15% Christian, 85% tribal.

Language - English (official), Setswana.

Literacy – 20%

Exports - Cattle, beef, diamonds.

Main town –
Gaborone 50,000 Capital.

Bechuanaland became a British protectorate in 1885. After South Africa (incorporation into which had been resisted by the Bechuana leaders) left the British Commonwealth in 1961, Bechuanaland was given its own constitution by Britain; and in 1966 it became the independent Republic of Botswana within the British Commonwealth. Sir Seretse Khama became President. The son of an African chief, he had studied law in Britain and married an Englishwoman.

Botswana's economy has been almost entirely dependent on cattle raising - there are about 4 times as many cattle as people and has much relied on British financial aid. Mineral extraction is now making progress. Friendly relations are maintained with South Africa, Botswana's main trading partner.

Lesotho. Independent (of Britain) 1966, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population - 11 million. Basutos (Bantu).

Density of population - about 100 per square mile.

Religion – 70% Christian (40% Roman Catholic), the rest tribal.

Language - English and Sesotho (both official).

Literacy - 50%.

Exports - Diamonds, wool, mohair, livestock.

Main town –
Maseru 45,000 Capital.

Basutoland became a British protectorate in 1868 when the Basutos, fearing annexation by the Boers of South Africa, asked Britain for protection. It became independent in 1966 as the Kingdom of Lesotho, in the British Commonwealth. The paramount chief Moshoeshe II became King, and Chief Leabua Jonathan prime minister.

There was a crisis in 1970 when the King tried to increase his power and was exiled; but after a few months he was allowed to return.

Lesotho has generally kept friendly relations with South Africa, which geographically surrounds it and upon which it is economically dependent; but relations have at times been strained by Jonathan's criticism of South Africa's racial policy of apartheid.

Swaziland. Independent (of Britain) 1968, remaining in the Commonwealth.

Population – ½ million. 95% Swazi (Bantu), about 10,000 Europeans.

Density of population - about 75 per square mile.

Religion – 60% Christian, 40% tribal.

Language - English and Siswati (both official).

Literacy - 25-30%.

Exports - Sugar, iron ore, wood pulp.

Main town –
Mbabane 25,000 Capital.

In the 19th century the Swazi people sought British protection against the Zulus; and a government representing the Swazi, the British, and the Boers of the Transvaal, was established. After the British-Boer War Swaziland became a British protectorate. In 1968 it became an independent kingdom in the British Commonwealth. Sobhuza II, paramount chief since 1898, became King. He exercises considerable legislative and judicial authority.

Swaziland is free of the tribal friction prevalent in so many African states, and has maintained friendly relations with South Africa. A mountainous and pleasant land, and rich in minerals, Swaziland has attracted many white settlers, who own much of the land. Rider Haggard wrote "King Solomon's Mines" here (based on the Zimbabwe ruins)

Namibia.

Population - ¾ million. Various tribes, including Ovambo, Herero and Nama. About 100,000 whites, mainly of German or South African descent. About 20,000 Bushmen.

Density of population - 2 to 3 per square mile.

Religion – 40% Christian, the rest tribal.

Language - Afrikaans, English (both official), German, tribal dialects.

Literacy – 30%

Exports - Diamonds and other minerals.

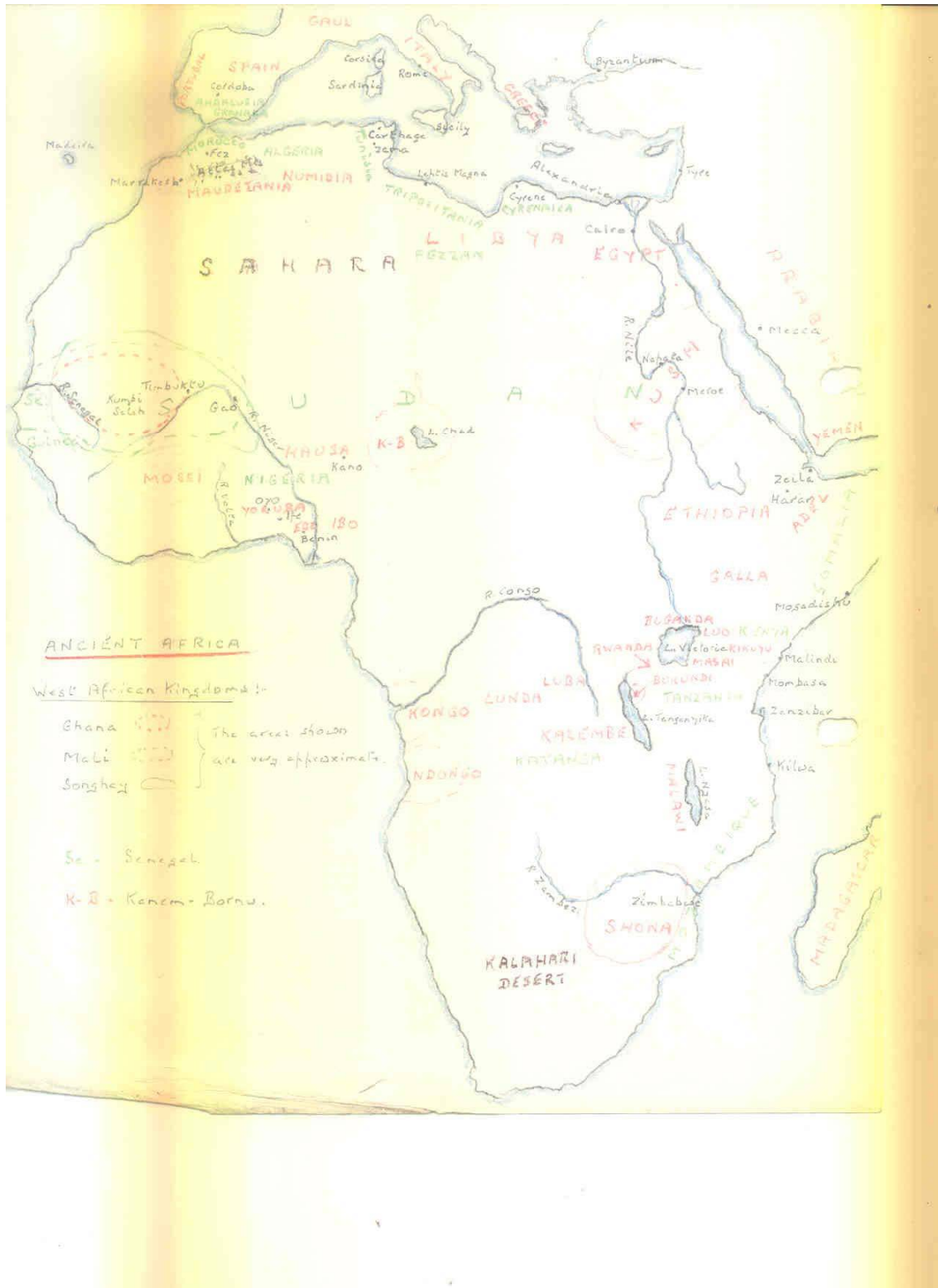
Main towns -
Windhoek 50,000 Capital.
Walis Bay 20,000 Seaport.

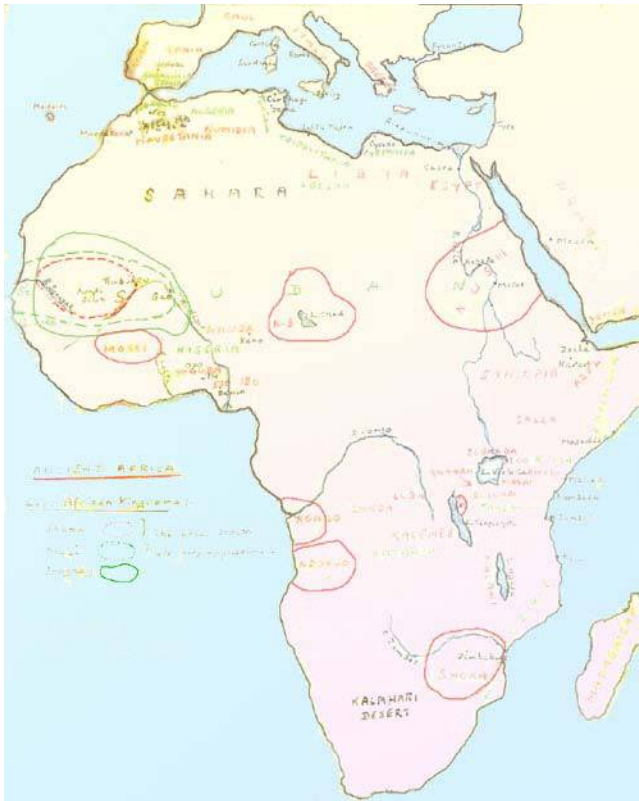
After the German defeat in the First World War, South West Africa became a mandate administered by South Africa.

After the Second World War, South Africa - and the Europeans in South West Africa - favoured incorporation in South Africa. The United Nations refused this; and the status of South West Africa - re-named Namibia by the United Nations in 1968 - remained in dispute.

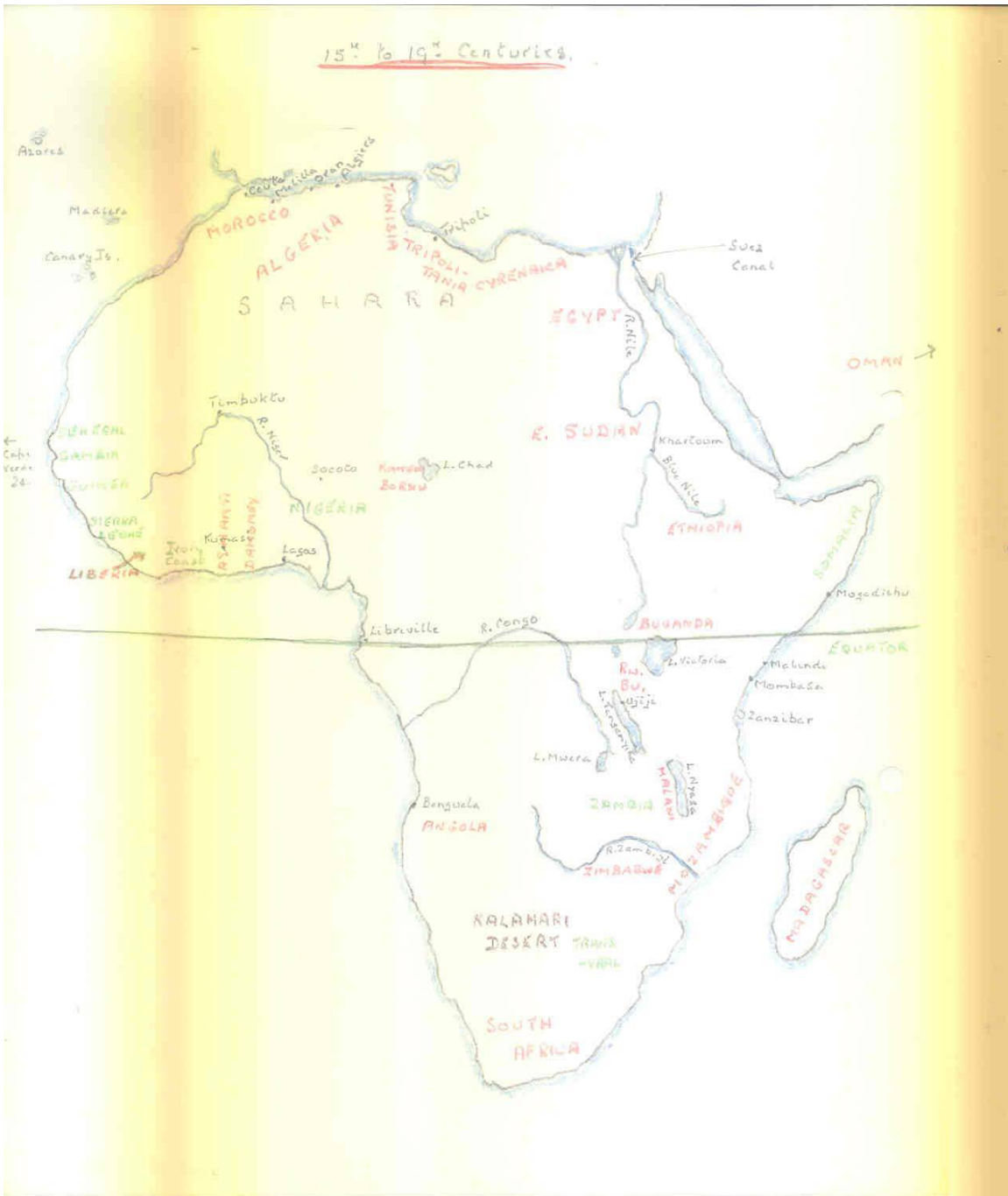
South Africa's continued administration of the territory was ruled by the United Nations in 1971 to be illegal. The U.N. aimed at independence for Namibia by the end of 1978. Shortly before that date South Africa conducted elections in Namibia without U.N. supervision. The resulting Assembly was not recognised by the U.N. nor by the nationalist group SWAPO (South West Africa People's Organisation) which boycotted the election. The dispute continues.

Map □ Ancient Africa

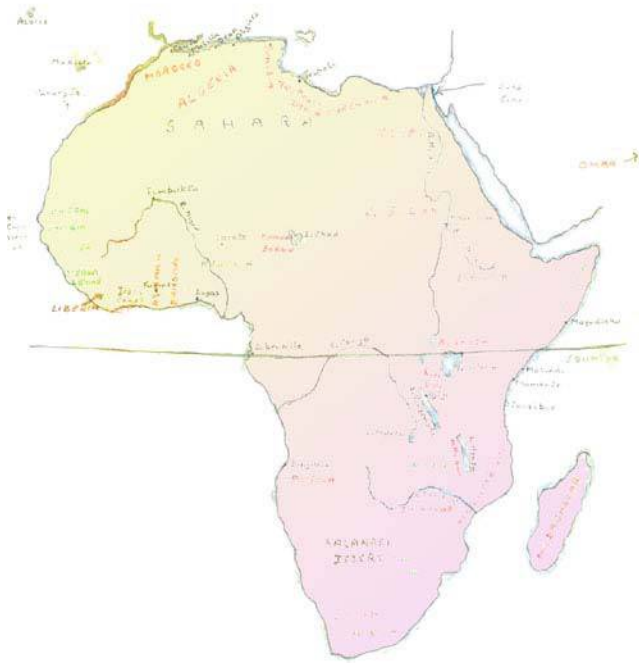




Map: 15th to 19th Centuries



18th to 19th Centuries



Map: The Colonial Period



Map: After Independence

