



Ministry of Education and Sports

A' LEVEL

SELF STUDY MATERIALS

HUMANITIES PACKAGE



ECONOMICS

Senior Five

Topic: Price Theory

By the end of this topic, you should be able to:

1. explain the concept of price theory, price, demand and supply.
2. describe the different ways of determining prices.
3. understand the types of prices and ways of determining a reserve price.
4. evaluate the factors that influence the pricing of goods and services.
5. understand why the demand curve slopes downwards from left to right.
6. understand the factors that influence demand.

Price theory is a concept that involves the analysis of how price influences demand and supply in the free market economy. In this section, you will study the concepts of price, demand and supply and how they influence each other. You therefore, need to pay attention to this topic because most of what we do is largely determined by price, demand and supply.

Price is the value of a commodity or service expressed in terms of money. For example, the price of a Bic pen is Shs 1,000 and a hair cut in salon 'A' costs Shs 5,000.

How prices are determined

Prices are usually determined in the following ways:

1. **Through bargaining/haggling.** You must have been involved in a negotiation while buying a good or paying for a taxi/ bus fare. This is what is called bargaining or haggling. Therefore, this involves the buyer negotiating with the seller until when they reach an agreeable price for a good or service. In this case, the seller starts with a higher price while the buyer starts with offering a lower price. The seller keeps on reducing the price while the buyer keeps on increasing until when they both agree on the same price.
2. **Auctioning/bidding.** Your parents/guardians could have bought an item through auctioning or participated in bidding in order to sell some items or provide some services to an organisation. This is what is called auctioning or bidding. It involves prospective buyers competing to buy a commodity under auction through offering prices. The commodity is usually sold to the one who offers the **highest price**. The buyer who offers the highest price is called the **highest bidder**.

This method is common during fundraising especially in churches, schools, wedding meetings, and when disposing of public assets. Note that the price arising out of an auction does not reflect the true market value of the commodity.

3. **Market forces of demand and supply.** You must have noticed that sometimes prices keep changing either due to high demand for some commodities, or due to high supply of some commodities. This is particularly so with agricultural products whose supply is very high during the harvest season and very low during the planting season. In this case, the price is determined at the point of intersection of the market forces of demand and supply in a free market economy. The price set under this approach is called the **equilibrium price**.

4. **Fixing price by treaty/agreement.** This involves the buyer sitting with the seller to negotiate and fix the price at which a good or service shall be sold and the price remains fixed. The price agreed upon at the time of signing the agreement can be changed or revived by amending the treaty. For example, hire purchase and deferred payments agreement, rental agreements and land purchase agreements.

5. **Price leadership.** In the market where there are many producers of the same product, there is always a leading firm which sets the price and other firms follow by charging the same price. This form of price determination is common in oligopolistic firms.

6. **Price legislation/control/administration.** This is where the government fixes the prices upon which commodities or services should be sold and offered in the market. This is done either to protect the producer when the market price is very low by fixing a minimum price or to protect consumers when the market price is high by fixing a maximum price. Do you remember in 2018 when there was too much maize on the market and the price was as low as Shs 200 per kilogram? Government fixed the price to Shs 500 per kilogram of maize. That was a minimum price.

7. **Cartel arrangement/ collusion.** Have you ever been keen on the prices of fuel at petrol stations, prices of soft drinks in the same category? In most cases, these prices are the same from one petrol station to the other, and from soft drink manufacturer to the other. This happens when producers come together (collude) and agree on the price to charge the buyers. It is common when there are few sellers who wish to reduce competition among themselves through price wars. For example, different bus operators can collude or agree to charge a uniform transport fare from passengers on the same route along which their buses operate.

8. **Resale price maintenance.** Do you remember some commodities you bought on which prices were indicated? Apart from newspapers, can you remember others? This is what is called **resale price maintenance**. This is therefore, a mechanism of price determination where manufacturers set the prices at which their commodities are to be sold to the final consumers by writing the price on the commodity. Please find out the merits and demerits of resale price maintenance

9. Types of prices

Types of prices include:

1. **Market price.** This is the ruling/prevaling price in the market at a particular time determined by buyers and sellers. This price changes from time to time since it is determined by a number of factors.
2. **Equilibrium price.** This is the price at which quantity demanded is equal to quantity supplied in the market.

The equilibrium quantity and price are got at the point of intersection of the demand and supply.

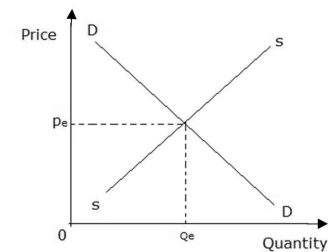


Figure 1

OP_e is the equilibrium price.
 OQ_e is Equilibrium quantity

3. **Normal price.** This is the price attained /obtained when quantity demanded equals quantity supplied in the long run. OR This is the long run equilibrium price that persists in the market when supply and demand conditions have settled. It is an ideal price which may never be realized and the market price tends to oscillate around it.
4. **Reserve price.** This is the minimum price a seller is willing to accept in exchange of his/ her commodity below which he/she retains the commodity. It is normally the minimum price offered by a seller during auction.

What determines a reserve price?

A reserve price can be determined through many ways including the following:

10. **Expected future demand for a commodity.** A producer who expects demand for his commodities to increase in the nearby future sets a high reserve price to retain many goods or sell in the future when demand increases while a producer who expects demand for his commodities to fall in the nearby future sets a low reserve price currently so as to sell off the commodity very fast before demand falls.
11. **Expected future price of the commodity.** A seller who expects the future price of the commodity to increase sets a high reserve price so as to retain many goods for sell at a higher price in the future. However, sellers expecting reductions in future prices set low reserve prices such that they sell more currently and avoid the lower prices in the future.
12. **Nature of the commodity.** A seller dealing in durable goods sets a high reserve price because his goods are long lasting and can be stored for some time. However, a seller who deals in perishable goods sets a low reserve price to sell off the goods before they go bad easily and cannot be stored.
13. **Degree of necessity of the commodity.** Sellers dealing in commodities with a high degree of necessity set high reserve prices because they know that consumers cannot do without them. However, sellers dealing in commodities with a low degree of necessity set low reserve prices because they know that consumers can do without them.
14. **Size of transport (carriage) and storage charges.** High storage and transport charges lead to a low reserve price because the seller wishes to sell off the commodity very fast before incurring more of these charges. However, low transport and storage

charges lead to a high reserve price because the seller is not scared of transporting or storing goods for a long period of time.

15. **The length of the gestation period.** A long gestation period leads to a high reserve price because the producer is aware of the inconveniences he/she is going to go through to produce the next commodities. However, a short gestation period implies that the seller needs less time to produce the commodity and therefore he sets a low reserve price.
 16. **Level of liquidity preference of the seller.** Sellers with urgent need for cash (high liquidity preference) set low reserve prices to ensure that they actually sell the goods for the money they need. However, sellers with no urgent need for cash (low liquidity preference) set high reserve prices.
 17. **The cost of production.** Producers who incur high costs of production set high reserve prices because it is expensive for them to replace the sold goods. However, producers who incur low costs of production set low reserve prices because it is cheap for them to replace the sold goods.
- Activity 1**
Explain the factors that lead to a high reserve price.
18. **Factors that influence pricing of goods and services**
 1. **Forces of demand and supply.** As supply exceeds demand, low prices are set due to a surplus of commodities on the market. However, when demand exceeds supply, high prices are set for commodities because they are scarce.
 2. **Aim/objective of the producer.** Where producers aim at profit maximization, they restrict output, charge a high price and where producers aim at sales maximization, they charge relatively lower prices to encourage people to buy as much quantities as possible.
 3. **Cost of production.** High cost of production leads to a high price set since producers aim at profit maximization and low cost of production leads to a low price set for the commodity.
 4. **Rate of taxation.** Heavy taxes imposed on goods and services lead to high prices set since producers tend to shift the burden of paying taxes to consumers in form of increased prices. However, low taxes imposed on goods and services lead to low prices set.
 5. **Quality of the commodity.** High quality goods are highly priced since producers incur high costs in producing them while low quality goods are lowly priced as they are cheap to produce.
 6. **Elasticity of demand for a commodity.** Producers set high prices for commodities whose demand is price inelastic since people continue to buy even if prices increase and they set low prices for those whose demand is price elastic since any slight increase in price results in a big fall in quantity demanded.

Uses of price in a market economy

Research on the uses of price in the free market economy using a phone or computer at home.

The market concept

During your day to-day living, you may have visited a market at one point or another or you may have seen markets in your locality.

Task

1. From your experience, what takes place in a market?
2. What are the characteristics or features of market?

A market, therefore, is a mechanism in which buyers and sellers come into contact and exchange goods and services. A place where goods and services are traded is known as a commodity market.

19. Features of a market

1. There should be sellers and buyers
2. There should be an interaction between sellers and buyers.
3. There should be a product to be exchanged.
4. There should be an established medium of exchange.

20. Theory of Demand

You have bought several goods for home use, for yourself and for school. The items bought or not bought but were desired constitute a person's demand. **Demand** is therefore, the desire backed by the ability to pay a given amount of money for a particular commodity in a given period of time. **OR** Demand is the quantity of a good that a consumer is willing and able to buy at a given price in a given period of time.

Market demand is the aggregate demand for a commodity in the market by all consumers at a given price in a given period of time.

Effective demand is the actual buying of goods and services at a given time.

21. Types of demand

There are several types of demand. Let us look at them one by one in detail.

You must have bought some commodities which are used together such that without one, the other is rendered useless. Name such commodities you know and write them down in your note book.

The demand for such commodities which are used together is called **complementary demand or joint demand**. In other words, these are goods that complement each other. Some examples of such demand include:

- i) Demand for cars and fuel
- ii) Demand for books and pens
- iii) Demand for mobile phones and airtime, etc.

Activity 2

Basing on the above explanation, give 5 examples of complementary demand other than the ones given above.

You must have experienced a situation when you sometimes go to buy some commodities and you start debating within yourself whether to buy commodity A or commodity B especially when they perform the same purpose. Such kind of goods have what is called **competitive demand**. This is the demand for commodities which serve the same purpose. In other words, these are goods that are substitutes to one another. Write down 5 examples of such goods other than the ones given below.

- i) Demand for tea and coffee
- ii) Demand for Close-up and Colgate
- iii) Demand for Coca Cola soda and Pepsi Cola, etc.

Independent demand refers to demand for commodities which are not related such that the demand for one commodity does not directly affect the demand for another commodity. Some examples of independent demand include;

- i) Demand for clothes and food
- ii) Demand for a car and a pen, etc.

Activity 3

Write in your note book 5 examples of independent demand other than the ones given above.

Composite demand. This is the total demand for a commodity which has several uses. Such commodities can be used for more than one purpose. Some examples of composite demand include;

- i) Demand for electricity which can be used for

lighting, ironing, cooking, etc.

- ii) Demand for water which can be used for cooking, bathing, etc.
- iii) Demand for timber which can be used for construction, furniture making, etc.

Activity 4

Write down 5 examples of composite demand other than the ones given above.

Do you have a maid at home, or has your family ever hired a person to build a house, or dig for you? The truth is that that person was hired not because you wanted to give him/her money but for the work he/she was going to do. This is what is called derived demand. **Derived demand** is the demand for a commodity not for its own sake but for the sake of what it helps to produce. Alternatively, it is the demand for a commodity due to the demand for the commodity that it helps to produce. Some examples of derived demand include;

- i) Demand for labour
- ii) Demand for land

Activity 5

Write down 5 examples of derived demand other than the ones given above.

The demand schedule

This is a table showing the amount of a commodity demanded at various prices by a consumer or groups of consumers during a particular period of time. This schedule can be compiled either for an individual or for all individuals in the market.

Individual and market demand schedules

Price (in Shs per kg)	Quantity demanded by consumer A	Quantity demanded by consumer B	Market demand (in kg)
5,000	40	20	60
4,000	60	40	100
3,000	80	60	140
2,000	100	80	180
1,000	120	100	220

The market demand schedule is derived by horizontal summation of the quantities purchased at each price by all the individuals/ consumers in the market. The quantities in the market schedule are larger than those of the individual's demand schedule.

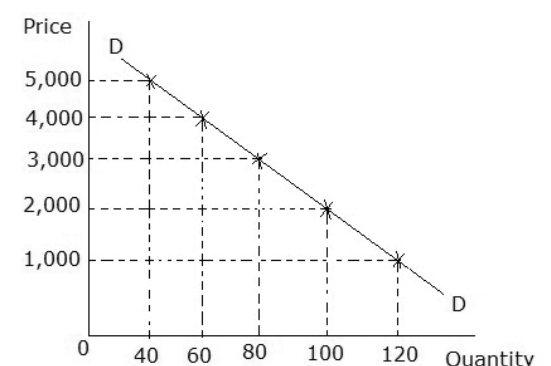
One major characteristic of a demand schedule is that the higher the price, the lower the quantity demanded and the lower the price, the higher the quantity demanded of the commodity in question, other factors being constant.

The information tabulated in a demand schedule can be summarised or represented graphically on a curve.

The demand curve

The demand curve is a graphical representation of the demand schedule. The demand curve is a locus of points showing the quantities demanded of a commodity at various prices in a given period of time.

Price is represented on the vertical axis while quantity demanded is on the horizontal axis. From the above table, an individual demand curve (Consumer A) can be drawn as shown below.



A normal demand curve is downward sloping from left to right, that is it has a negative slope meaning that there is an inverse relationship between price and quantity demanded. (As the price increases, quantity demanded decreases and vice versa).

Features of a normal demand curve

1. It must be downward sloping from left to right.
2. It should not touch either of the axes. If it touches the Y - axis, it implies that a consumer incurs a cost for a commodity which has not been obtained. (He pays a price at zero quantity). If it touches the X-axis, it implies that the consumer is buying a commodity at zero price.

The law of demand

The law of demand states that “the higher the price of a commodity, the lower the quantity demanded and the lower the price of a commodity, the higher the quantity demanded” holding other factors constant (*Ceteris paribus*).

Reasons why the demand curve slopes downwards from left to right

A normal demand curve is one that slopes downwards from left to right following the law of demand. The following reasons explain why the demand curve slopes downwards from left to right.

1. The law of diminishing marginal utility.

According to this law, when a consumer buys more units of the commodity, the marginal utility of that commodity continues to decline; and therefore the consumer will buy more units of the commodity only when the price reduces. When fewer units are available, utility will be high and the consumer will be prepared to pay more for that commodity. This proves that demand will be low at a higher price and vice versa and that is why the demand curve is downward sloping.

2. The substitution effect of a price change. When the price of the commodity falls, and the price of substitutes remain the same, a consumer reduces the quantities of other substitute goods whose prices now appear relatively high and increases the quantity of the commodity whose price has fallen. When the price of the commodity under consideration increases, the consumer leaves the commodity and buys the substitutes, given constant prices of substitutes hence the downward sloping demand curve.

3. The income effect of a price change. When an individual has a fixed income and the price of the commodity reduces, his real income increases and hence he can buy more units of the commodity with his fixed income. On the other hand, when the price increases, the consumer's real income decreases and hence he buys less units of the commodity hence the downward sloping demand curve.

4. The total effect of a price change. This is the combination of the substitution and income effects. When the price of the commodity falls, the quantity demanded increases because many new buyers are attracted while an increase in price leads to a decrease in demand because it scares away buyers hence the inverse relationship between price and quantity demanded which produces a downward sloping demand curve.

5. Behaviour of low income earners. The demand curve depends upon the behaviour of low income earners. They buy more when price reduces and less when the price increases. This leads to a downward sloping demand curve. The rich do not have an effect on the demand curve because they are capable of buying the same quantity even at a

higher price.

6. Different uses of certain commodities. Some goods have more than one use e.g. water, electricity, etc. such that when the price of the commodity increases, consumers tend to use it for essential purposes only hence reducing on its demand. On the other hand, when the price reduces, the consumers put the commodity to many uses thereby increasing quantity demanded hence a downward sloping curve.

Factors influencing demand

Perhaps you have witnessed that sometimes demand for goods and services is high and sometimes it is low. A number of factors have been developed to explain this trend of affairs. These are:

1. Price of the commodity in question. Assuming you have Shs 1,000 and you go to the school canteen but find the price of a Samosa at Shs 500. Probably you will buy 2 samosas and probably some other students will not buy at all. But if you go with the same amount of money and you find that the price is Shs 250, you will buy 4 samosas and many other students will be able to buy. This shows that a high price leads to low demand because it scares away some buyers. However, a low price attracts new buyers, hence high demand for the commodity.

2. Price of substitutes. You have already been introduced to substitutes as goods that serve the same purpose. A high price of a substitute commodity A leads to high demand of substitute commodity B because commodity B appears relatively cheaper. On the other hand, a low price of substitute commodity A leads to a low demand of commodity B because B appears to be relatively expensive.

3. Price of complements. First, we are going to use two complements where one is a major and the other is a minor. For example, a car is a major complement and fuel is a minor complement. A high price of a major complement (car) leads to low demand for a minor complement (fuel). This is because it is expensive to acquire a car and therefore there will be few cars to use fuel. On the other hand, a low price of a major complement (car) leads to high demand for a minor complement (fuel) because it is cheap to get a car leading to many cars that use fuel.

4. Level of consumer's income. High level of consumer's income leads to high purchasing power hence high commodity demand. However, low level of consumer's income leads to low purchasing power and low commodity demand.

5. Tastes and preferences of consumers. Favourable tastes and preferences result into high commodity demand because they are able to raise the consumer's interest in the commodity. However, unfavourable tastes and preferences result into low commodity demand because they make the consumer to develop bias against the commodity.

6. Population size. A large population size creates high commodity demand because it is associated with many buyers. However, a small population size leads to low commodity demand because it has few buyers.

7. Nature of income distribution. A fair distribution of income leads to high commodity demand because many people can afford to purchase a commodity. However, unfair income distribution between individuals leads to low commodity demand because there are few people who can

afford to purchase the commodity.

8. Future price expectation. Expectations of a high price in the nearby future leads to high commodity demand currently because buyers stock more goods to avoid the higher prices in the future. However, expectations of a low price in the nearby future leads to low commodity demand currently because the buyer reserves some money so as to buy more when the price falls.

9. Government policy on taxation. High level of direct taxation leads to low commodity demand because people have low disposable income while low level of direct taxation leads to high commodity demand because people have high disposable income.

10. Seasonal factors. Certain commodities are demanded in particular seasons. Favourable season leads to high commodity demand and unfavourable season leads to low commodity demand. It is common to sell success cards during examination periods, Christmas cards during Christmas period and Easter cards during the Easter period. However, outside those periods, one can hardly find them on the market because no one is willing to purchase them.

11. Level of advertising. A high level of advertising leads to high commodity demand because it results into high level of awareness of the consumers about the availability of the commodity. On the other hand, low level of advertising leads to low commodity demand because it leads to low level of awareness of the consumers about the availability of the commodity.

12. The prevailing economic conditions in an economy. Commodity demand tends to be high during periods of economic prosperity (boom) because during such times, people are employed and earn fair incomes to purchase commodities. However, commodity demand is low during periods of economic depression because many people have no jobs and thus have no income to purchase the commodity.

13. Socio-economic factors. These include age, sex, religion, culture, etc. One or a combination of these factors to some extent influence demand for a commodity. For instance, demand for pork is low in places where there are many Muslims as compared to places where there are few or no Moslems.

Activity 6

1. Explain the factors that lead to high demand of a commodity.
2. Explain the factors that lead to low demand of a commodity.

Change in demand

A change in demand refers to an economic situation where more or less units of a commodity are demanded at a constant price brought about by a change in other factors affecting demand for that particular commodity. It is illustrated by a shift of the demand curve either to the left or to the right holding the commodity price constant.

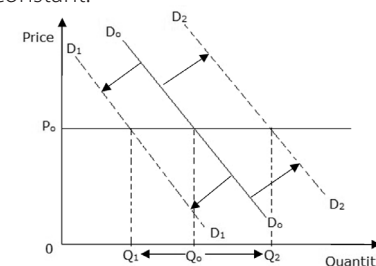


Figure 2

From the above figure, D_0 is the original demand curve.

D_1 shows a shift of the demand curve inwards from D_0 representing a decrease in demand from Q_0 to Q_1 . D_2 shows a shift of the demand curve outwards from D_0 representing an increase in demand from Q_0 to Q_2 .

Activity 7

Explain the factors that cause a change in demand for a commodity.

Causes of a change in demand

A change in demand can be an increase in demand or a decrease in demand. The factors that lead to a change in demand include:

- A change in prices of substitutes.
- A change in prices of complements.
- A change in the level of consumer's income.
- A change in the population size.
- Expectation of a future change in the price of the commodity.
- A change in government policy of taxation and subsidies.
- A change in the level of advertisement.
- A change in seasons.
- A change in tastes and preferences
- A change in the quality of the commodity
- A change in the economic conditions.
- A change in the nature of distribution of income.

Increase in demand

This is the demand for more quantities of a commodity due to conditions that influence demand becoming (more) favourable while holding price of the commodity (in question) constant. It is represented by a total shift of the demand curve outwards to the right, holding the commodity price constant.

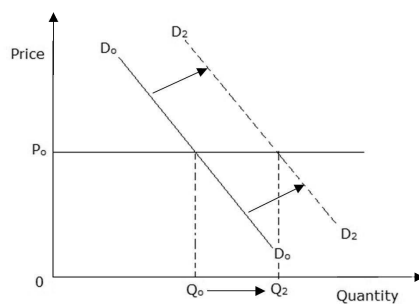


Figure 3

Activity 8

Explain the factors that lead to an increase in demand for a commodity in your country.

Decrease in demand

This refers to a decline in quantity demanded of a commodity due to factors that influence demand becoming unfavourable while holding price of the commodity (in question) constant. It is represented by a total shift of the demand curve inwards to the left holding the commodity price constant.

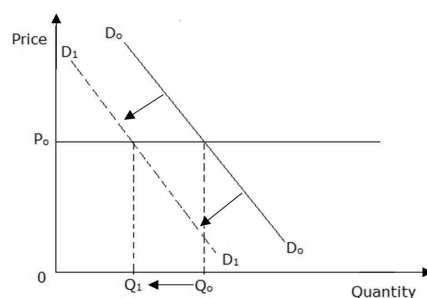


Figure 4

Activity 9

Account for a decrease in a commodity demanded in your country.

Change in quantity demanded

This is an economic situation where more or less units of a commodity are demanded due to change in its price when other factors affecting demand for that particular commodity have not changed. OR A change in the quantity demanded refers to a rise or fall in the amount of a commodity demanded due to changes in price levels of a commodity assuming other determinants of demand are held constant. It is illustrated by the

movement along the demand curve either upward due to price increase or downward due to price fall.

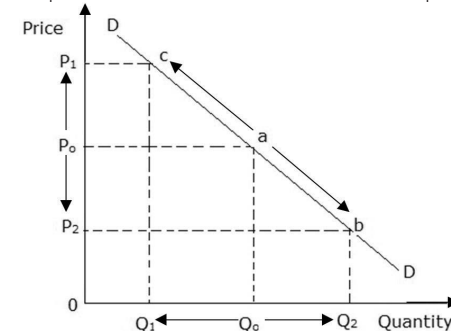


Figure 5

A fall in price from OP_0 to OP_2 leads to an increase in quantity demanded from OQ_0 to OQ_2 as illustrated by the movement along the demand curve downwards from point a to b. A rise in price from OP_0 to OP_1 leads to a decrease in quantity demanded from OQ_0 to OQ_1 as illustrated by the movement along the demand curve upwards from point a to c.

Increase in quantity demanded

This refers to the demand for more units of a commodity due to a fall in its price while holding other factors constant/ceteris paribus.

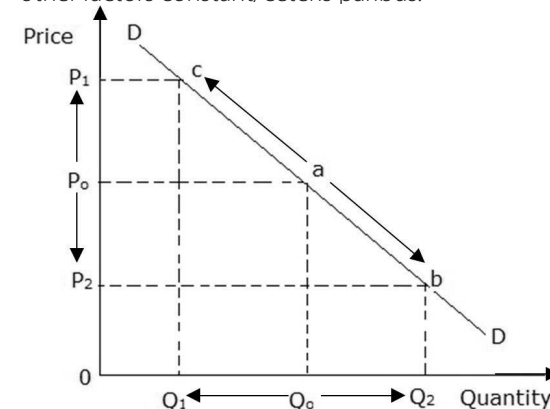


Figure 6

Decrease in quantity demanded

This refers to the demand for lesser quantity of a commodity due to increase in its price ceteris paribus.

Senior Six

Topic: Money and Banking

By the end of this topic, you should be able to:

- differentiate between money and barter as medium of exchange.
- understand the functions of money in the Ugandan economy.
- understand the qualities and characteristics of money as a medium of exchange.
- evaluate the determinants of money supply in an economy.

Introduction

You have been provided with a study report on barter system in a modern Nigeria society, a case study of Bagana Barter Market in Omala Local Government area of Kogi state. Read the report and answer the following questions.

Activity 1

- As a student of Economics, guide the residents of Bagana Barter Market on making a choice between money and barter as a medium of exchange, clearly citing the advantages and disadvantages of each.
- In majority of present day economies, Uganda inclusive, money has been adopted as a medium of exchange as opposed to barter. Write a presentation to the residents of Bagana Barter Market about the functions money would offer to their economy in case

they chose it over barter. Make sure the qualities and characteristics that make money a preferred medium of exchange over barter are highlighted.

- Most of the countries across the globe are experiencing a lockdown due to Covid-19. One would imagine that since movement of people is restricted, the amount of money in supply may also be affected. In your view as an economics student, and using your concept of supply, evaluate at least five determinants of money supply in an economy like Uganda.

NOTE: You will be expected to submit your write-ups to your teacher when the term reopens.

Follow-up Activity

- We have all used money in our life at one point or another. As a student of Economics, prepare a presentation on the role of money in a modern economy like Uganda. Explain the monetary measures that can be used by an economy to reduce money supply in a developing country like Uganda.
- What are the causes of high interest rates in Uganda?
- The Ugandan economy has experienced fluctuating interest rates, which is not good for an economy. As a student of Economics, explain the measures that can be used to stabilize interest rates in Uganda.

Activity 2

A number of theories of demand for money have been developed. Among them are (1) Fisher's Transactions

Approach, (2) Keynes' Theory, (3) Tobin Portfolio Approach, (4) Boumol's Inventory Approach, and (5) Friedman's Theory. According to Irving Fisher, the general price level in an economy is determined by the quantity of money assuming that the velocity of circulation of money (V) and the level of transactions (T) are constant.

The theory is represented by the equation

$$MV = PT \text{ or } P = \frac{MV}{T}$$

Where: M = Quantity of money

V = Velocity of circulation of money

P = General price level

T = Level of transactions

A change in any of the variables will influence the price.

According to the theory, M and V vary directly while T varies inversely with P. A change in any of the variables will influence the price. According to the theory, M and V vary directly while T varies inversely with P.

Example

Given that the quantity of money in an economy is Shs 1,000,000, its velocity of circulation is 20 and the number of transactions made are 250. Calculate the general price level in an economy.

Solution:

Given that M = Shs 1,000,000 V = 10 T = 250 P = ?

From $P = \frac{MV}{T} = \frac{\text{shs } (1,000,000 \times 10)}{250}$

$P = \text{Shs } 40,000$

Task:

Using the quantity theory of money demand, answer the following:

- Given that the volume of money in an economy is

- £ 20 billion; total level of transactions is £ 250 and the transactions velocity of money is 20; calculate the general price level in the economy.
- State Irving Fisher's equation of exchange.
 - How is the value of money determined in Fisher's equation of exchange?

Keynesian theory of money demand

Keynes abandoned the classical view that velocity of circulation of money was constant and emphasized the importance of interest rates. He postulated that there are three motives behind the demand for money namely;

- Transactions demand for money:** Money is a medium of exchange and thus people hold money for use in transactions.
- Precautionary motive:** This refers to keeping some money balances at hand to meet unforeseen circumstances such as car breakdown, illness and property damage.
- Speculative motive:** This exists because people desire to hold part of their wealth in form of cash so as to take advantage of any opportunity that may arise from the financial market. According to Keynes, as interest rates fall, people wish to hold greater and greater amounts of money in place of any other financial asset. On the other hand, as interest rates rise, people will receive the best return by investing their money in bonds.

Activity 3

Before the anticipated COVID-19 lockdown, individuals were seen making a lot of last minute purchases. To what extent do you think the Keynesian theory of money demand may be applicable under the current circumstances of the COVID-19 infection, considering the effect it has had on the demand for money? Make a write-up and you will present it to your teacher on reporting.

Additional reading

Assumptions of the quantity theory of money (Irving Fisher)

Now that you can explain the quantity theory of money, you equally need to understand the assumptions underlying its success. These include;

- Velocity of circulation of money is constant.
- It assumes that V is constant in the short run.
- It assumes that T is constant in the short run.
- It assumes that the interest rate has no role to play.
- It assumes that Velocity of circulation is constant.
- It assumes that the level of transactions is constant.
- It assumes that all business is carried out with use of money.
- All transactions take place using money as a medium of exchange.
- Assumes the general price level which is directly proportional to the amount of money in circulation.
- Assumes that money is only demanded for transactions motive.
- Assumes that the four variables M, V, P and T are independent of each other.
- Assumes that excessive money supply is the only cause of inflation.

Relevancy of the theory

- You should realize that a theory is based on individual opinion. You should therefore critique the opinion to see whether it can be applied to Uganda or not following the assumptions.
- To a small extent, the theory is relevant to Uganda. Price directly depends on the amount of money in circulation i.e. an increase in the amount of money in circulation leads to an increase in price and vice versa.
- Price directly depends on the velocity of circulation of money i.e. an increase in velocity of circulation of money leads to an increase in price and vice versa.
- Price level is inversely related to the level of transactions i.e. an increase in the level of transactions leads to a decrease in the price level and vice versa.

Limitations of the Quantity Theory of money

When you critically look at the assumptions, you realize that

they were proposed based on conditions in the developed world. These mostly do not apply to developing countries like Uganda. Therefore, to a larger extent, the theory does not apply because of the following reasons;

- There is no general price level but rather a series of price levels.
- It ignores the influence of the rate of interest yet it is vital in relation to money and its demand.
- The theory does not take into account the demand for money (it only looks at money supply).
- The theory only attempts to explain changes in the value of money but does not show how the value of money is determined.
- Sometimes an excessive money supply does not lead to inflation when marginal propensity to save (MPS) is high as this reduces the velocity of circulation of money making prices to fall.
- Where a country has many unemployed resources, an increase in money supply to exploit them increases domestic output hence reducing scarcity making prices to fall or not change at all.
- The theory ignores haggling/ bargaining between buyers and sellers to reach an agreeable price.
- The theory does not consider government intervention in the determination of price through setting up minimum or maximum price.
- The theory does not take into account other causes of price increment like rising cost of production, natural calamities, excessive issuance of currency, etc.
- It is not a theory but just a truism. It only merely shows that M, V, P and T are related but it does not show how each variable relates or impacts on the other.
- It ignores barter trade. It only considers exchange through use of money.
- It only considers the transactions motive of holding money and ignores the speculative and precautionary motives of money demand.
- The four variables M, V, P and T are not independent of one another as the theory assumes because a change in one induces change in others.
- The theory assumes that the velocity of circulation of money (V) and the level of transactions (T) are constant but this is not true in real life situation.

Money

Money refers to anything that is generally acceptable as a medium of exchange by the society for the settlement of debts or for the making of payments for goods and services. This implies that money is used for settlement of different financial obligations by people.

As you may be aware, different countries use different currencies or money. The currency of Uganda cannot be used in Tanzania or Kenya just like Kenya currency cannot be used in Uganda or Tanzania. Because of this, money in a particular country is referred to as legal tender, meaning that by law it has to be accepted as a means of settling debts and for the exchange of goods and services within the country up to the denomination presented. You should also note that before money was invented, trade was carried out through exchange of goods for goods or services for services. This was/ is referred to as Barter system of exchange.

Functions of money

Money serves several functions as explained below:

- Medium of exchange.** You have bought or sold something in life and in exchange you offered or received money. This was made easy and possible because of using money as a medium of exchange.
- Unit of account.** You have observed business men carrying out book keeping in form of calculations and accounting. This is made possible by use of money. This is because it is used to express the relative value of commodities making it easy to calculate profits, losses, sales or purchases in a business.
- Standard of deferred or future payments.** Modern economics set up is based on credit and credit is paid in terms of money only. You realise that sometimes people do not have cash at hand but need certain goods and services immediately. Money makes it possible for one to acquire the commodities but

payments effected at a future date and in the process, both the creditors and debtors do not stand to lose.

- Store of value.** You notice that when properties like land or buildings are converted into monetary terms, the money can be stored. This is because it is neither bulky nor perishable. Additionally, it can be kept for longer periods than other goods therefore being a store of value.
- Measure of value.** You have ever bought a commodity and you determined its relative value based on price. This means that money measures the relative value of a commodity using the price.
- Money is used to transfer fixed assets.** You could have interfaced with a person relocating to another location but possessing fixed assets like land and buildings that he cannot abandon. To avoid loss of those assets, they can be sold off and converted into money thus making it possible to transfer them.

Qualities or properties of good money

To regard something as money, it should possess the following qualities.

- Acceptability** - Money should be generally acceptable as a medium of exchange for goods and services. You should have confidence in money to be willing to accept it in exchange for goods and services. That confidence will make you willingly accept it and then use it to meet your various financial obligations.
- Scarcity** - You realize that whenever there is excessive supply of money, it loses value just like all other items. This means that supply of money should be low relative to its demand so that it maintains its value.
- Portability** - When you look back at barter exchange, it was abandoned for bulkiness of commodities. This means that for money to be considered good, it must be light in weight and easy to carry from one place to another.
- Divisibility** - When you go to the shops, sometimes you are purchasing in small quantities that require small denominations. Therefore to make it possible to carry out both large and small transactions, it is important to make money divisible.
- Durability** - You may have experienced washing money in your pockets at one time or after a heavy down pour you find a note and despite the heavy pour, it is not destroyed. That makes it good money. Money should have the ability to last long, that is, good money must not be easily destroyed or changed into other shapes, sizes and colour.
- Homogeneity** - All pieces of similar denominations should look alike i.e. they should have similar features.
- Stability in value** - Money should not lose its value so easily but should be fairly stable so as to maintain its worth.
- Recognisable** - The materials and colour of money should be easily recognised by the users so that people can easily identify it.
- Difficult to forge or copy** - The process of printing money should be complicated so as to make it difficult for individuals to make counterfeit money.

Money supply

Supply is not a new concept to you having been introduced to it under price theory. However, this time we shall relate it to money. In circulation is money you use to buy goods and services, additionally people make daily deposits in banks which is at their disposal for withdrawing at any time, implying that it is also more or less in circulation. At this point therefore, you need to know the meaning of money supply.

Money supply refers to the total amount of money both in circulation and the bank demand deposits. Or it refers to the quantity of money which is in circulation in a given country at a given time and the bank demand deposits.

Note: Exogenous money supply is one that is determined by the central bank or minting authority and is always fixed. **Endogenous money supply** on the other hand is one that depends on the level of economic activities.

Determinants of money supply

- Government monetary policy;** an expansionary

- monetary policy leads to increased money supply since government wants to increase money in circulation while a restrictive monetary policy reduces money supply since government wants to reduce money in circulation.
- ii) Level of credit creation.
- iii) Issuing policy of the central bank.
- iv) **Level of liquidity preference;** an increase in the level of liquidity preference leads to greater supply of money while low levels of liquidity preference reduce money supply.
- v) **Level of monetisation of the economy;** high level of monetisation leads to greater money supply since a lot of money is needed to buy goods and services while a large subsistence sector leads to low money supply since less financial transactions are carried out.
- vi) **Interest rate;** a high rate of interest discourages borrowing thus leading to low money supply while a low interest rate encourages borrowing and increases money supply in the economy.
- vii) **Level of economic activity;** an increase in the level of economic activities results in greater money supply while a reduced level of economic activities leads to low money supply.
- viii) **Balance of payments position (BOP);** a surplus BOP position of a country results into increased money supply while a deficit BOP position of a country results in reduced money supply.
- ix) Level of foreign reserves held.
- x) **Level of capital inflows and outflows (capital movements);** an increase in the inflow of funds from abroad leads to increased money supply while increased outflow of capital reduces money supply.

- Interest and interest rate**
Interest refers to the monetary reward/ payment to capital as a factor of production for its contribution in the production process.
On the other hand, Interest rate refers to the proportion of capital borrowed that must be paid to the lender in addition to the principal as a reward to capital as a factor of production.
- Factors that influence interest rates in my country**
- i) **The demand for loanable funds or investment capital by the general public;** a high demand for loanable funds results into a high interest rate but low demand for loanable funds by the public leads to low interest rate.
 - ii) **The level of liquidity preference;** a high liquidity preference implies low savings in commercial banks leading to charging of high interest rates while a low liquidity preference implies that there are more savings in the banking system leading to charging of low interest rates.
 - iii) **The bank rate or the monetary policy of the central bank;** a restrictive monetary policy leads to charging of high interest rates while an expansionary monetary policy leads to charging of low interest rates.
 - iv) **The level of development of the banking sector;** high level of development of commercial banks leads to low interest rates due to competition while low level of development of the banking sector leads to high interest rates.
 - v) **The supply of liquid or investment capital;** a high supply of loanable funds or liquid capital results into

- a low interest rate but low level of supply of liquid capital leads to high interest rate.
- vi) **Period of loan repayment;** the longer the period of loan repayment, the higher the interest rate but the shorter the period of loan repayment, the lower the interest rate.
- vii) **The money supply in the economy;** increased money supply leads to high interest rates while decrease in money supply leads to low interest rates.
- viii) **The economic situation or rate of inflation;** in periods of high rates of inflation, high interest rates are charged while in period of a deflation, low interest rates are charged.
- ix) **The policy of the individual lender whether it is liberal or hard;** when the policy of the lender is liberal, interest rates are low but when the policy of the individual lender is hard, interest rates are high.

Demand for money (Liquidity preference)
Liquidity preference is the desire by individuals to hold assets/ wealth in cash form or near cash form (rather than investing it). The demand for money has been variously explained by different economists hence the theories of money demand.

Theories of demand for money
There are many theories of money demand as seen above but at this level two are considered namely;
1. The Quantity theory of money demand
2. Keynesian theory of money demand

GEOGRAPHY

Senior Six LESSON1: Distinguishing Weather and Climate

- Learning Outcomes**
By the end of this lesson, you should be able to:
- i) describe weather conditions of the local area.
 - ii) describe the elements of weather measured and recorded at a weather station.
 - iii) distinguish weather and climate.

- Instructions**
- You will be studying one lesson each day. Try to do all the activities programmed for each day.
 - Remember that some activities may take more than one hour to complete.
 - Read the instructions carefully before you begin doing each activity.
 - In case you find an activity difficult, ask an older person around you to assist you.
 - You may consult your earlier notes on weather and climate if you find it necessary.
- Materials you need:**
- notebook
 - pen
 - pencil
 - rubber

Introduction
In Senior One and Senior Four you learnt about weather and climate. In your notebook, write the definitions of weather and climate. Also outline the elements of weather. Which of the elements of weather you have outlined can you see outside now?

- Weather**
Activity 1: Describing weather conditions
1. Go outside and observe the atmosphere.
 2. Identify the elements of weather in the area around your home and write them in your notebook.

3. Write at least two paragraphs describing the weather in the area around your home.
4. Explain what you understand by weather.

- Climate**
If you have lived in your home area for at least two years, you could have noticed how weather conditions change with months. You could also have identified the pattern of wind movement, rainfall and temperature of the area. If you had chance to study this pattern for a long time, preferably 30 years or more, you will be able to understand the climate of your home area.
- Activity 2: Relationship between climate and weather
1. Explain what you understand by the term climate.
 2. Copy the table below in your notebook and fill in both columns to distinguish between weather and climate, taking into account:
 - o What it means.
 - o Instrument used to measure it.
 - o Units in which it is measured.
 - o What the people who measure it are called.

Weather	Climate

- Activity 3: Table showing elements of weather
- Copy the table below into your notebook showing the elements of weather measured and recorded at a weather station. Fill in the table to bring the elements of weather and their description. For each element take into account:
- o What it means.
 - o Instrument used to measure it.
 - o Units in which it is measured.

Element of weather	Description

- Summary**
In this lesson you have learnt:
- what weather and climate mean.
 - the aspects which describe the weather of a place.
 - the relationship between weather and climate, that is, both are described using the same atmospheric conditions.
 - that time is a very important aspect in distinguishing between weather and climate.
 - that weather is described for a small area, for example, a village, while climate is described over large areas or regions; for example, equatorial, savannah, semi-desert, and desert climates.

- Follow-up Activity**
1. Using the knowledge you have gained from this lesson, describe the weather which has been experienced in your home area over the past seven days.
 2. Explain the pattern of rainfall and temperature conditions in your home area over the last two years.
 3. Predict whether the same pattern may be repeated this year and why?

LESSON 2: Solar Radiation

- Learning Outcomes**
By the end of this lesson, you should be able to:
- i) distinguish between solar radiation and terrestrial

- radiation.
- ii) explain the factors influencing the amount of solar radiation received in an area.

Materials you need:

- notebook
- pen
- pencil
- rubber

Introduction

In your Ordinary Level Geography and Physics, you learnt about solar radiation and terrestrial radiation. In your notebook, write the source of solar radiation and terrestrial radiation.

Activity 1

In your notebook, draw a table similar to the one below and fill in the columns to differentiate between solar radiation and terrestrial radiation. This should be based on the following:

- Energy transmitted from where.
- The form in which the energy is transmitted through the atmosphere.
- The time of day during which the energy is received.
- The causes of variation between the two.
- The part of the Earth which each form of energy affects.

Solar radiation	Terrestrial radiation

Activity 2

Now that you know that solar radiation is energy from the sun, in your notebook write at least two paragraphs explaining how each of the following factors influences the amount of solar radiation received in an area:

- Latitude
- Season
- Length of day and night
- Cloud cover
- Time of the day
- Impurities in the atmosphere

Summary

In this lesson, you have learnt that:

- solar radiation is energy from the sun in form of magnetic waves, while terrestrial radiation is the energy given off by the earth in form of magnetic waves.
- solar radiation is transferred to the earth in form of a beam of short wave rays, while terrestrial radiation is transferred from the earth in form of long wave radiation.
- solar radiation being from the sun is received during day time, while terrestrial radiation is transferred all the time: day and night.
- solar radiation varies with time of the day—it is more at noon and, less in early morning and late evening. Terrestrial radiation varies with the nature and size of the surface giving off the energy.
- Solar radiation results in rise in temperature on the surface while terrestrial radiation results in rise in atmospheric temperature.

Follow-up Activity

1. In your notebook, write two paragraphs: one paragraph explaining solar radiation and another explaining terrestrial radiation. Each of these

paragraphs should include where energy is transmitted from, the form in which it is transmitted, what time of the day it is received, what causes its variation, and the effect of each on temperature.

2. In your notebook, write six paragraphs explaining how latitude, season, length of day time, and impurities in the atmosphere influence the amount of solar radiation received in an area.

LESSON 3: Measuring and Recording Rainfall at a Weather Station

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this lesson, you should be able to:

- i) describe the features of a rain gauge.
- ii) draw a diagram to show the features of a rain gauge.
- iii) explain how a rain gauge is used to measure rainfall.
- iv) record rainfall received in a local area.
- v) explain the value of keeping rainfall records.

Materials you need:

- notebook
- pen
- pencil
- rubber
- diagram of a rain gauge

Introduction

You probably know that rainfall is measured using a rain gauge. You also know the units in which rainfall is measured and recorded. In your notebook, list at least two such units. Do you remember how rainfall is recorded on a map?

Activity 1

Study Figure 1 and do the following:

1. Copy the diagram into your notebook and name all its parts.
2. Write brief notes describing a rain gauge.
3. Describe the precautions taken when placing a rain gauge, giving reasons for each.
4. Explain how a rain gauge is used to measure rainfall, pointing out the function of each of its components.

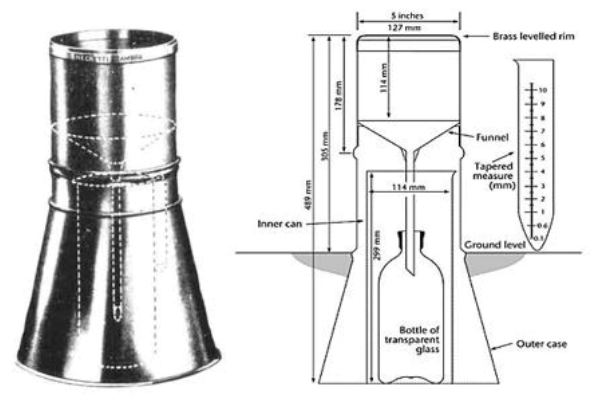


Figure1: Diagram of a Rain gauge

Activity 2

1. Explain what you understand by the term climate.
2. Copy the table below in your notebook and fill in both columns to distinguish between weather and climate, taking into account the following aspects:
- o The length of time taken to determine it.
 - o How one describes each aspect.
 - o The names of people who study each aspect.

LESSON 4: Project—Measuring Rainfall Using a Home-made Rain Gauge

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this project, you should be able to:

- i) make a simple rain gauge from locally available low cost materials.
- ii) record rainfall in the local area using a home-made rain gauge.
- iii) use rainfall data to plan your activities and to give advice to other people about their economic

activities and ways of life.

Materials you need:

- sharp knife/pair of scissors
- transparent polythene sheet
- simple funnel/2 two-litre bottles
- saucepan/small basin/small bucket
- permanent marker
- masking tape/cello tape
- string
- foot ruler
- notebook
- pen

Introduction

Now that you know how to use a factory made rain gauge to measure rainfall, you are going to carry out a project to measure and record rainfall in your home area. This time you are going to make your own rain gauge and use it to measure rainfall. This project may take 6 months, or even a whole year.

Instructions

1. Carefully cut into half a two-litre bottle with straight sides and a flat bottom to make a funnel. Trim off any sharp edges.
2. Place the cut bottle on the uncut bottle so that the spouts (“mouths”) are touching and in line.
3. Tightly fix the funnel onto the top of the bottle using the masking tape or cello tape.
4. Place the transparent polythene sheet over the funnel opening and press it slightly inwards. Fix it in place using a masking or cello tape.
5. Make a hole at the centre of the polythene sheet to direct water into the bottle.
6. Mark a scale on the bottle from the bottom ½ cm apart upwards with the permanent marker. Each ½ cm represents 500 millimetres.

Or for more accurate readings, tape a ruler, if you have one, to the side of the bottle. Put the rain gauge in a basin/basin/bucket and place it outside in an open place.

7. Once every 24 hours read and record in your notebook the amount of rainfall received.

NOTE: Whenever you are not at home request one of your friends or relatives to take the readings and record them.

8. Using the data you have collected, calculate the:
- i) monthly total rainfall.
 - ii) mean monthly rainfall.
 - iii) annual total rainfall (if you able to record for a whole year).
 - iv) mean annual rainfall.
9. Draw a graph to represent the data you have collected.
10. Use information from the graph to describe the rainfall pattern for your home area.
11. Explain how useful the data you have collected may be for planning farming and other human activities.

Summary

In this lesson you have learnt:

- how rainfall is measured and recorded.
- the features of a rain gauge and the function of each in measuring rainfall.
- the characteristics of a suitable site for placing a rain gauge.
- that rainfall records are read at regular intervals, once in 24 hours.

HISTORY

Senior Five

Subject: History of Modern Europe

Topic: French Revolution of 1789

LESSON 1: Long-term Causes of The 1789 French Revolution

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to:

- i) describe the long-term causes of the 1789 French Revolution.
- ii) explain the extent to which long-term factors contributed to the outbreak of the 1789 French Revolution.

Materials You Need

Pens; pencils; paper/ notebooks; Internet/Google; textbooks (if any)

Instructions

- i) This is a self-study lesson.
- ii) Follow the instructions carefully.
- iii) Attempt all tasks given (in your notebook).
- iv) If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
- v) Make use of the Internet/Google (if accessible) or any related study material near you.
- vi) You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.

Introduction

The French Revolution broke out on 5 May 1789 when King Louis XVI summoned the Estates General which failed. This was a result of disagreements on voting procedures and seating arrangements, which prompted the Third Estate to storm out of the Estates General and declared themselves the National Assembly. This was to act as the Parliament of France, hence the Estates General.

“Prior to the calling of the estates general, there were long-term factors that were responsible for the outbreak of this revolution, and such were: the autocracy of the ancient regime, the role of the Catholic Church, the influence of French political philosophers, the social class system in France and the influence of the British political system”.

Read the text below and attempt the tasks that will follow:

Long-term causes of the French Revolution: Political, social and economic causes

1. Political Causes

The regime had no functional Parliament in which people's problems could be heard. The Estates General Meeting had taken a lapse of 175 years without sitting since 1614 on the regime of King Louis XIII. The provincial and district assemblies were replaced by royal assemblies known as *intendants* under the king. Therefore, the French had nowhere to forward and settle the social evils, political discontent and the economic hardships that marked their lives since there was no functional Parliament. The only way was to stage a revolution in 1789. It should be stressed that it was the calling of the Estates General Meeting on 5 May 1789 and the vociferous disagreement over the seating arrangement that sparked off the revolution. Louis XVI insisted on

the undemocratic and archaic ancient system of voting by houses against the Third Estate interest of voting by individual show of hands. This forced the Third Estate representatives to turn themselves into the National Assembly and this was the beginning of the revolution.

The unfair modes of trial also contributed to the outbreak of the revolution. There were no uniform codes of law and one could be tried as much as five times for a single offence. By 1789, there existed different feudal codes of law in different parts of France, which created judicial confusion. Besides, there were two different modes of appeal, i.e. Roman law in the South and common law in the North. Worst of all, there was no trial by jury and, in most cases, the nobles were the accusers as well as judges against the peasants and the middle class. The peasants and the middle class could not expect a fair trial against the nobles and the clergy, which led them to revolt.

The regime also lacked a working constitution.

Apart from the chaotic judicial system, there was no constitution that could have guaranteed people's rights and provided equality of opportunity. This also meant that there were no checks and balances to the king's excessive powers and unfair policies. The Frenchmen, therefore, resorted to a revolution in a bid to have a constitution to safeguard their rights and properties against the king's excessive powers.

The regime was also characterised by irresponsible leaders. King Louis XVI paid much attention to leisure activities like hunting instead of solving people's problems.

The unfair judicial system of the ancient regime also led to the revolution. France lacked an independent judiciary because it was always manipulated by the king, the nobility and the clergy. For example, they had their own special courts in which they had the power to choose judges in cases against peasants. This undermined justice and later sparked off the revolution.

The regime left land in the hands of the minority and left the peasants landless. The regime gave all the land to the First and Second Estates that paid virtually no taxes and the majority peasants were left landless, renting small plots of land from the nobility. They were instead overburdened with all kinds of responsibility. The biggest burden was taxation, and this compelled them to stage a revolution.

The regime supported slavery, which angered many Frenchmen. About 1 million of the peasants were still serfs (slaves) by 1789 and were being bought and sold whenever land changed ownership. The regime was characterised by brutality, unrest and imprisonment of people without trial. This was effected through the issuance of the infamous sealed letters known as 'lettre de cachet'. **As H.L. Peacock put it in his *Book of Modern Europe*: 'The strongest oppression of this power was lettre de cachet signed by a minister ordering the imprisonment...'**

This 'lettre de cachet' was a permit allowing the king to imprison anyone at his pleasure and many innocent French peasants were put in a national prison called **The Bastille**. King Louis XVI issued over 16,000 'lettres

de cachet', and later Louis XIV issued over 14,000. All such 'lettres de cachet' amounted to death certificates and the bones of those in respect of whom they were signed were found in the Bastille prison. Such despotism angered the masses.

The regime left the provision of education in the hands of the Catholic Church. The regime also denied people freedom of worship and of the press.

Weaknesses in the character of King Louis XVI. Born in 1754, King Louis XVI rose to power in 1774 and ruled up to 1793, when he was executed by the revolutionists. His weaknesses contributed to the French revolution in the following ways:

He was a weak despot (dictator) and he was only a king in name but not in character, yet he had inherited a very strong despotic state that required a strong despot. For example, he had no interest in administration and spent most of his time on leisure. When one of his ministers resigned, he remarked: 'I wish I could also resign.' This implies that he had no interest in leadership. He was quoted as saying at his coronation: **'I can see the whole universe falling upon me, oh God, what a burden of mine yet I have been taught nothing.'** This implies that Louis was not ready for leadership and lacked the despotic principles of kingship.

He was indecisive (poor at decision-making) and lacked the kind of wisdom needed by a sober leader to make correct decisions and proper judgements. He would make decisions and change them suddenly. In most cases, he depended on ill advice given by the queen and the clergy, who even advised him to dismiss the reformist financial ministers and Mirabeau, the leader of the Third Estate. Mirabeau remarked that the king had only one man above him and that that was his wife. It was against such a background that the revolution broke out in 1789.

King Louis XVI was inconsistent and would at times sympathise with the suffering French and felt like allowing them some freedom. However, he kept on changing his mind about his good intentions and ended up doing nothing. This is because he was always influenced by his wife, ministers and the clergy, who were unsympathetic and anti-people, something that angered the Frenchmen. He was a conservative king and failed to attain the political standards and understand the situation existing at the time, which required change. Europe was now undergoing a wave of civilisation and it required leaders to undertake democratic reforms in order to safeguard their positions. Unfortunately, King Louis XVI insisted on continuing with the no-change policy he had espoused all along up to the time he was beheaded on 21 January 1793.

King Louis XVI was extravagant and misused French citizens' resources on luxurious living. For example, it became his hobby to organise banquets (parties) for the nobles and the clergy almost every day using taxpayers' money. The king had over 2,000 horses and around 2,000 carriages, in addition to 500 servants, who were all paid. He also failed to control the extravagance of his wife, who changed 4–5 pairs of golden shoes a week. It was such economic weaknesses that dragged France into the revolution. The king was over-influenced by his wife and he was also a coward who had no love for his country and lacked a forceful character. He would

sometimes shed tears and doze during the assemblies and meetings, something that undermined his position.

The king was also insensitive, shallow-minded and irresponsible. He committed French troops to the American War of Independence, which resulted in the bankruptcy of France. Furthermore, the French troops who fought under General Lafayette in the American War of Independence returned from the war with democratic principles and turned against the Bourbon monarchy.

The king annoyed the middle class when he announced a free trade treaty with Britain and allowed cheap British goods to flood the French market. This undermined French manufactures and industrialists since they could not outcompete the cheap and high-quality British goods. This culminated in the closure of industries, which worsened unemployment.

The king's desire to use foreign troops to suppress the revolution. King Louis XVI was indeed a weak despot who could have used his army to avert the revolution. Unfortunately, the army was disloyal to him and he decided to use German troops, which made him appear to be an enemy of the revolution. It was such an act that forced the masses to violently break into the Bastille prison on 19 July 1789. He made a fatal mistake when he called the Estates General Meeting which had never met for 175 years. He lacked knowledge and skills about how to conduct the assembly/meetings. This provoked disagreement over the seating arrangements of the three estates and his failure to take a stand on the disagreements and instead protest by walking out of the parliamentary house gave a green light to the peasants to declare themselves the National Assembly, which meant that the revolution was in progress.

The character of Queen Marie Antoinette also led to the French revolution. She was born in 1755 to the great Maria Theresa of the Austrian Empire. She had a more vigorous and decisive personality and came to exercise a great deal of influence over her husband. Her role in the outbreak of the French Revolution are presented below:



Figure 1.1: Marie Antoinette

Marie Antoinette was hated because of her origin as someone from Austria, which was a traditional enemy of France. She was commonly referred to as the L'Autrichienne (the Austrian woman). Austria had supported England in the seven-year war of 1756-1763 against France in which France lost her precious colonies in India and Canada. The queen always reminded the Frenchmen with contempt of their defeat and of the loss of their territories.

Marie Antoinette was very extravagant with the state's money. This was evidenced by the 500 servants she kept and the 2,000 horses she owned and, the most amazing habit of all, come rain or shine, Marie Antoinette had to buy four pairs of golden shoes each week. She always

encouraged the weak-minded king to prepare expensive dinners every day for the nobles and the clergy. This culminated in financial bankruptcy which, in turn, triggered the outbreak of the revolution.

Marie Antoinette should be blamed for the dismissal of the reformist ministers. She ill advised the king to dismiss the efficient financial controllers, i.e. **Necker and Turgot**. Their suggestions were very clear, i.e. all people, including the nobles and the clergy, should be taxed. However, such views were opposed by the queen and the clergy and eventually she influenced the dull king to dismiss both the men, which compelled the disgruntled French to revolt.

Queen Marie Antoinette was virtually uneducated and her character proved to be disastrous to the king. She was ignorant of the people's needs and incapable of grasping the prevailing political situation. She always ill advised the king at precisely the wrong moments. This forced Mirabeau to say that the king had only one man above him and that was his wife. She kept the king busy and fully occupied in the bedroom, which turned him into a slumbering giant.

Marie Antoinette demanded compensation for her late daughter, which angered the French. She gave birth to a daughter who died at birth but she insisted that the government should compensate her by paying her pension. She argued that the daughter was going to be an important person in France. This is clear testimony and confirmation that Marie Antoinette, the most beautiful queen in Europe, was the dumbest France had ever had.

The poor taxation system in France was also responsible for the outbreak of the French revolution. The peasants were very poor and could not contribute enough revenue to run the state whereas the privileged people that had property and were very rich were exempted from such taxes. Besides, the peasants were required to pay a lot of taxes, including the vingtieme tax, gabelle tax, the tithe tax and poll tax, among others

Corruption and embezzlement of the public funds among the privileged class greatly contributed to the financial crisis that resulted in the revolution. It was very common for the nobles, the clergy – including the bishops – and tax collectors to embezzle most of the revenue. This annoyed the peasants and members of the middle-class, who paid the taxes expecting to receive services from the government. Since their money was, instead, used to fulfil the selfish interests of the government officials, they lost hope in the government.

The 1789 French revolution can also be attributed to the grievances of the peasants. It is important to note here is that the peasants constituted the biggest portion of the population in France, numbering 23 million out of 25 million people. Despite this, however, the peasants were denied the right to own land, and they paid both direct and indirect taxes. They were denied education, were deprived of political influence in France and were forced to work in public works such as the construction of roads, canals and bridges without any payment. It was a combination of the above grievances that made the French people stage a revolution.

The French revolution can also be attributed to the grievances of the middle class. These were businessmen and educated, and included merchants, lawyers, teachers, doctors etc. and were rich. The middle class had three main grievances and the foremost was being denied political power yet they were educated.

They were excluded from participation in affairs of the state, and their opinions and wishes were ignored. They also criticised the lack of religious tolerance in France and resented over-taxation in the areas of commerce and industry. They also pinned King Louis for his failure to pay back their money which they had lent the government.

The impact of the American War of Independence of 1776-1783 partly contributed to the outbreak of the French Revolution. It should be recalled that King Louis XVI committed French troops to assist in the American War of Independence against Britain. The British were defeated and America acquired her independence. However, the French troops, who were led by General Lafayette, returned to France with revolutionary ideas of liberty, equality and fraternity from America and also wanted the same ideas to be applied in France. It also destroyed the relationship between the king and the relatives of the soldiers who had lost their lives in the war, who blamed the king for the death of their relatives. The war also drained the treasury of the French crown since King Louis spent over 2,000 million livres, leading to the outbreak of the financial crisis which set into motion the 1789 French Revolution.

The privileged position of the nobles and the clergy sowed the seeds of the French Revolution. These were members of the First and Second Estates and were vehemently blamed for the outbreak of the revolution owing to the expensive and unlimited privileges they enjoyed. For example, they were exempted from paying taxes, highly paid, lived a luxurious lifestyle and spent much of their time in the king's palace at Versailles. They became the focus of attack from the philosophers. Worse still, even when France was in a financial crisis their privileges were not reduced and they proved to be unconcerned about the plight of the hungry French people. Besides, the two classes were classified and such discrimination brought about social discontent, especially among the lesser nobles and the lower clergy, who enjoyed no privileges. It is not by accident that they joined hands with the peasants to stage the revolution.

The 1789 Revolution was due to **the influence of the French political philosophers and writers**. These were intellectual giants and great thinkers who criticised many aspects of French society, the government and the church, which incited the French masses to rise up against the Bourbon monarchy, leading to the French Revolution. The most influential philosophers included:

- **Francois-Marie Arouet Voltaire, 1694–1778.** He was a historian, a philosopher, dramatist and lampoonist who was exiled to Britain because of his writings against the French monarchy. He admired and was impressed by the existing freedom of worship in Britain and her constitutional monarchy and he wrote a book entitled ***The Letters on the English*** in which he attacked the corrupt and pretentious church on the basis of its irreligious nature in connection with how it treated the common man through its laws, taxes, conservatism and oppression. In this very book, he advocated the freedom of worship, speech and democracy. All these were read by the masses and they were thus inspired to stage the revolution. He was quoted as saying: **“An Englishman goes to heaven through various ways and a Frenchman goes to heaven through the Catholic Church.”**
- **Baron de Montesquieu 1689–1755.** He was a political scientist and his influence was political rather than religious though he criticised the abuses of the church and the despotism of the state. In his book, ***The Spirit of the Laws***, he expressed

admiration for Britain and her constitutional monarchy that had an independent judiciary and legislature to limit the powers of the king and believed that such a constitutional monarchy would extend liberty and uphold equality in France. He aimed at minimising despotism with a system of checks and balances. Such writings greatly inspired the French masses.

- **Jean-Jacques Rousseau, 1712–1788.** He was a poet and a musician who preached the equality of man. Through his book, ***The Social Contract***, he criticised the political, social and economic system in France, especially despotism, and he observed that “man is born equal and free but everywhere he is in chains”. His writings greatly influenced the French, especially the republicans, including Napoleon Bonaparte and the notorious Maximilien Robespierre of the reign of terror.
- **The encyclopaedists.** These were led by Denis Diderot and D’Alambert. These summarised all the work produced by the philosophers and put them into one organised book called the encyclopaedia. It was, therefore, a collection of knowledge about politics, religion, economics and science. They attacked mainly the ancient regime, especially for its bankruptcy and the despotic power of the kings. They stated that it is one’s right to fight against any form of oppression. All these were read by the masses and this widened their scope of understanding and they thus developed a revolutionary mood. It is not by accident, then, that they rose up in 1789 to put the writings of the philosophers into action.



Figure 1.2: French philosophers

The grievances in the army were also partly responsible for the outbreak of the French Revolution of 1789. The French troops were disorganised, poorly motivated, ill equipped and had lost confidence in the Bourbon monarchy. The majority were peasants who were forcibly recruited and were even denied promotions. This forced them to collaborate with the revolutionists of 1789.

2. Social Causes

The social condition of France during the eighteenth century was very miserable. The then French society was divided into three classes – the clergy, nobles and common people. The clergy belonged to the First Estate. The clergy were subdivided into two groups, i.e. the higher clergy and the lower clergy. The higher clergy occupied the top position in French society. They managed the churches, monasteries and educational institutions of France. They did not pay any tax to the monarch. They exploited the common people in various ways. The higher clergy lived in the midst of scandalous luxury and extravagance. The common people strongly hated the higher clergy. On the other hand, the lower

clergy served the people in the true sense of the word and lived a very miserable life.

The nobility were regarded as the Second Estate in French society. They also did not pay any tax to the king. The nobility were also subdivided into two groups – the court nobles and the provincial nobles. The court nobles lived in pomp and luxury. They did not pay heed to the problems of the common people living in their areas. On the other hand, the provincial nobles paid attention to the problems of the people. However, they did not enjoy the same privileges as the court nobles did.

The Third Estate formed a heterogeneous class. The farmers, cobblers, sweepers and other lower classes belonged to this class. The condition of the farmers was very miserable.

The privileged position of the nobles and the clergy contributed to the outbreak of the French Revolution. These were members of the First and Second Estates and were strongly blamed for the outbreak of the revolution owing to the expensive and unlimited privileges they enjoyed. The nobles were exempted from paying taxes, were highly paid, lived a luxurious lifestyle and spent much of their time in the king’s palace at Versailles. They became the focus of attack from the philosophers. Worse still, even when France was in a financial crisis their privileges were not reduced and they proved to be unconcerned about the plight of hungry French people.

Besides, the two classes were classified and such classification and such discrimination brought about social discontent, especially among the lesser nobles and the lower clergy, who enjoyed no privileges and by accident that they joined hands with the peasants to stage the revolution.

The 1789 French revolution can be attributed to the grievances of the peasants. Important to note here is that, the peasants constituted the biggest population in France with 23 million out of 25 million total populations by then. It is absurd to note that, they were denied the right to own a piece of land, and they paid both direct and indirect taxes. They were strongly denied education, deprived of political influence in France and were forced to work in public works such as building and construction of roads, canals and bridges without any payment.

The French revolution can also be attributed to the grievances of the middle class. These were businessmen and educated including merchants, lawyers, teachers, doctors etc. the rich men had 3 main issues and the greatest of all, being denied political power yet they were educated, they were excluded from participation of the affairs of the state, their opinions and wishes were under looked. They also criticized lack of religious tolerance in France and were resented to over taxation in the field of commerce and industry. They also pinned King Louis for the failure to pay back their money which they had borrowed the government. It was such a combination of grievances that justified them to offer the necessary leadership and finance the revolution.

3. Economic Causes:

The American war of independence of 1776-1783 partly caused the revolution of 1789. France wanted to revenge against Britain over the loss of colonies in India and Canada. She therefore joined the American war of independence against Britain and the joint French/American army defeated the British and America became independent. Unfortunately, the war was too costly for France in terms of finances and human lives, for example, France spent over 2000 million livres and the government was later forced to borrow from the middle class whom the government failed to pay back. It was

upon such bankruptcy of the monarchy that resulted in the French revolution.

The extravagance of the French monarchy was also responsible for the financial crisis that resulted in the French revolution. King Louis XVI and his wife Queen Marie Antoinette were very extravagant for example they had over 2000 horses, 2000 carriages, 500 servants and the Queen used to have frequent parties and bought 4 pairs of golden shoes every week. Such uncontrolled extravagancies in the king’s palace worsened the financial situation of France and eventually annoyed the French peasants.

The poor taxation system in France was also responsible for the outbreak of the French revolution. The peasants were very poor and could not contribute enough revenue to run the state whereas the privileged people that had property and very rich were exempted from such taxes. Besides, peasants were to pay a lot of taxes including the vingtieme tax, gabelle tax, the tithe tax, poll tax, among others.

Corruption and embezzlement of the public funds among the privileged class. It was very common among the nobles, tax collectors who embezzled most of the revenue plus the clergy and the Bishops. This annoyed the peasants and middle class members who were paying the taxes expecting to receive services from the government. Since their money was used to fulfill selfish interests of the government officials, they lost hope in this government.

TASK

- Using the above extract, Google/internet or any relevant materials near you, discuss the different ways in which the above long-term factors contributed to the outbreak of the French Revolution of 1789.
- To what extent did the autocracy of the French government/ancient regime contribute to the outbreak of the 1789 Revolution in France. Take your stand, backing it with reasons.

Lesson Summary

In this lesson you have learnt about both the long-term and short-term factors that contributed to the outbreak of the 1789 French Revolution. However, there is no single factor that led to the revolutionary situation; it was a combination of factors that made its occurrence inevitable by 1789.

Follow-Up Activity

In your own opinion, which of the above long-term causes largely made the revolutionary situation in France inevitable?

LESSON 2: Immediate Causes of The 1789 French Revolution

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to explain the immediate causes of the 1789 French revolution.

Materials You Need

Pens; pencils; papers/ notebooks; the Internet/Google (if accessible); textbooks

Instructions

- This is a self-study lesson.
- Follow the instructions carefully.
- If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
- You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.
- Make use of any related study material near you.

Introduction

Having discussed the long-term causes of the 1789 French Revolution, you need to understand the extent to which they contributed to the revolutionary situation in France. There were short-term and immediate causes of the revolution. These included natural calamities in 1788-1789 in France, the calling of the Estates General and the bankruptcy of the French government. They are further analysed in the extract below.

Read the text below and attempt the tasks that will follow.

The Immediate Causes of the French Revolution

'The revolution was caused by many problems. By 1789, there were political, economic and social developments making a condition favourable to the revolution.'

The unfair financial Cobden Treaty of 1786 partly led to the French revolution. This treaty was signed between King Louis XVI and Britain in which the two countries removed trade barriers and allowed Britain goods to be exported into France without being taxed. Consequently, the British goods flooded the market because they were cheap and of better quality. They therefore outcompeted the French products, leading to the collapse of the infant industries in France. This greatly affected the masses and they turned political tables against the Bourbon monarchy and this resulted in the revolution.

The dismissal of financial ministers also contributed to the outbreak of the French revolution. Turgot was the financial minister who had suggested the abolition of the privileges of the nobility and the clergy and also advocated taxation of the privileged class and the re-distribution of land to the peasants. This would have solved the financial problems. Unfortunately, he was dismissed by the king on the advice of his wife and the clergy. He was replaced by Necker who also called for reforms in the taxation policy. However, he was also dismissed. This increased the anguish among the disgruntled French, who were left with no alternative but to strike out against King Louis XVI, and hence the revolution.

The poor harvest of 1788 that was caused by bad weather and a prolonged winter. Bad weather destroyed crops, especially wheat and rice. It also blocked the sea port and harbours; navigable rivers were all filled with snow, thus bringing water transport to a standstill. Consequently, there was widespread famine, hunger and starvation not only in rural areas but also in towns. This led to an increase in the prices of goods. Unfortunately, King Louis XVI's government failed to address issues of the suffering masses, which compelled them to stage a revolution.

Unemployment that caused the crisis which plunged France into the 1789 French revolution. Peasants, who had suffered from bad weather conditions, migrated from rural areas to urban centres and settled in towns like Versailles, Lyon and Paris in search of jobs which, unfortunately, were not available. This led to congestion and food shortage, and then the situation became chaotic. The peasants blamed their government for its failure to create jobs for them, which greatly contributed to the outbreak of the revolution.

The bankruptcy of the French crown also led to the outbreak of the revolution. This was due to poor economic policies of the time like employment, exemption of capable people like the clergy and

the nobles from paying taxes and the uncontrolled extravagance in the king's palace. The hardships resulting from the bankruptcy prevented the government from completing any constructive programmes and, above all, the general population lost confidence in the leadership of King Louis XVI. It was this financial crisis that resulted in King Louis XVI's being unprepared to call the Estates General Meeting and, after his failure to settle the seating arrangements, culminated in the outbreak of the French Revolution.

The calling of the Estates General meeting. This was scheduled for 5 May 1789 and comprised 621 representatives of the Third Estate, 308 clergy and 285 nobles. King Louis XVI and his incompetent advisers thought that each estate representative would present a list of grievances and offer some advice, which would help in solving the financial crisis and other problems that France was facing. The grievances expressed loyalty and fidelity (faith) to the king; most of them reflected the radical philosophy of the age and demanded reforms in the government and society. Many of the grievances demanded the abolition of social inequalities in French society.

Louis XVI expected separate deliberations from each estate rather than a joint assembly of clergy, nobles and Third Estate representatives. He thus insisted on the ancient system of sitting and voting where each estate would sit and vote as one house. By this procedure, the privileged estates (clergy and nobles) would always outvote the Third Estate by a ratio of 2:1 (two votes for the First and Second Estate and a vote for the Third Estate). This was because the First and Second Estates were the privileged class and had a similar interest in defending their privileges.

The Third Estate objected to this arrangement and wanted a single assembly of three estates where deliberations and voting would be on the principle of one man, one vote. They were aware that a joint assembly would offer them opportunities for reform since they had twice as many representatives as the clergy and nobles combined.

However, the privileged estate rejected the demands of the Third Estate and influenced King Louis XVI to rule against it. Under the guidance of Mirabeau, the Third Estate refused to accept the ruling. There were a number of deliberations and on 17 June 1789, the Third Estate declared itself the National Assembly, which marked the beginning of the revolution.

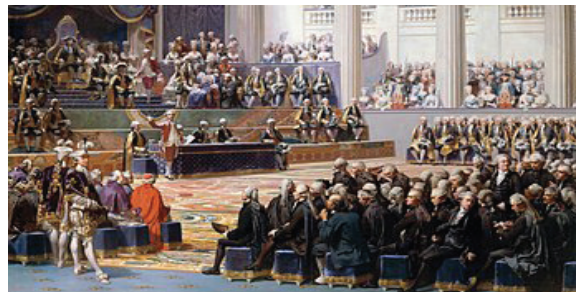


Figure 1.3: The 5 May 1789, Estates General Meeting at Versailles

Task

- From the above extract, discuss how the calling of the Estates General Meeting led to the outbreak of the 1789 French Revolution.
- How far did natural calamities contribute to the outbreak of the 1789 French Revolution?

Lesson Summary

You have learnt that the immediate causes of the revolution were a financial crisis/bankruptcy, the effects of bad weather and the summoning and the failure of the Estates General. These sparked off the revolution in France in 1789.

Follow-Up Activity

- Of the long-term and short-term causes, which one ranked high in the outbreak of 1789 French Revolution?
- What lessons should modern states/countries learn from the immediate causes of the 1789 French Revolution?

Subject: History of Africa

Topic: The Pre-Colonial Societies in Africa

LESSON 1: Features of Pre-Colonial Centralised African Societies

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to:

- give a brief background of pre-colonial Africa.
- define two types of pre-colonial African societies.
- examine the features of pre-colonial centralised states.

Materials You Need

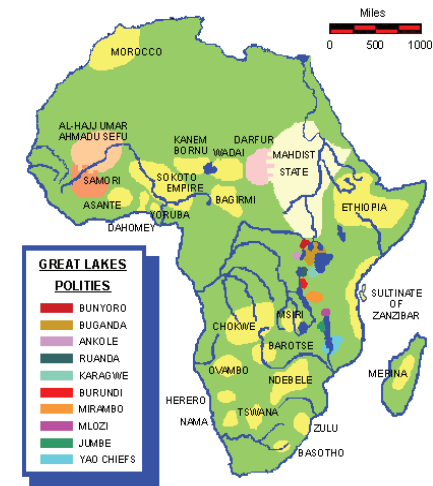
Pens; pencils; papers/ notebooks; the Internet; textbooks

Instructions

- This is a self-study lesson.
- Follow the instructions carefully.
- Attempt all tasks given (in your notebook).
- You can make reference to/research from your books.
- If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
- You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.

Introduction

Pre-colonial African societies were societies or states which existed in Africa before the coming of the Europeans. The Africans had tried to forge political and social institutions for proper management of their affairs. There were two types of colonial states, namely centralised states (chiefly states) and decentralised states (segmentary/stateless states).



Map 5.1: Pre-colonial African societies

Read the text below and attempt the proceeding question.

CENTRALISED SOCIETIES

These were societies in which power and authority were concentrated in the hands of an individual and/or a group of people. In these societies, responsibilities were never held on a part-time basis but on a permanent basis. The leaders of these societies wielded a lot of power and authority over their subjects. In fact, the society was founded on a master-slave relationship. Examples of such societies included:

Buganda and Bunyoro in East Africa; Lozi, Kololo, Ndebele and Gaza in Central Africa; the Zulu, Basuto and Swazi in South Africa; Asante, Dahomey, Benin, Tukolor and the Sokoto caliphate in West Africa; the Maghreb states of North Africa, i.e. Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia and Egypt; and the Ethiopian Empire and Mahdist state in North-East Africa.

As earlier noted, power and authority were vested in the hands of an individual or a group. This individual took on various titles depending on the state. Such titles were sometimes designed to portray the power and supreme authority of the leader, for example kings in kingdoms, sultans in sultanates, emperors in empires. Other titles depended on the nature of particular states.

Acquisition of office/leadership in these societies was hereditary, i.e. it was by birth right. This, however, in some cases promoted inefficiency in performance as weak leaders sometimes took over office. However, in a way, this system preserved order in that not everyone would claim leadership except the royals. This lessened civil strife.

In the day-to-day administration of the state/society, the leadership was assisted by a hierarchy of officials. These officials differed in number from state to state but were often appointed and they held their office on the whim of the king, sultan or emperor. This, therefore, meant that they performed their duties to impress their leadership not the masses. This was rather undemocratic. Administratively, most of these states were divided into small administrative units, i.e. provinces, for easy and effective administration.

In the centralised societies, the judicial institutions were equally centralised. The lawmakers and implementers (the legislature) were the leadership. In most cases, though not all, the king's word was the law and he had the right of life and death and was the highest court of appeal charged with the responsibility of handling grave offences. It is those powers that turned this centralised leadership into a dictatorship, autocracy, absolute rule and the like.

Minor offences were often handed by junior officials in courts at various levels. At the household level, the house heads or family heads would handle the offences. Likewise, at the clan level, the clan heads would handle the cases, while at the village level, the village chiefs would handle the cases. Unlike in the decentralised societies where the village councils and assemblies would take charge, in centralised societies the individual chiefs, heads of families and the kings acted as judges not arbiters and sometimes took the law into their hands.

In matters concerning defence of the society, similar centralisation occurred. The leadership, i.e. the kings, sultans or emperors, possessed standing armies of professional soldiers employed on a full-time basis to defend the state against external aggression and internal strife, and also to carry out other activities such as agriculture, raiding for loot and providing security along trade routes, and also to act as trade agents. In essence, therefore, these armies were not only instruments of coercion but were also the property of the leaders (they worked in the interest of the leaders).

In the same way as decentralised states, centralised societies also had irregular armies, comprising of all able-bodied men who would be called upon, in time of need to supplement the regular standing army.

The leadership in most cases had an advisory council which assisted in the governing of the society. Such councils comprised senior citizens, high-ranking army officers and all senior chiefs, for example the Council of Indunas in the Zulu and the Ndebele societies. These councils were designed to assist the leadership in making and implementing laws.

The above suggests that the political institutions in the centralised societies, namely the leadership, judiciary and defence, functioned to maintain law and order, which certainly prevailed.

Economically, centralised societies were organised along the same lines. All economic resources in these societies were also centrally controlled by the leadership, for example all land in the society belonged to the leadership and it is the leadership that had power over it. The King of Buganda, for example, owned all the land and he could give it to anybody as he wished. Even other resources, such as wild game, forests, lakes and rivers, belonged to the leadership.

Trade was an important economic activity in these societies and by 1855, most of the centralised societies engaged in serious trade. In West Africa, the societies participated in legitimate trade. In East and Central Africa, there was long-distance trade. However, what is important to note is the fact that this trade was a royal trade/monopoly (it was a monopoly of the ruling class). This was intended to maintain law and order and to preserve security. Trade involved buying and selling of human beings and exchanging of firearms.

All centralised societies possessed tributary/vassal states on which they levied tributes as a source of wealth for the leadership. This was the source of livelihood for the state. Paying tribute was also a symbol of loyalty and good neighbourliness. The tributary states were never conquered by or integrated into the politics of the state to which they paid tribute, for instance Buganda, Busoga and Ankole. The Ndebele state had Shona and Ngwato as their tributary states while the Asante Kingdom had the northern Fante states as their vassal states.

In addition to the above, many centralised societies operated mixed economies. Agriculture, particularly the cultivation of crops for food production, was a major economic activity. This activity was supplemented by rearing animals/livestock. The type of animals and crops depended on geographical factors and the location of society. The crops grown included bananas, yams, cereals, cassava, beans etc.

It is important to note also that ironworking, pottery, stone and wood carving, bone carving etc. were also among the activities carried out in other societies for subsistence purposes as well as for exchange.

Mining and fishing were also important economic activities in some societies, depending on their location.

Religion played an important role in most centralised states. It was a symbol of unity, a unifying factor, and religious or vital functions were presided over by the king.

TASK 1

- i) From the above text, examine the major features of centralised states in pre-colonial Africa.

Follow-Up Activity

- i) Briefly explain the factors for formation of pre-colonial states in Africa.

Topic: Colonial Administration

LESSON 1: Colonial Administrative Policies

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to:

1. identify the colonial administrative policies.
2. explain the reasons why the British used indirect rule policy.

Materials You Need

Pens; pencils; papers/notebooks; the internet; textbooks

Instructions

1. This is a self-study lesson.
2. Follow the instructions carefully.
3. Attempt all tasks given (in your notebook).
4. You can make reference to /research from your books.
5. If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
6. You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.

Introduction

Colonial administration refers to the policies of administration used by the colonialists in the management of their established control over African territories. Such policies included indirect rule, assimilation, association and direct rule. By 1900, most parts of Africa had been subjected to European colonial rule either through collaboration or by force as countries that had resisted had been properly crushed. By 1914, all African countries had been colonised except Liberia and Ethiopia.

Policies of colonial administration

After acquiring African territories, Europeans were confronted with a number of difficulties that made different colonial powers use different policies of administration in order to solve the problems they faced. Such problems included challenges posed by traditional monarchs, who were a threat. Many of them were proud of their independence. The Europeans lacked enough manpower, possessed inadequate funds to run the administration and faced language barrier. As a result, the British adopted indirect rule, the French used assimilation, association and indirect rule in some areas, the Germans used direct rule, and the Portuguese used both assimilation and direct rule.

Assimilation

The French mainly used assimilation. This was a system of administration where the colony was modelled on an exact image of colonial power. It aimed at creating people similar to the French in all aspects of life, except skin colour. The culture, language, law, civilisation, religion and all aspects of life were to be French and not African in nature. In Africa, assimilation was used in Senegal, where it was a success, and in Algeria. Portugal also used it in Mozambique and Angola.

Association

This system of administration came as a result of the failure and abandonment of the assimilation policy because of problems involved in it. According to this theory, Africans would be governed through their own political systems with the advice of French overlords. Association meant respecting the culture of African subjects and leaving them to develop in their own ways as long as they met the demands of the colonialists. This

policy was used in all areas of French influence outside Senegal. Therefore, in theory, the association policy was similar to the British indirect rule system.

Direct rule

This administrative policy was mainly employed by Germans, Belgians and Portuguese. As a system of administration, direct rule in its pure form had no room for local rulers. For example, it was used by the Germans in Tanganyika, where they either employed their pure Europeans or imported mixed cultures of *jumbes* and *akidas*. Portugal also used it in Mozambique and Angola by employing the “degradados”. This system was very expensive and its application was limited in Africa.

Indirect rule

This was mainly used in British colonies. This was a system of administration where Africans were used to rule their fellow subjects. In other words, conquered kings, chiefs and elders were used to administer their subjects on behalf of the colonial masters. In theory, the system entailed the preservation of the existing institutions and their gradual adoption under the direction of the British colonial governance system. In Africa, this system worked in almost all British colonies but it was more pronounced in Uganda and northern Nigeria. Germans also used indirect rule in Togoland where they used local chiefs and village headmen as agents of their rule.

TASK 1

Describe the colonial policies used by the Europeans to administer colonies in Africa.

The British system of indirect rule

Indirect rule refers to the system of administration under which traditional rulers were allowed to rule their people under the supervision of the British officials. Under this system, the traditional existing socio-political structures were to be preserved and adopted under the direction of the local government administration of British colonial rule.

Indirect rule was a brainchild of Captain Fredrick Lugard, who ruled northern Nigeria in 1900-1906 and the whole of Nigeria between 1912-1920. He developed this system into a colonial administrative system through his book entitled *The Dual Mandate in Tropical Africa*. This book argued that it was a double responsibility of the British to preserve indigenous institutions while at the same time developing them with the view that these colonies would be left to administer themselves.

The system was used by the British in Buganda, where it was claimed to be successful. In Nigeria and Ghana the success or failure of the system is a matter of debate because it was used in various ways depending on the communities that were being governed.

The method was applied by Lugard, who had earlier also worked in India and Southern Nigeria among the Yoruba.

Why the British applied indirect rule

The existence of well-developed African institutions, such as in Buganda and in northern Nigeria, provided a framework for efficient administration. Besides, the British feared the danger of dismantling the local administrative set-up. The use of these institutions was the best way of avoiding trouble with strong African leaders.

Africans were found to be rich. Sometimes they would not be paid and at times if paid it was done in kind. They even did a lot of work in order to please their masters. Thus, it was economical to use Africans.

There was lack of adequate personnel to do administrative work. The British officials in East Africa were few in number and the few who were there could not manage big areas. That is why they resorted to the use of African chiefs and leaders.

The system was economically cheap. The British lacked enough funds to cater for the costs of administration. The use of local leaders, since their salaries were lower than those required by the British Europeans, solved the problem.

Lord Lugard also adopted indirect rule as a way of preparing Africans for eventual self-government. This could be achieved by allowing African leaders to exercise their responsibility.

The British wanted African chiefs and leaders to act as shock absorbers. In case there was resistance to some of the policies applied by the British, it could be directed to the natives.

The presence of collaborators necessitated indirect rule in such circumstances. Some Africans were very much willing to help the British in their administration, for instance Sir Apollo Kaggwa, Nuwa Mbaguta and Semei Kakungulu.

In some of the societies with strong centralised systems of government like Buganda and where the people respected their rulers, the system had to be applied. Direct rule was likely to be opposed by such people, hence the use of local leaders.

In some places, such as Bunyoro where the British were resisted by Kabalega, they had to apply indirect rule as they knew that direct rule would be opposed. Hence, in such a hostile environment, the British could not send their officials but instead used African chiefs and leaders.

The British had the problem of language barrier and even lacked geographical knowledge of local places. In such circumstances, they often used interpreters, who at times misinformed them. Thus they opted to use African chiefs because they knew the native language well.

Indirect rule was applied because of ignorance on the part of Africans. Many thought that the White man had come to stay only temporarily and therefore offered to work hand in hand with the British. The British capitalised on their ignorance to use them.

Unlike the Germans who wanted to use some educated people, the British did not mind whether the chief was effective or not. What they were interested in was using a chief to exploit the existing resources whether he was educated or not.

How indirect rule was applied? (Main features)

At the top of the British administration was the Secretary for all colonies based in London. He was in charge of colonial affairs and was answerable to the British Parliament.

Below the Colonial Secretary, there were Governors heading the colonial administration in every colony. In Uganda, Entebbe was the headquarters. These were all Whites and were answerable to the Colonial Secretary.

Below the Governor, there were the Provincial Commissioners heading every province. These were answerable to the Governor.

Below them, there were District Commissioners heading every district. These took orders from Provincial Commissioners and worked under their close supervision.

The districts were further divided into counties, each under a county chief. This was an African and took orders and policies from the district officials.

Counties were subdivided into sub-counties under sub-county chiefs. These were also Africans and were answerable to the county chief.

Sub-counties were divided into parishes under parish chiefs. These were answerable to sub-county chiefs.

The parishes were further subdivided into sub-parishes under sub-parish chiefs and these took orders from parish chiefs.

Below the sub-parish chiefs were village headmen heading every village. These received orders from sub-parish chiefs and would pass them on to the common man.

All these chiefs, i.e. from the village headmen to the Governor, formed a chain of command.

Indirect rule worked at the local level from the district down to the village. All these positions were reserved for Africans. Top positions (central level) were reserved for British officials.

TASK 2

Account for the British use of indirect rule in Africa.

Lesson Summary

Many administrative systems were applied in Africa by imperialists. The most common were direct rule, assimilation policy and indirect rule, which worked in Uganda. All of them had advantages and disadvantages.

Follow-Up Activities

Interact with your guardian/parent and ask him/her how Uganda was governed under colonialism. Take notes and hand them in to your teacher when schools reopen.

Subject: National Movements and New States

Topic: African Nationalism

LESSON 1: Features of African Nationalism

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to:

- i) define African nationalism.
- ii) explain the features of African nationalism.
- iii) develop a sense of patriotism using historical facts.

Materials You Need:

Pens; pencils; papers/notebooks; the Internet; textbooks

Instructions

1. This is a self-study lesson.
2. Follow the instructions carefully.
3. If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
4. You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.
5. Make use of internet /Google or any related study material near you.

STEP I

Introduction

Nationalism is consciousness on the part of individuals

or groups of people regarding their membership of a nation-state either already existing or to which they aspire. It is also a desire to achieve political and economic freedom over all social and economic development, as well as the cultural revival of that nation-state.

African nationalism is a desire of African people to terminate all foreign rules. Basically, nationalism is the political will of the people of Africa to oppose foreign domination and embrace African rule. It represents African struggles against Western colonialism and imperialism.

The process of decolonisation or national liberation was fundamental in Africa, for it allowed African states to regain their independence, which they had lost for more than half a century. The rise of African nationalism dates back to the period of colonial conquest and the imposition of colonial rule, on one hand, and primary African resistance against colonial rule, on the other. Later, however, the intensification of exploitation stimulated the nationalistic struggle.

TASK 1

Briefly explain the meaning of the term African nationalism.

Read the text below and attempt the task that follows.

The loss of independence to foreigners and the introduction of foreign systems of government caused feelings of resistance among the rulers and peoples of Africa. Therefore, foreign control caused feelings of nationalism. The struggle for African independence took many different forms and was waged in many different ways through numerous spheres of human activity.

Liberation by constitution/dialogue/peacefully. This involved intensive negotiation between the colonialists and African nationalists, e.g. the political independence of Tanganyika, Ghana, Uganda, Zambia etc. all applied negotiation or peaceful means to get their independence.

Liberation by revolution. This was the type of liberation which involved complete overthrow of the existing political system. This occurred in colonies where independence was given to the minority at the expense of the majority. A case in point is Zanzibar where the minority Arabs were granted independence by the British, which prompted the majority Blacks to make a revolution in 1964, replacing the existing political system with a new system that is supported by the masses. Revolution took place even Egypt and Libya. Liberation by revolution is always sudden and involves bloodshed.

Liberation by armed struggle that was conducted in situations where peaceful means had failed and the imperialists were reluctant to negotiate or to give independence to the Africans. In such situations the Africans took up arms to fight the imperialists as a method to achieve their independence. It involved the use of guerrilla warfare and bloodshed. Examples include the armed struggles in Zimbabwe, Kenya, Angola, South Africa, Namibia and Mozambique.

African nationalism was also characterised by secessionist movements, especially between the 1950s and 1970s. In various parts of Africa, some tribes rejected the joint nationalistic efforts spearheaded by the young elites. Instead, they preferred to struggle for tribal independence. For example, the Ibo of Nigeria chose to fight for their tribal independence instead of continuing

to be part of Nigeria. This was micro-nationalism.

A combination of constitutional and armed struggle. These liberation movements combined both methods. Firstly, the Africans resorted to armed struggle as a means to achieve their independence and then applied dialogue/peaceful means to solve the problems of their independence. This happened in Kenya and Zimbabwe. This type of armed struggle was conducted in situations where peaceful means had failed and the imperialists were reluctant to negotiate or to give independence to the Africans. In such situations the Africans took up arms to fight the imperialists as a means to achieve their independence. The most common method was guerrilla warfare. This method was used in Zimbabwe, Kenya, Angola, South Africa, Namibia and Mozambique.

Military coups, such as the 1966 coup in Ghana against Nkrumah, the 1971 coup in Uganda against Obote and the 1965 coup in Congo against Patrice Lumumba, among others. These coups had the effect of ushering the military factor into Africa's politics. Hence modern nationalism is characterised by a transition from civilian to military rule.

The liberation struggles were spontaneous and ethnic-based in nature or were regional-oriented. They lacked a national scope, with every tribe or region taking up resistance alone and fighting for tribal or regional interests, for instance Kagera Coffee Growers, Kilimanjaro National Cooperation Union (KNCU).

Other liberation struggles lacked clear political focus, i.e. they lacked political elements. The struggles focused on the social welfare of their societies, e.g. high wages, land alienation, and poor working conditions. The Kikuyu Central Association, for instance, fought for the return of lost Kikuyu land, the restoration of Kikuyu culture and the rejection of missionary teachings which interfered with the practice of female circumcision (**clitoridectomy**), considered a symbol of womanhood, which had become common among the Kikuyu in the 1920s.

Other liberation struggles were elites-based. They were mostly organised by those who were working for the colonial government in urban areas. They organised themselves and began to demand their rights. The interests they represented were mainly related to cooperation with colonialism. This kind of struggle is exemplified by Harry Thuku, a clerk in colonial government services in 1922, who started the Younger Kikuyu Association in Nairobi.

Most of the resistance struggles were easily suppressed by the colonialists. In other words, they registered limited success, e.g. the Maji Maji uprising, the Shona Ndebele uprising, and the resistance put up by the Dembe people of Angola in 1907-10. They lacked a well-organised and systematic form of resistance and most of the uprisings were sporadic in nature and generated internally rather than externally, e.g. cattle confiscation and land alienation, among others.

The demand for independence in Africa lacked the elements of uniformity and effectiveness. It was characterised by uprisings in different areas and at different times. They were mostly motivated by the desire to restore the pre-colonial social order, which had been overthrown by the colonialists.

Liberation struggles were characterised by a strong desire for economic independence and economic growth. Hence they were always characterised by the struggle against neocolonialism, efforts to nationalise foreigners' properties by African leaders such as Gamel Abdel Nasser of Egypt and Idi Amin of Uganda, and

efforts to create self-sustaining economies.

Another characteristic was a strong feeling of Pan-Africanism, which can be called nationalism beyond borders. This is the need by Blacks all over the continent and the world to unite against colonialism and neocolonialism. The support given by Kwame Nkrumah and Gamel Abdel Nasser of Egypt reflected great Pan-African zeal.

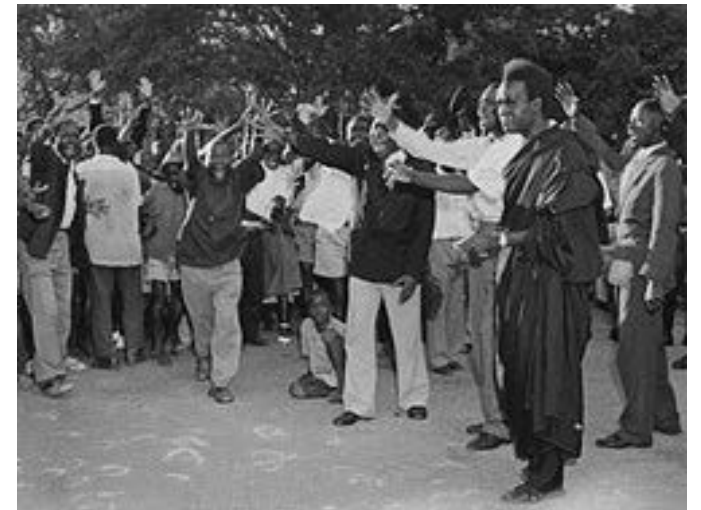


Figure 3.1: Kenneth Kaunda of Zambia at a political rally

TASK 2

With examples, explain the various features of African nationalism.

Lesson Summary

African nationalism is as old as European colonialism in Africa. After colonising Africa, the colonial masters, such as the British, French, Portuguese, Germans, Italians and Belgians, introduced a number of policies that were oppressive and exploitative. Those policies helped in awakening African consciousness and nationalism.

Follow-Up Activity

Discuss the impact of colonialism on the growth of African nationalism.

LESSON 2: Factors for The Rise of African Nationalism

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to explain the internal factors for the rise of African nationalism.

Materials You Need

Pens; pencils; paper/notebooks; the internet/Google; textbooks

Instructions

1. This is a self-study lesson.
2. Follow the instructions carefully.
3. If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
4. You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.
5. Make use of the internet/Google or any related study material near you.

Introduction

Nationalism as a movement started in Africa under colonisation and was against colonial domination. This movement started indirectly in the aftermath of colonisation through resistance put up by some kings who wanted freedom for their lands and people. The political and social movements that brought about the nationalist movement in the continent appeared after the Second World War and enabled the African colonies to achieve independence. During the decolonisation

period, the desire to be a nation became a concrete reality and the process to achieve a national identity was underway.

Before 1960, most of Africa was still under colonial control. However, by 1975, most of Africa was free from European colonialism. Several factors contributed to the rise of African nationalism.

Read the text below.

Internal factors for the rise of African nationalism

The oppressive and exploitative colonial policies led to the development of African nationalism. The colonial masters resorted to the implementation of several policies to achieve their goals, e.g. forced labour, over-taxation, racism, land grabbing, resource plunder etc., which did not go down well with Africans, e.g. in Kenya, Algeria, Angola etc. These policies caused discontent among Africans and they rose up to demand independence.

The rise of African elites/intellectuals ignited the demand for independence. These were Africans who had obtained the Western form of education and had returned to the continent full of reason, leadership skills and abilities, e.g. Kwame Nkrumah from Ghana, Nnamdi Azikiwe from Nigeria, Patrice Lumumba from Congo etc. They formed political parties and set up media houses, and while some engaged the colonial administration in dialogue, others adopted militant methods of struggle.



Figure 3.2: Nelson Mandela, first Black president of South Africa

The Africans also established independent churches. These were Christian churches which broke away from European churches because of dissatisfaction/discontent with Christian missionary churches. Some of the reasons for their discontent included the following: The European churches preached salvation and the equality of human beings before God, while Africans were segregated, oppressed and not even allowed to lead prayers, generally being treated as third-class citizens. The European churches also helped the colonisers to alienate land belonging to Africans, to levy taxes and to enforce forced labour, besides being involved in administration, which had nothing to do with the teachings of the Bible. They also realised that European churches and colonialism were two sides of the same coin and that the Christian missionaries' role was to pave the way for the colonisation of Africa. As is always said: 'The flag followed the cross.' This realisation led to the formation of independent churches. Some of these churches included Joseph Enjayi of West Africa, The Kikuyu Orthodox Church of Kenya, The African National Church of Tanganyika, The Independent Church Movement in Zaire set up by Simon Kimbanga, The Ethiopian Church in Rhodesia, The United Native Church of Cameroon, The Watch Tower Church Movement in Malawi in 1906, The People of God and the Religion of Jesus Christ in Kenya.

Europeans advised Africans concerning political and economic problems by breaking their resistance, e.g. through preaching biblical doctrines such as it is the humble people who are blessed for they are the ones who will enter the Kingdom of God; forgive those who

wrong you etc. They interfered with African cultural practices such as female circumcision among the Kikuyu people of Kenya who strongly detested the missionary activities. That prompted them to start independent schools and begun to spread the gospel against women circumcision.

The formation of political parties sparked off the development of African nationalism. The parties, e.g. Resemblance Democratic African Party (RDA) in French West Africa, Conversion People's Party (CPP) in Ghana, Tanzania African National Union in Tanzania (TANU), Malawi Congress Party (MCP) in Malawi etc. were used to mobilize and sensitize the masses on joint action against the White man. They enlightened Africans about their fundamental rights and engaged the colonial governments using both peaceful and violent methods in the quest for independence.

The establishment of mass media and press platforms contributed to the growth of African nationalism. Newspapers, pamphlets, leaflets and magazines were used to convey anti-colonial articles and expose the misdeeds of the colonialists. In Ghana, the *Accra Evening News*, in Nigeria the *West African Pilot* and the *Nigerian Tribune* and in Egypt, Radio Cairo, were set up and circulated nationalistic propaganda which influenced the masses to resist foreign colonial rule.

Social welfare associations were also formed. These aimed to improve the working conditions of African workers and to stop discrimination and colonial abuses against the Africans. Such associations were largely based in urban centres and comprised colonial civil servants. Examples are The Kikuyu Central Association in Kenya that was formed by Harry Thuku; The Railway Territory Civil Association in Tanganyika; Tanganyika Territory Civil Service Association (TTCSA), which was formed by Martin Kayamba; and the Peoples Union, formed in 1908 in Nigeria. Such associations exerted more pressure on the colonialists to consider giving Africans independence, which led to nationalism.

The Italo- Ethiopian War of 1935-41 influenced the development of African nationalism. This was a military confrontation between Italy under Benito Mussolini and Ethiopia under Emperor Haile Selassie. The Italian attack united Africans, militarised African nationalism through the Black Lions Movement and gave moral support to Ethiopia, which led to the defeat of Italy in 1941. Blacks across the globe held demonstrations against Italy as a result, the African demand for liberation surged to the fore.

The Brazzaville Conference of 1944 inspired the rise of African nationalism. The conference was a political gathering of French West African governors and administrators called by French president, Charles de Gaulle, to thank Africans for their assistance against Germany in World War II. During the conference, forced labour, racism etc. were condemned and the formation of political parties by Africans was recommended, leading to the formation of RDA. The conference also recommended the creation of local assemblies by Africans etc. Such changes ushered in by the Brazzaville Conference allowed Africans a taste of some freedom, which made them to demand complete freedom.

The declaration of apartheid/Afrikaner nationalism led to the rise of African nationalism. In 1948, Dr. Malan declared apartheid as the guiding political and social doctrine in South Africa and applied it against non-Whites. This policy was decampaigned throughout the world and it influenced the formation of parties, e.g. the Pan-African Congress, to liberate the continent from racism.

The impact of urbanisation in Africa since 1946 partly

led to the growth of African nationalism. After World War II, the world witnessed the emergence of towns as a result of increased economic activities to produce more raw materials to revive European industries. Towns like Kampala, Nairobi Lagos, Dakar, Accra etc. were set up, which led to rural-urban migration by African job seekers. Unfortunately, many of them remained unemployed, lived in poor conditions, suffered starvation, and were congested in slums, conditions which they attributed to the colonialists. They became more determined to demand independence so that they could be free from such challenges.

The impact of the Algerian War of Independence of 1954-1962 led to the development of African nationalism. This was a war between Algerians led by Ahmed Ben Bella under National Liberation Front of Algeria (FLN) and France, which was the colonial master. The Algerians were able to unite and fight the common enemy, and attracted support from USSR and Egypt. Once Algeria was independent, it helped other countries to shake off foreign colonial rule.

The Mau-Mau rebellion of 1952-55 inspired the development of independence struggles. This was an armed conflict between Africans in Kenya and the British colonial government. Despite the defeat of the Africans, the rebellion weakened the colonial government and increased the demand for independence in other states like Tanganyika and those in West Africa.

Ghana's independence in 1957 led to the rise of African nationalism. Ghana got its independence under Kwame Nkrumah, who dedicated himself to the service of Africans. Nkrumah hosted the Pan-African Conference in Accra and the conference was attended by Africans from all parts of the continent, e.g. Patrice Lumumba, Gamal Abdel Nasser, Robert Sobukwe etc., who agreed to work together for the liberation of Africans from European colonial rule.

Inspiration provided by Ethiopia and Liberia motivated the search for independence. These two countries had never been formally colonised by the European countries. They independently controlled their own affairs and this was admired by nationalists from colonised African states, e.g. Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria etc. to the extent that they also intensified the demand for their independence so that they could be free like Liberia and Ethiopia.

The independence of French Guinea (Guinea Conakry) in 1958 inspired the development of African nationalism. Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana worked together with Sekou Toure who was leading the African nationalists in Guinea Conakry to achieve independence from the French. This forced the French to organise the 1958 referendum in which Guineans voted to be independent from France. This independence made other African states agitate for their own independence, e.g. Guinea Bissau.

The Egyptian revolution of 1952 inspired the development of modern African nationalism. The revolution was instigated by Gamal Abdel Nasser against the government of king Farouk that was working as a puppet of the British. Nasser's government allowed African nationalists from different countries to use Egypt as a base in the struggle for independence, e.g. Uganda National Congress (UNC) of Uganda, FLN of Algeria etc., set up Radio Cairo which was used by African nationalists for propaganda purposes and also gave asylum to nationalists like Musaaizi of Uganda.

The formation of the Organisation of African unity (OAU) in 1963 stimulated the growth of African nationalism. The OAU unified many Africans. It established a Liberation Committee in 1969 in Dar es Salaam to advise African states on how to seek independence. It extended

financial and military support to African nationalists in countries such as Mozambique, Angola and Zimbabwe. It called for the release of political prisoners and presided over pre-independence elections.

The role played by African artistes/musicians inspired the growth of modern African nationalism. They composed revolutionary songs that appealed to the souls of the masses and they were thus encouraged to join the struggle. Through music, dance and drama the evils of foreign rule were laid bare and this attracted both national and international sympathy for the struggle, e.g. Lucky Dube and his famous songs like 'Prisoner', 'Slave' and 'Crying for Freedom' played a role in the liberation of South Africa.

By 1960, Macmillan's Conservative government was becoming worried about the effects of violent confrontations with the African nationalists in the Belgian Congo and French Algeria. The Conservatives were fearful of this violent activity spilling over into British colonies. This was when Macmillan went to Africa to circulate and deliver his speech entitled 'Wind of Change', which is named after the line: 'The wind of change is blowing through this continent and whether we like it or not, this growth of national consciousness is a political fact. We must all accept it as a fact, and our national policies must take account of it.' Following this speech, with surprising speed, Iain Macleod, Colonial Secretary in 1959-1961, brought forward the original timetable for independence in East Africa by an entire decade. Independence was granted to Tanganyika in 1961, Uganda in 1962 and Kenya in 1963.



Figure 3.3: Harold Macmillan 1957

TASK 1

Using the above text and your notes, discuss how the internal factors led to the de-colonisation of Africa. Back up your arguments with specific examples.

Lesson Summary

The rise of nationalism was a combination of both internal and external factors. Internally, the oppressive and exploitative policies of the colonialists such as forced labour, over-taxation, and land alienation in most African countries awakened the national consciousness that made the rise of African nationalism inevitable. Such policies, together with the rise of independent churches, the role of African elites, mass media and the formation of political parties, among others, led the Africans to demand independence either peacefully or violently.

Follow-Up Activity

- Discuss the origins of the Italo-Ethiopian crisis of 1935 – 1941.
- How did it influence the growth of African nationalism?

LESSON 3: External Factors

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to:

- explain the external factors for the rise of African nationalism.
- develop a sense of patriotism using historical data.

Materials You Need

Pens; pencils; papers/ notebooks; the Internet/Google; textbooks

Instructions

- This is a self-study lesson.
- Follow the instructions carefully.
- If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
- You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.
- Make use of the internet/Google or any related study material near you.

Introduction

Despite the contribution of internal factors to the rise of African nationalism, historians assert that external forces also led to the rise of African nationalism. These were factors/events that occurred outside Africa but favoured the decolonisation process in Africa. Such factors included the occurrence of World War II in 1939–1945, role of the United Nations Organisation (UNO), the influence of India, the role of Cold War politics as well as the role of the Atlantic Charter of 1941, among others.

Read the text below and attempt the tasks that follow.

External factors for the rise of African nationalism

The rise of the Pan-African movement (PAM) since 1900 inspired the growth of African nationalism. This movement was begun by Negroes (Black Americans) in the Diaspora with the aim of uniting all people of African origin/decent. PAM was opposed to foreign domination of Blacks and racism, and strongly advocated the redemption of Africans.

World War I of 1914-18 contributed to the formation of independence movements in Africa. Africans participated in the war on behalf of their colonial masters like Germany, France and Britain and acquired the revolutionary ideas of liberty to manage their affairs on the continent. This led to increased demand for independence, leading to the rise of African nationalism.

The impact of the Russian Revolution of 1917 stimulated the rise of African nationalism. The revolution led to the overthrow of the government of Czar Nicholas II by socialists led by Lenin. The new socialist government in Russia encouraged Africans to rise up for their own freedom from the colonial masters, discouraged private ownership of resources etc.

The economic prosperity and military victories of Japan after 1860 influenced the rise of African nationalism. Japan was able to develop without much assistance from outside and became a military state using her own resources. This convinced Africans that development and military prowess could be achieved using internally generated resources and without exploitation from the European colonial masters.

The Second World War of 1939-45 and the role of ex-servicemen influenced the development of African nationalism. The war pitted the Allied comprising Britain, France, the USA etc. against the Axis powers comprising

Japan, Italy and Germany. The Africans fought majorly on the side of the Allied powers and emerged out of the war with several skills, including military experience and perspectives. Their fear of the White man disappeared they, therefore, increased their demand for liberation. For example, Ahmed Ben Bella of Algeria demanded f independence from the French, General China demanded Kenya's independence etc.

The signing of the Atlantic Charter of 1941 influenced the development of African nationalism. This was a document signed between Winston Churchill, the prime minister of Britain, and the US president Franklin Roosevelt with Joseph Stalin of Russia as a witness. This document contained the principle of self-determination, which states that all people of the world have a right to choose the form of government and the leaders of their choice. This encouraged the Africans to demand independence.

The victory of the Labour Party in the British elections of 1945 encouraged the growth of African nationalism. The Labour Party of Clement Atlee was totally not in support of the idea of continuing with colonial empires and spending on overseas wars, which sped up constitutional changes and allowed Africans to concentrate on their own politics in pre-independence elections, e.g. in Ghana, Nigeria etc.

The rise of new superpowers/advent of the Cold War in 1946 encouraged the growth of African nationalism. The USA and the USSR emerged out of the Second World War very powerful economically and militarily as the former superpowers, Britain and France, suffered economic and military blows. The new superpowers, i.e. the USA and the USSR, assisted Africans morally, economically and militarily to regain their independence. They supported liberation movements, e.g. USSR supported MPLA of Angola, FRELIMO in Mozambique etc., and demanded that colonial masters Britain and France should provide decolonisation agendas as a condition for getting aid for economic recovery.

The independence of India and Pakistan in 1947 sped up the spread of nationalism in Africa. India, like many African countries, was colonised by Britain. When India achieved independence under Mahatma Gandhi and Jawaharlal Nehru, she pledged to help Africans get out of the foreign yoke. India encouraged Africans to establish political parties to unite them in the fight for independence, condemned racism and European hypocrisy, inspired Africans to use non-violent methods, e.g. demonstrations, non-cooperation, boycotts etc. in the search for independence.

The Communist Party in China under Mao Tse Tung, who came to power in 1949, encouraged the growth of African nationalism. After Mao overthrew the capitalist and nationalist government of Chiang Kai Shek, his new government supported African decolonisation by providing financial, moral and military support and assisting liberation movements, e.g. supported ZANU of Robert Mugabe, and Gamel Abdel in his revolution in Egypt, and surrendered Radio Peking to the service of African nationalists.

The role of the Pan-Africanism movement. Pan-Africanism was a movement which opposed the oppression of all the Black people in the world. The movement was founded in America by the people of African origin and it held its first conference in Manchester in 1945. The conference was mostly attended by representatives of African **national and labour organisations, among whom were Jomo Kenyatta**

(Kenya), Kwame Nkrumah (Ghana), Kamuzu Banda (Malawi), Nnamdi Azikiwe (Nigeria), Peter Abrahams (South Africa) etc. Pan-Africanism also provided moral and material support to the nationalists. Moral support entailed the giving of ideas and advice on the strategies which had to be used by the Africans to eradicate colonialism. Materially Pan-Africanism gave funds to assist the leaders during the struggle for independence.

The returning ex-soldiers who participated in the war on the side of their colonial masters as porters and guards of army camps brought with them a new awareness since these soldiers had been exposed to Western democracy, freedom and liberation messages. Some veterans, such as Dedan Kimathi, who was later to become a leader of Mau-Mau in Kenya, and Jonathan Okwiriri, who became the president of the Young Kenyan Movement of the Kavirondo Gulf under the Mau-Mau, formed movements that directly opposed the colonialists.

The formation of the UNO, which replaced the League of Nations, where independent African states were allowed to participate as members. The UNO became an organisation of all nations. African and Asian nations, through the UNO, opposed the colonialists and demanded self-determination, unlike under the League of Nations where African colonies became mandatory colonies of European nations.

The Bandung Conference of 17 April 1955 where Asians

and Africans nations like South Africa, Ghana, Nigeria, Egypt and Libya met in Indonesia to discuss their problems, which included colonialism and economic development and where solidarity was emphasised. It was during this conference that NAM was formed in this conference.

The Marshall Plan, which was initiated by George Marshall, the Chief of Party of the USA, whereby he began giving loans to the war-ruined European nations on condition that they should decolonise African and Asian nations by granting independence to those nations.

The open-door policy of the USA, which introduced a policy of conducting business with independent African states. Thus it begun requesting colonialists to give independence to the African countries so that they could do business with the USA.

The rise of USA as a leading capitalist nation after World War Two. The USA became the chief supplier of war materials and the war did not affect her economy negatively. This resulted in her becoming a leading capitalist nation and she began to advocate the decolonisation of African nations. This was also a ploy to compensate herself for not colonising Africa through the establishment of neocolonialism through which she would acquire a market for her finished goods. This would constitute an area of lucrative investment for her international corporations.

The aftermath of Second World War for the colonialists, who incurred very heavy losses and could not continue with spending on the colonies, so they were forced to grant independence to some African states. On top of the above, however, some European powers adopted intensive exploitation to revamp their economies, which awakened many Africans to resist them.

TASK 2

- To what extent did the external factors contribute to the rise of African nationalism?
- How far did the UNO contribute to the rise of African nationalism?

Lesson Summary

A combination of internal and external factors enabled the rise of African nationalism in Africa. Although it was not easy for Africans to attain their independence, some countries achieved it through independent struggles and liberation wars. This was because most Europeans still wanted to control Africans. Nevertheless, the Africans later succeeded in attaining their independence and by 1994, all African countries had become independent.

Follow-Up Activity

- According to you, which of the above external factors largely contributed to the rise of African nationalism?
- How far did Cold War politics contribute to the rise of African nationalism?

HISTORY

Senior Six

Subject: History of Modern Europe

Topic: The Eastern Question

Sub-topic: The Crimean War of 1854 –1856

LESSON 1: Course of The Crimean War

By the end of this sub-topic, you should be able to identify the major events of the Crimean War of 1854-1856.

Materials You Need

Pen; book/papers; the Internet

Instructions

- This is self-study learning.
- You are required to read the instructions carefully.
- Attempt all tasks given to you in their order.
- If possible, consult an adult while doing an activity.

Introduction

Following advice from the British, the sultan of Turkey demanded that Russia withdraw her troops from the provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia that had been occupied in July 1853 (a demand which the latter refused to heed). This forced Turkey to declare war on Russia on 4 October 1853. Russia responded ruthlessly by sinking the Turkish fleet at Sinope in a disastrous encounter known as the Great Sinope Massacre.

THE COURSE OF THE CRIMEAN WAR

The Franco-Russian scramble for the holy places of Bethlehem and Jerusalem is one of the issues that made Russia occupy Turkey's semi-independent states of

Moldavia and Wallachia. Britain and France encouraged the sultan to give Russia an ultimatum to withdraw. At the same time, Turkey mobilised her troops; Britain and France protested the Russian occupation and sent their warships up to the Dardanelles, which violated the 1841 Straits Convention.

In spite of all these threats, Russia refused to withdraw from Moldavia and Wallachia. Omar Pasha, the commander of Turkey's army, declared war on Russia on 4 October 1853. Russia attacked and destroyed Turkey's fleet at Sinope (the Great Sinope Massacre). In March 1854, Britain and France sent their warships up to the Bosphorus in the Black Sea and ordered Russia to retreat from the Black Sea to their base at Sebastopol. However, Russia refused, which forced Britain and France to officially declare war on her on 21 March 1854, which began the armed conflict. In July, the representatives of Britain, France, Austria and Prussia met at Vienna and signed the Vienna Note, which was not wholly accepted by both Russia and Turkey, so the war continued.



Figure 2.1: British soldiers leaving for the Crimean war in 1854

In August, pressure forced the Russian troops to withdraw from Moldavia and Wallachia to their naval base at Sebastopol. This was so sudden and surprising that Britain and France, that had mobilised their resources and soldiers for a full-scale war, refused to consider it a victory. They, therefore, decided to attack and destroy the Russian naval base at Sebastopol.

This was absurd because the principal aim of the British and French was to force the Russian troops out of Moldavia and Wallachia. When Russia finally withdrew from the two provinces, there existed no excuse for the war except that of teaching the tsar a lesson. Hence the diversion of the war from the Balkans, where it made sense in relation to the Turkish Empire, to the Crimean Peninsula, where it made no sense at all. The diversion of the war meant that the war that was originally meant for the defence of the Turkish Empire was transformed into an act of aggression against Russia.

In September, the allied troops landed in the Crimean Peninsula. They also conducted naval operations in the Baltic Sea as Turkey and Russia fought in the Caucasus Sea. The allied troops were disorganised because they only had sketches and not actual maps of Sebastopol and Crimea. This affected the allied advance towards Sebastopol. After some time, they landed to the north of Sebastopol and defeated the Russian troops at River Alma.

The next move should have been on Sebastopol, which was not yet well fortified. But the allied commanders relaxed for three weeks, touring the city. This gave the Russians an opportunity to reorganise their army, re-arm themselves and fortify their naval base. When the allies started bombarding Sebastopol, it was much stronger

than when they had first come. It is this laxity that made the Russians sustain the war for three years.



Figure 2.2: Crimean War, 25 October 1854

The allies were affected by a poor transport and communication network. It was very difficult to transport artillery, which took up to three weeks to reach Sebastopol. The artillery was even so inefficient that its bombs were falling outside Sebastopol. Besides, the allied as well as Russian commanders lacked co-ordination and were suspicious of each other. The worst hazard was winter, for which the allied troops were not prepared. Winter affected transport and communication. Poor sanitation, a deficient diet, lack of medication, extreme cold and cholera killed both soldiers as well as horses.

Combat operations began in November 1854 when the allies defeated Russia at the disastrous battle of Inkerman. The subsequent military campaigns were fruitless on account of winter and poor medical care. There were very few dressing stations, yet there were heavy casualties. The wounded and sick soldiers were transported for three weeks across the Black Sea to the nearest hospital at Scutari. The hospital lacked basic equipment like beds, blankets, basins, towels, soap, brooms, scissors, bandages and drugs. Medical supplies were either embezzled from Turkish customs houses or delayed by departmental regulations.

The above desperate conditions and sufferings at Scutari attracted the sympathy and intervention of an English woman known as Florence Nightingale. She, together with some volunteer nurses, mobilised money from friends in England and came to Scutari, where they were greeted by loud cries from the neglected, wounded and sick soldiers. She succeeded in treating the soldiers, reorganising the nursing laundry, sanitary conditions and clothing, and providing food to the soldiers.

By June 1855, Florence Nightingale and her volunteer nurses had reduced the death rate from 44% to 2%. This earned Florence credit for her humanitarianism and the reputation of a saint. In 1855, the allied troops were re-organised and Sebastopol was finally conquered in September 1855, which marked the allied victory over Russia in the Crimean War.



Figure 2.3: Florence Nightingale

However, the Russians did not surrender until after the death of Tsar Nicholas I and the rise of the liberal Alexander II, who had no personal problem with Napoleon III. In Britain, Lord Aberdeen was replaced by Palmerstone (1855-58), who was ready to negotiate for peace. At the

same time, Austria issued an ultimatum based on the "allies' minimum terms" to Russia, which meant that Austria could join the war if she (Russia) refused to comply. All these factors forced Russia to surrender and denounce war. The final peace conference was held in Paris in 1856 under the chairmanship of Napoleon III.

The Crimean War was characterised by festivities and adventurism. In spite of the war, many tourists still flocked to Crimea as if there was no war. Some army officers even went with their wives and girlfriends to the battlefield. The Russians turned the war into free cinema and holidaymaking. This means that the Crimean War was a war of insanity and absurdity that was fought without clear objectives and principles.

Lastly, the Crimean War was marked by unexpected support from Piedmont. Cavour sent the Piedmont troops in 1855 to help the allies and gain a seat in the post-war settlement effort to champion the Italian unification struggle. The Piedmont troops were instrumental in the final bombardment and surrender of Sebastopol that brought the war to an end.



Map 6.1: Battle sites of the Crimean War

TASK

From the above extract, describe the events of the Crimean War of 1854 – 1856.

Lesson Summary

The Crimean War was aimed at forcing Russia to withdraw from the Turkish territories of Moldavia and Wallachia. By the end of this war, Russia had been defeated although all parties to this war suffered casualties and lost a considerable number of soldiers.

Follow-Up Activity

In a table, indicate the major events of the Crimean War and their timeline.

LESSON 2: Effects of The Crimean War

By the end of this sub-topic, you should be able to assess the effects of the Crimean War of 1854 – 1856.

Materials You Need:

Pen; book/papers; Internet

Instructions

1. This is self-study learning.
2. You are required to read the instructions carefully.
3. Attempt all tasks given to you in their order.
4. If possible, consult an adult while doing an activity or use Google/the Internet.

Introduction

The Crimean War had profound effects on the participants and Europe as a whole. These were political, social and economic in nature. They were positive and negative but largely negative.

The Outcome of the Crimean War

On 30 March 1856, the Crimean War was formally brought to an end with the signing of the Treaty of Paris. The Crimean War was finally concluded with the signing of the **Paris Peace Treaty** between the allied powers and defeated Russia. This was at the end of the Paris International Congress which was presided over by Emperor Napoleon III. This war registered both negative and positive effects in political, social and economic spheres, as analysed below.



Figure 2.4: The 1856 Paris Congress

Russia was defeated and humiliated during the Crimean War. She lost not only soldiers but even territories, which reduced her imperial reach in the Balkan Peninsula. For example, she lost Bessarabia, which was given to Moldavia. Moldavia was then also combined with Wallachia to form a buffer zone between Russia and Turkey. Russia was also forced to stop making claims of protecting all the Christians in Balkans. This was a serious humiliation and embarrassment to Russia.

The war led to the rise of Balkan nationalism. It should be noted that the Paris Peace Treaty of 1856 that ended the war gave independence to the nationals of Moldavia, Serbia and Wallachia. This inspired and influenced other small nationalities to revolt against Turkey for their independence. This led to the Syrian Christian massacre of 1875, the 1876 Bulgarian massacres and the 1877-1878 Russo-Turkish War.

The adoption of the regulation of maritime warfare.

The contrabands of war were defined and privateers were abolished by the European powers. Powers like France, Britain, Austria, Hungary, Russia, Prussia and the Ottoman Empire recognised that they would not seize enemy goods on neutral vessels nor neutral goods on enemy vessels and strongly prohibited profiteering in goods.

The Crimean War led to a great loss of lives. During the war, Russia, the chief aggressor, lost over **300,000** lives, Britain, the chief engineer and contractor of war, lost about **60,000** lives and France, the chief exploiter lost nearly **100,000** troops. In general, the Crimean War cost about **600,000** lives, including Piedmonts and the Otto-Turks and the British. Some people died of wounds on the battlefields and others from diseases like cholera, and yet others from the winter cold, among others.

There was destruction of property during the Crimean War of 1854-1856. The properties destroyed included fleets which were sunk, estates, towns, roads, homesteads, bridges, buildings and ports like Sebastopol. For example, the Turkish warship at Sinope was sunk and Russian military bases were destroyed. This confirms the fact that the Crimean War was a wasteful and useless war fought in 19th century.

The war ended the Holy Alliance of 1815. Russia was annoyed by Austria's failure to assist her, choosing instead to remain neutral in the war, yet Russia had assisted Austria in suppressing the Hungarian Revolution in 1848. Austria's neutrality in the war worsened Austro-Russian relations and led to Austria's increasing isolation in Europe, hence nobody helped her during the Italian and German unification wars.

The war facilitated the Italian and German unification. It has to be remembered that during this war Austria, which was in charge of Italian states, did not participate. This left her isolated, with no genuine friend in Europe. Even Russia, which had helped her much in suppressing revolts in Vienna, felt let down because Austria did not bother to come to her rescue. On the other hand, Piedmont attended the international conference of 1856 in Paris in which Camillo de' Benso Cavour got the opportunity to table the Italian question of unification. He lat-

er received moral and military support from Britain and France. For example, in the Treaty of **Prombiers**, Napoleon pledged to aid the Italians, hence France liberated Lombardy from the Austrians in 1859.

The birth of the international humanitarian Red Cross Society and military nursing in 1861. During the war, a group of volunteers led by a British nurse called **Florence Nightingale** indiscriminately rescued wounded soldiers. She offered extraordinary care to the victims of the war in a hospital in **Scutari** and her humanitarian role reduced the death rate of over 44% to 2%. This aroused humanitarianism among the people in Europe and resulted in the formation of the **Red Cross Society by Florence Nightingale in 1861**. Thus, credit goes to Florence for the job she did to help the victims of the useless and wasteful Crimean War.



Figure 2.6: Florence Nightingale at work

The Crimean War increased the popularity and prestige of Napoleon III as well as glory for France at the international level. Napoleon III succeeded in influencing other European statesmen to hold an international conference at Paris, the capital of France. Paris became the centre of European diplomacy, and from 1856-66, Napoleon III became the 'arbiter of Europe, and, at home in France, won military glory, especially among the Bonapartists, liberals and ambitious glory seekers. This helped him for some time to consolidate his rule.

The war resulted in some territorial readjustments. The **great fortress of Kar** was given to Turkey, and the principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia were granted complete independence from Turkey. The province of Bessarabia was taken away from Russia and given to Moldavia. However, Napoleon III led European statesmen to understand that this was a big step towards the disintegration of the Ottoman Empire which they had been trying to preserve all along and this compelled some states to revolt in future, for instance **Bulgaria in 1878**.

The integrity of the Ottoman Empire was maintained by the European statesmen. This is because Russia's expansionist policies were temporarily checked. The independence of Turkey was confirmed with the signing of the 1856 Paris Treaty which concluded the Crimean War. Powers were forbidden from interfering in the affairs of the Empire and Turkey was allowed officially to join the concert of Europe.

The war led to the signing of the Paris Peace Treaty of 1856. This reduced Russia's influence in the Balkans. Its military bases in the Black Sea were destroyed, and the Straits of the Dardanelles were declared closed to any warships in times of peace. However, the Black Sea clauses were violated by Russia in 1870 during the Franco-Prussian war while France was busy fighting Prussia.

The Paris Peace Treaty, which brought the war to an end, revised the 1841 Strait Convention. Europe's big powers agreed that the Black Sea could be plied by all commercial ships from all powers but disallowed access to it by any war fleet. Free navigation was allowed on big waters like the Mediterranean Sea, the Black Sea and River Danube. This was done to promote international trade links. However, this practice did not last long because of the advent of the Industrial Revolution, which forced many nations to pursue the policy of protectionism in the interests of their home industries.

The war influenced reforms in Russia after her defeat. The war revealed the economic and military weakness of Russia and compelled Tsar Alexander II, who had risen to power in 1855, to resort to full-scale rearmament, the emancipation of the serfs (i.e. abolished feudalism in

1861), liberalisation of the press, limiting the authority of the secret police, local government reforms that created **Zemstvos** in charge of provincial matters like schools and health care, and military and education reforms in Russia.

The war forced the sultan of Turkey to promise fair treatment of the Christians in the Ottoman Empire. The sultan proclaimed religious equality throughout the empire, and abolished bribery and overtaxing of Christians which, to a smaller extent, seemed to answer the Eastern Question. However, by 1876, the sultan had already forgotten the verbal promise he had made and began to discriminate against the Christians, which led to the calling of the Berlin Congress of 1878.

The Crimean War led to new innovations. For the first time in history, during the Crimean War of 1854-56 the powers involved used better military tactics and modern hardware like steam warships. This was copied by European powers and used during the First and Second World Wars of 1914-18 and 1939-45 respectively. They did this purposely to bring the powers in the opposite camps to their knees.

The Crimean War led to economic decline in Russia. Russia lost many people and spent a lot of funds on armaments, medical care and food during the war. Besides, Russian industries and other economic enterprise and activities declined, leading to unemployment, inflation and general economic collapse.

Britain and France learnt the lesson that they still had much to organise in their leadership and military sectors. This was due to the fact that they registered great losses during the Crimean War. More important still, they did not quickly overrun Russia as they had thought they would; thus they later on invested a great deal in the war industry in preparation for any possible future big war.

The war led to the involvement of the press in modern warfare. War correspondents and photographers for the first time brought home, especially in Britain, the horrors of war. Media pressure related to the conduct of the war compelled the British premier, Lord Aberdeen, to resign, and he was replaced by Viscount Palmerstone.

The war led to a change of leadership in Britain in 1855. Lord Aberdeen, the premier of Britain at the time of the war, did not show much interest in it and was thus replaced by Viscount Palmerstone, who was an influential anti-Russian figure of the time interested in continuing the war against Russia.

The war ended the 40 years of peace initiated by the Vienna Congress and shattered the European order designed by Metternich in 1815 to mediate conflicts between great powers of Europe. In 1854, the major powers of Europe were at war with each other, i.e. Russia on one side against Britain, France, Turkey and later Piedmont on the island of Crimea on the Black Sea. This opened the door to confrontation between the great powers and paved the way for the outbreak of World War 1.

The war led to the independence of Serbia. After the war, Serbia was given full independence, mainly because Britain and France never wanted Russia to interfere in the internal affairs of the Turkish Empire on the pretext of protecting the Orthodox Serbs.

The war gave rise to the independent state of Rumania. After the war Russia was forced out of Moldavia and Wallachia. These two territories were enlarged by adding to them the southern part of Bessarabia, which was taken from Russia and then given independence as the state of Rumania.

TASK

From the above extract categorise the effects of the Crimean War of 1854 –1856.

Lesson Summary

This formal treaty signed at the Congress of Paris came after Russia accepted a humiliating defeat against the alliance of Britain, France, the Ottoman Empire and Sardinia. The treaty itself would address Russian expansionism, quashing dreams of a Russian empire that was equal to

none, whilst at the same time confirming the importance of the Ottoman Empire in maintaining a very tentative balance of power in Europe.

Follow-Up Activity

- According to you, who is to blame for the outbreak of this war? Support your answer.
- Account for the defeat of Russia in the Crimean War of 1854 – 1856.

Subject: National Movements and New States

Topic: The African Revolutions

Sub-Topic: White South Afrikaner Nationalism

LESSON ONE: Background of South Afrikaner Nationalism

By the end of this sub-topic, you should be able to explain the background of South Afrikaner nationalism.

Materials You Need:

Pen; book/paper; the Internet

Instructions

- This is self-study learning.
- You are required to read the instructions carefully.
- Attempt all tasks given to you in their order.
- If possible, consult an adult while doing an activity or use Google/the Internet.

Introduction

Originally, South Africa was purely Black man's country. However, it was later infiltrated by Whites, e.g. the Dutch from Holland (from 1652 onwards) and the British (from 1795 onwards). After the discovery of diamonds in 1867 and gold in 1866, more foreigners from Europe, Asia and America poured into South Africa to hunt for a fortune.

Conflicts soon arose between the British and Boers (Afrikaners) to determine who would be the future master of South Africa. In 1910, the British and Dutch signed the Act of Union by which a joint European government was established in South Africa. It clearly excluded the Blacks and became the basis of the future apartheid policy in South Africa. This stimulated the rise of nationalism in South Africa.

STEP II

BACKGROUND OF APARTHEID IN SOUTH AFRICA



Figure 4.1: Daniel François Malan, 1948–1954

The National Party passed a string of legislation that became known as petty apartheid. The first of these was the Prohibition of Mixed Marriages Act. The master-race arrogance of the Boers in South Africa made apartheid inevitable. The Boers believed that they were a superior race

and could not mix with the Blacks. The Whites reasoned that in order to maintain the master race, Africans could not even be enfranchised.

The desire for a cheap labour source laid the foundation for apartheid. The Whites had established plantations, opened up mines and set up industries and all these needed cheap labour supply to make profits. This created a platform to dominate the Blacks and to racially discriminate against them as they were considered inferior. The influence of the Dutch Reformed Church also made apartheid inevitable. This church was dominated by the Whites, who argued that God created the Whites first and the Blacks later. This meant that the two races were not equal. The Whites had a divine right to dominate the Blacks, hence launched the apartheid policy.

The need to prevent the spread of British liberalism. The British occupation of South Africa led to numerous reforms, such as extending the franchise to the Blacks, Coloureds and Asians, liberalising the economy and allowing all races to enjoy all the services like education and health. This was hated by the Boers, so when they came to power in 1948, they adopted a racist policy to check British liberalism.

The economic blessings of South Africa prompted the launch of apartheid. The Whites wanted to exploit the resources, e.g. deposits of minerals like copper, and gold at Kimberley and Johannesburg. The Whites wanted to exclude Africans from having access to these resources, making apartheid inevitable.

The need to maintain the purity of the Whites led to the adoption of apartheid. This was reflected in the prohibition of marriages between Whites and non-Whites courtesy of the Mixed Marriage Act, and the Native Resettlement Act of 1954 that sent Africans away from Johannesburg to Soweto, which had poor facilities was established as a reserve for Africans.

The need to find a solution to the possible future racial conflicts led to apartheid. The Whites launched apartheid as a means to safeguard themselves against possible clashes between the races. The Whites had learnt a lesson from their defeat by the Zulu during the wars with Shaka and wanted to avoid a recurrence of such a humiliating experience. Apartheid was adopted as a protective measure to become militarily, financially and politically strong.

The impact of communism, which had succeeded in Russia and spread in Europe, was a major factor for the institution of apartheid. The majority Blacks and the poor Whites in South Africa became disgruntled, hated the rich class in South Africa and felt that the country deserved to have a classless society. This situation made the White leaders introduce a racist policy to counter the views and plans of the disgruntled groups.

The white misinterpretation of justice laid a foundation for apartheid in South Africa. The Whites were the custodians of justice and discharged it against the non-Whites. Justice was reserved only for the White race that was civilised and therefore deserved to continue living. The Blacks were to be detained without trial as the laws did not favour them.

TASK

Account for the adoption of the apartheid policy in South Africa.

Lesson Summary

Apartheid basically means segregation and it is related to a political system. From 1948 up until 1994, the Republic of South Africa was dominated by apartheid. Apartheid in South Africa was based on segregation and racial dis-

crimination. The apartheid system can be traced back to the start of the 20th century. Every policy was informed by the desire for racial separation. Under the apartheid system, White people were dominant. They enjoyed massive privileges while the Black people were deprived of all privileges or rights.

Follow-Up Activity

Discuss the effects of apartheid in South Africa.

LESSON 2: Factors for the Delayed Independence of South Africa

By the end of this sub-topic, you should be able to:

- i) discuss the obstacles to South Africa’s independence between 1931-1994
- ii) examine the impact of apartheid on the people of South Africa.

Materials You Need

Pen; book/paper; and the Internet

Instructions

- 1. This is self-study learning.
- 2. You are required to read the instructions carefully.
- 3. Attempt all tasks given to you in their order.
- 4. If possible, consult an adult while doing an activity or use Google/the internet.

Introduction

Apartheid was a situation in which the National Party of South Africa passed legislation barring Black people from voting. The National Party introduced apartheid as part of its campaign in the 1948 elections. With the National Party victory, apartheid became the governing political policy for South Africa until the early 1990s. The Prime Minister of Native Affairs, Dr H. F. Verwoerd, claimed that apartheid was built on a long history of racial segregation and discriminatory laws intended to ensure white supremacy.

Read the text below.

Obstacles to South Africa’s independence

The obstacles to South Africa’s independence/the reasons for the survival of the apartheid regime are the same as the challenges or problems faced by Africans in the fight against racist regimes. They include the enactment of a body of racist oppressive laws that weakened Africans. These laws included the marriage laws that prohibited races from mixing. They also included the Communist Act that permitted the imprisonment of Africans for over 10 years, and religious Acts that prohibited Africans from attending church services with Whites. All these blocked the interaction between the races, thus delaying independence.



Figure 6.2: The application of apartheid

The disunity and infighting among the Africans prolonged the life of the apartheid regime. This was very evident in the political parties that were established, e.g. the African National Congress (ANC), formed in 1912, and Pan African Congress (PAC), which broke away from the ANC and was led by Robert Mangaliso Sobukwe, and the Zulu Inkatha Party, which promoted the interests of the Zulu. Also, some leaders collaborated with the White regime, creating a situation that was exploited by the Whites.

The military strength of the apartheid regime undermined African independence. The Whites had a well-trained army that was well equipped with modern weapons to suppress the ill-trained Blacks who were not well-equipped and disorganised on the basis of party politics. This helped apartheid survive for a long time.

The arrest and detention of anti-apartheid personalities prolonged the life of the apartheid regime. The Whites arrested the Black nationalists like Steve Biko, who even died in police custody. Nelson Mandela was imprisoned for 27 years for staging demonstrations and strikes. Oliver Tambo was forcefully exiled yet he was the chairperson of ANC. This created shaky ground for nationalistic activities.

The ban on anti-apartheid political parties was also an obstacle for Africans. The 1960 Sharpeville demonstrations provoked the Whites into acting with absolute ruthlessness, and then they proceeded to ban the activities of ANC and PAC, and to declare curfews and a state of emergency in South Africa. The restriction of political activities limited interaction among the Blacks, thus delaying independence.

Africans were disenfranchised in South Africa and this accounts for the survival of apartheid. The proponents of the racist regime, such as Strijdom and Verwoerd, denied the Africans voting rights and so the Africans could not get leaders to represent their voices, thus limiting opportunities for democracy until 1994.

The influence of Cold War politics on the continent helped to prolong apartheid. South Africa became a hub of superpower of USA with their ideologies of capitalism. The capitalist countries aided the apartheid regime and the black Africans got connected to the communist countries. This affected the decolonisation process of South Africa until 1994.

The presence of the multinational companies in South Africa created fertile ground for the survival of apartheid. Various British and American companies had invested in South Africa, e.g. Barclays Bank, Ford Motors, Coca Cola International and Shell. These companies supported the racist regime to guarantee their continued profitability.

The delayed independence of South Africa’s neighbours weakened the strategy for independence. These were countries like Namibia, to which apartheid had been extended, the Portuguese colonies of Angola and Mozambique, which got their independence in 1975, Zimbabwe, which became independent in 1980 after being suppressed for some time by the UDI government. Also, the independent states had post-independence problems like civil wars, hence delaying the independence of South Africa up to 1994.

The establishments of the triumvirate alliance made apartheid survive up to 1994. The alliance was a composition of rigid dictators like Ian Smith, Hendrik Verwoerd and Don Salazar. It was offensive and militaristic in approach and extended the necessary support to each other if confronted by Africans. This hindered the Africans from attaining self-rule before 1994.

The creation of the Bantustans also worked against Africans. These were homelands aimed at disuniting and disconnecting Africans. These included Transkei. The blacks living in the homelands treated each other as enemies and the living conditions there were far from good. The

Blacks were isolated and could not engage in active politics, and hence apartheid was prolonged.

The role of the spy network of the Whites undermined the cause of African independence. There existed the Bureau of State Security (BOSS) and the Parliamentary Internal Security Commission (PISCO). Activities planned by Africans were thwarted before the masses could actually get involved due to prior knowledge of the plans by the security organs.

The assassination of the African leaders made apartheid survive up to 1994. The Blacks who raised their voices to demand Black majority rule were punished. For example, Steve Biko was killed in police custody in 1977 as a result of the Soweto uprising, while Chris Hans was killed 1993. This kept the level of political activism low until 1994.

The détente policy introduced by Prime Minister Verwoerd discouraged the Africans. This policy was adopted after 1961 when South Africa had been expelled from the Commonwealth. South Africa formed an alliance with some countries, such as Israel, to acquire military weapons, e.g. jet fighters, to suppress the Blacks.

The collaboration between some African countries and the racist regime strengthened apartheid. Countries like Malawi under Kamuzu Banda worked with the apartheid regime and became a trade partner, and this undermined the spirit of Pan-Africanism.

The non-violent methods used by Africans in the early stages of their struggle strengthened apartheid. Africans employed the Ghandist strategy that promoted peaceful demonstrations and strikes against the ruthless Whites, who used the police to retaliate. Violent strategies were adopted late by the ANC and PAC through the formation of UMKHONTO WE SIZWE (Spear of the Nation) and POQO.

The grinding poverty among Africans was a major obstacle. Africans were restricted to manual labour in the mines and paid on meagre wages, and not allowed to form trade unions to advocate the welfare of workers. Land belonging to Africans had been grabbed for plantation agriculture and the Whites became economically strong, hence ensuring the survival of apartheid.

The existence of conservative leaders in South Africa made the survival of apartheid inevitable. These included Dr Daniel Malan, Verwoerd and P.W. Botha. These suppressed the Black activities without mercy, hence delaying the advent of Black majority rule.

The poor education given to the Blacks in South Africa undermined the country's independence. The Blacks were meant to attend inferior schools and this made them less competitive against the Whites. Also, the education curriculum had very difficult subjects, leading to a high failure rate, and teaching was conducted in foreign languages, which negatively affected the Blacks.

The weaknesses of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU). This body was formed with the cardinal aim of decolonising the continent, but it failed to compel the apartheid regime to rescind its repressive policies. The OAU was financially too weak to support the ANC and PAC, and some OAU member countries like Angola and Mozambique got internal problems after independence, hence leaving the Blacks helpless.

The double standards of the UNO also consolidated the apartheid regime. The UNO members were supposed to impose hard and strict sanctions on the racist regime in South Africa. Instead, UNO members like Britain and the USA imposed half-hearted sanctions owing to the motives they harboured as investors. Therefore, the Africans were not helped to set up a Black government **owing to the double standards of the UNO.**

TASK

Account for the delay in the attainment of Black majority rule in South Africa up to 1994.

Lesson Summary

Apartheid describes the rigid racial division imposed by the governing white minority on the Black (African, Coloured and Indian) population in South Africa. An agreement was reached in November 1993 pledging an end to apartheid, and South Africa held its first non-racial elections in 1994. Apartheid was much criticised and vilified internationally and many countries imposed economic sanctions on South Africa because of it. Despite the end of legal apartheid, the vast social, economic, and political inequalities that were created between White and Black South Africans still exist.

Follow-Up Activity

To what extent were the internal factors responsible for the delayed attainment of the black majority rule in South Africa?

SUBJECT: HISTORY OF AFRICA

Class: Senior 6 Term 1

Topic: Colonial Administration

LESSON 1: Colonial Administrative Policies

By the end of the lesson, you should be able to:

- i) discuss the main features of British indirect rule.
- ii) explain the weaknesses and failures of indirect rule.

Materials You Need:

Pens; pencils; paper/notebooks; the Internet; textbooks

Instructions

1. This is a self-study lesson.
2. Follow the instructions carefully.
3. Attempt all tasks given (in your notebook).
4. You can make reference to/research from your books.
5. If possible, consult an adult at home while doing an activity.
6. You will present this work to your teacher when school resumes.

Introduction

Simply put, indirect rule refers to the system of administration under which traditional rulers were allowed to rule their people under the supervision of British officials. Under this system, the traditional existing socio-political structures were to be preserved and adopted under the direction of the local government administration of British colonial rule.

Main features of indirect rule

At the top of the British administration was the Secretary for all colonies based in London. He was in charge of colonial affairs and was answerable to the British Parliament.

Below the Colonial Secretary, there were Governors heading the colonial administration in every colony. In Uganda, Entebbe was the headquarters. These were all Whites and were answerable to the Colonial Secretary.

Below the Governor, there were the Provincial Commissioners heading every province. These were answerable to the Governor.

Below them, there were District Commissioners heading every district. These took orders from Provincial Commissioners and worked under their close supervision.

The districts were further divided into counties, each under a county chief. This was an African and took orders and policies from the district officials.

Counties were subdivided into sub-counties under sub-county chiefs. These were also Africans and were answerable to the county chief.

Sub-counties were divided into parishes under parish chiefs. These were answerable to sub-county chiefs.

The parishes were further subdivided into sub-parishes under sub-parish chiefs and these took orders from parish chiefs.

Below the sub-parish chiefs were village headmen heading every village. These received orders from sub-parish chiefs and would pass them on to the common man.

All these chiefs, i.e. from the village headmen to the Governor, formed a chain of command.

Indirect rule worked at the local level from the district down to the village. All these positions were reserved for Africans. Top positions (central level) were reserved for British officials.

TASK 1

Describe the structure of the British system of indirect rule in Uganda.

Read the extract below.

Success and failures of indirect rule

The system created efficient and effective administration by employing local leaders at lower levels who commanded respect and loyalty among the people. Because of language advantage, the natives created a conducive atmosphere for efficient administration.

Law and order was maintained in the colonial administration. The use of African leaders as functionaries in the indirect rule system absorbed the would-be violence against colonial rule. For example, in Nigeria the emirs continued to administer justice through the emirate courts of law, including flogging, imposing fines or imprisonment, but the British officials would regulate the operations of courts.

The costs of administration were minimised. This was done by employing Africans at lower administrative levels, which was cheaper compared to the cost of employing White men in Africa. The taxation system also relieved the metropolitan British of the administrative costs of colonies.

The African chiefs acted as shock absorbers in the implementation of exploitative colonial policies such as forced labour, taxation and cash crop growing, among others. They thus served as a buffer between the White men and African hostility.

It minimised African resistances and violence against the white man. This was because, African chiefs acted shock absorbers.

Language barrier problem was solved. The white man would have found it hard to communicate to the natives. But through rule system, local leaders easily carried out colonial administration.

Indirect rule solved the manpower problem. Many Africans were employed at local government levels. This made it unnecessary to employ White men, which would have been expensive.

Local African agents/collaborators were used to extend British colonial rule from Northern Nigeria to the rest of the country. These agents were known as the warrant chiefs. They were unpopular in the provinces under their jurisdiction but they played a significant role in extending British rule to the areas.

Failures of indirect rule

Disrespect for the traditional African leaders. One of the major interests of the colonial power was to maintain the existing traditional institutions. Like in Northern Nigeria, Lugard deposed some uncooperative emirs and caliphs and substituted them with his appointees.

Africans were conditioned to serve without the willingness to serve. The loss of Nigerian independence to the British meant that all the existing local leaders had to be coopted into the British system of indirect rule. The use of force was considered inapplicable in the indirect rule system, hence its failure.

Indirect rule was applied only at the local government level. The top managerial officials like the Colonial Governor, Provincial and District Commissioners were all White men because of the fat wages they earned, their status, colonial responsibility and security. Thus, this conformed to the direct rule system rather than indirect rule, hence was a failure.

Indirect rule undermined the establishment of the Islamic code of conduct in Northern Nigeria. For instance, in 1914 the Native Court Ordinance stripped the Sultan of Sokoto Caliphate of his judicial powers. This was certainly not

meant to preserve the existing local institutions.

Indirect rule failed to work in segmentary societies, for example among the Ibo. The position of 'warrant chief' was artificial in these societies, and the chiefs were therefore rejected.

The system isolated the elite Africans in the colonial administration and yet it purported to be training Africans to manage their own affairs.

In some areas of Nigeria, the British used the Frontier Police to implement the indirect rule system. This was testimony that it was a failure.

There was the creation of divisionism and the destruction of unity among the West Africans. For example, the powers of the caliphs were increased at the expense of the emirs. This was meant to appease the caliphs so that they could work harder to the detriment of the emirs.

The Sokoto caliphate system of administration which was extended from Northern Nigeria to other parts of Nigeria was more of direct rule than indirect rule, hence a failure. Most warrant chiefs in these areas were brutal, ruthless and cruel to the Africans.

Most Africans were not fully loyal and submissive to British colonial rule, which was the underlying assumption of the indirect rule system. There was resistance to British policies that promoted exploitation, which called for the intervention of the British Frontier Police.

The culture of Nigerians was not preserved as, for exam-

ple, the English language, Protestant religion, Western dressing styles, monogamous marriages and the use of European names at baptism were introduced or imposed. This reflected the lack of preservation of existing African traditional institutions.

The British carried out land alienation; land was not left under traditional Nigerian control. Fertile and mineralised plots of land were all taken away from Africans. The British administrators, therefore, diverted from their primary objective of preserving African traditional institutions, hence a failure.

The African chiefs employed under the indirect rule system were not trained in how to handle British policies. This caused poor coordination sometimes, hence a failure.

TASK 2

Assess the success of the British system of indirect rule in Nigeria by 1914.

Lesson Summary

Despite the above successes of the British policy of indirect rule, it was largely a failure in Northern Nigeria since it did not live up to its assumptions and objectives.

Follow-Up Activity

How successful was indirect rule in Uganda by 1914?

General Paper

Essay questions

- (1) Assess the role and impact of mass Media in the fight against COVID 19.
- (2) "Although Media is playing an important role in the COVID-19 response, it still poses challenges to the industry". Discuss
- (3) Discuss the economic effects of COVID-19 around the world
- (4) To what extent is the global impact of COVID 19 attributed to human error?
- (5) Discuss the factors that have inhibited positive behavioral change in the fight against COVID 19 pandemic.
- (6) Discuss the Important lessons that you have learnt from COVID 19 pandemic.
- (7) Assess the effectiveness of government intervention to combat COVID 19 in Uganda
- (8) To what extent is the Government of Uganda prepared to handle calamities like landslides, COVID 19, and the recent invasion of Locusts?

Read the following articles from 'The monitor Newspaper' Uganda and respond to the question that follows.

Community strategies to deal with Covid-19

By Prof. Francis Omaswa

Gentlemen, it is the microbes who will have the last word."

This quotation is attributed to the French microbiologist Louis Pasteur. How soon this will happen depends on how we humans recognise and seriously respond to this threat from microbes – the viruses and bacteria.

The Covid-19 pandemic presents yet another challenge and opportunity following Ebola, SARS, and MERS. It is also a loud call for the world to relearn and hopefully to remember once again that infectious diseases are a grossly neglected dimension of global security. In 2016, I was a member of an independent Commission on a Global Health Risk Framework for the Future that published a report titled, 'The Neglected Dimension of Global Security: A Framework to Counter Infectious Disease Crises'. This Commission recommended three strategies namely; strengthening public health as the foundation of the health system and first line of defense, Strengthening global and regional coordination and capabilities as well as accelerating (Research and Development) R&D to counter the threat of infectious diseases.

African governments have so far responded by raising awareness and restricting entry of the virus from other countries with screening at airports and total closure of borders. They have also imposed restrictions on the movement of people inside the countries. However, travel and movement restrictions are time-bound measures and not permanent solutions.

Today, Covid-19 has already been reported in 46 African countries and the next critical and strategic level of preparedness and response is to empower populations to stop transmission of the virus within the communities. This can be achieved by institutionalisation of Integrated People-Centered Primary Healthcare that will become the foundation of the health system and the first line of defense even after this pandemic has gone.

On March 25, the Director General of WHO, Dr Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus recommended six key actions to attack and suppress the virus and all of them were

about strengthening the public health system, which significantly included a multi-sector action. Controlling this epidemic, is first about prevention of transmission, early detection, contact tracing, isolation, treatment of new infections, and safe handling of body fluids and the remains of those who die. These things can only happen through closely inclusive collaborative work, that involves all individuals and households, in society; "A Whole of Society Approach".

The Guiding principle is that good health starts with, and is created by individuals, their families and the communities, and is supported, where necessary by skills, knowledge and technology of the professionals. It is empowered individuals who have the primary responsibility for maintaining their own health and that of their communities. Government steps in to provide the overall enabling environment and resources beyond the capacity of communities.

It is, therefore, essential to build and sustain community trust for the public health system, where individuals participate actively as both a duty and a right in the prevention and control of outbreaks using existing structures, systems and resources as much as possible. This should be led and overseen by trusted local formal and informal community leaders. These leaders exist in all communities and go by different names such as political leaders, chiefs, and technical officials, cultural and religious leaders.

These community structures and systems should be activated in all countries so that the routine governance of society integrates Covid-19 control measures into its routine activities. This should become the foundation of Community Health Systems for Integrated People-Centered Primary Healthcare that will prevent entry of

the virus into the community as well as enable prompt identification, isolation, testing and treatment when necessary.

Examples of practical activities by rural communities may include sharing correct locally understood information and ensuring that measures announced by the government are followed, that communal water sources are protected and water is available equitably using effective ways of hand washing that hygienic practices take place in households, those who fall ill are isolated and reported and social support is provided to affected families. Communities will be in charge of their destiny as the first line of defense against epidemics and take care of their health within Integrated People Centered Primary Health Care that “leaves no one behind”.

The challenge and opportunity presented by Covid–19 should be used to activate and institutionalise this approach so that after the current crisis, it becomes the routine component of the public health system that puts priority on health promotion and disease prevention. Indeed the Whole of Society Approach goes beyond outbreak control and can also ensure that mothers attend antenatal clinics, children are immunised, the nearest health facility has required personnel and supplies, the referral system is in place, the correct food crops are grown and stored properly, all children are going to school, the rural road network is maintained, the water sources are safe and law and order is enforced, etc.

This Whole of Society Approach can be rolled out immediately and quickly in most countries once the African leaders call for them and assign roles in the same way that they have demonstrated unparalleled leadership by taking charge and issuing various directives on Covid -19 control across the continent

https://www.newvision.co.ug/new_vision/news/1517172/community-strategies-deal-covid-19

UK-based Ugandan nurse who survived Covid-19 narrates ordeal By TOM MALABA

A UK based Ugandan nurse who survived the deadly coronavirus in London has cautioned Ugandans against panicking. She also urged Ugandans to equip themselves with functional information about the pandemic that has so far killed more than 40,000 people worldwide and infected more than 800,000 others. Narrating her two- week- ordeal on phone, the young lady who requested not to be named because she is not supposed to speak to the media but works at a high-end hospital in South East London, said she caught the virus from a patient at the hospital.

“We had been receiving many such cases with high temperatures and we were attending to them like any other patient without protection. So on March 14, I was sent to work in the wing where there was this patient with high temperature, at one time he stood up to go to the toilet, he stumbled and I grabbed him,” she narrated what happened before she caught the deadly coronavirus. The former journalist now turned nurse said, after the incident, on March 17, she started presenting with high temperatures. Sometimes her temperatures would go up to 39.8 degrees but didn’t know what the problem was. She suspects she infected other people in the process.

“When I told my bosses, I was told to quarantine myself. So whenever the temperatures would rise I would use paracetamol to control the temperature. The amount of paracetamol I have swallowed in the ten days, is more than what I have used in the last seven years,” she said.

Though she had high fever, she was breathing normally even at night. She said, people with breathing problems that are the most affected because they will need oxygen.

She has advised Ugandans to stop panicking and join the fight against the pandemic. She has asked people to stay at home as much as possible, wash hands with soap or sanitizer and avoid crowds. She said knowledge is the most important part of fighting the virus. She said every home should limit the people going out for shopping. “If anybody returns to the house either from work, they should not make contact with people at home before bathing. Let them remove any protective gear and even the clothes and bathe. Even the bag find, a place you can hang it, the virus can even cling on clothes, bags and even hair,” she said.

Anybody who feels doing all that is a tall order should not leave the house. She said other than being swallowed up with fear, Ugandans should follow the advise of medical personnel and follow their instructions. At a household level, she urged Ugandans to use more ginger, garlic, lemon and honey to boost their immunity and that of the children. She said this mixture should be taken in the morning and evening

<https://www.monitor.co.ug/News/National/UK-based-Ugandan-nurse-who-survived-Covid-19-narrates-ordeal/688334-5511874-8fwr3/index.html>

With reference to the two articles above, summarise the strategies recommended to deal with COVID 19 pandemic in not more than 100 words.



National Curriculum
Development Centre ,
P.O. Box 7002,
Kampala.
www.ncdc.go.ug