

History HL paper 3 - Africa

CONFIDENTIAL ***MARKSCHEME*** **May 2003**

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Essential reading:

History guide (February 2001)
Receiving and marking examination material
Writing reports
Instructions for marking scripts

Forms:

Sample materials record form (SMR) - one copy
Discrepancy report form (DRF1)
Problem report form (PRF)
Examiner report form (ER)
Examiner claim form (CF1)

1 The structure of paper 3

There are five separate essay papers, each based on a regional option. Candidates register for only one regional option. Similarly, examiners normally mark scripts for only one regional option. The regions are as follows.

Africa
Americas
East and South East Asia and Oceania
Europe (including Russia/USSR)
South Asia and the Middle East (including North Africa)

Each examination paper comprises twenty five questions. Candidates are required to answer any three questions. The maximum mark for each question is 20. Therefore, the maximum mark for the paper is 60.

2 Approach to marking

Mark positively and consistently, giving candidates credit for what they have achieved without being influenced too much by omissions.

Use the full range of marks available. Do not use decimals or fractions for individual questions. Do not subtract marks for material which is irrelevant or incorrect: you are looking for evidence of what candidates know and understand.

Refer to **Instructions for marking scripts, section 4.1** for additional guidance on marking scripts.

3 Comments on scripts

It is important that you write comments on every script so that it is possible to see how you arrived at the mark you gave the candidate. These comments should be in the left-hand margin or in the body of the script and should identify well-made points or significant weaknesses in the candidate's answer.

At the end of each answer write a comment which summarizes its general quality and explains the mark awarded, where possible relating statements to the markband descriptors, for example:

- demands of the question are effectively and relevantly addressed
- an unusually well-sustained argument
- little understanding of the question or relevant knowledge
- a novel and valid approach, well handled
- clearly a prepared answer to a rather different question on the same topic
- contains accurate knowledge but is mainly descriptive.

These comments are particularly helpful to the senior examiner reviewing your scripts for moderation and at the later stages, including the grade awarding and enquiry upon results.

As a general rule in group 3 examinations there will be a comment of some kind on each page. On those few occasions where you have made no comments you should indicate that you have read each page by writing your initials at the bottom of that page.

Candidates may now request the return of scripts. It is therefore **essential** that any comments you make are appropriate, constructive and professional.

4 Paper specific instructions

It is essential to approach the task of assessing the essay answers with a flexible and open mind. Each question must be assessed on its merits, bearing in mind both the criteria of evaluation and the special requirements of the particular question.

Do not attempt to isolate and assess separately the constituent parts of an answer; these are interdependent and questions differ in their requirements. Some questions may lend themselves quite well to a factual chronological treatment, interspersed with comment, analysis and explanation. In other questions, a chronological account (or chronological narrative) will not score well. Candidates whose knowledge is insufficient may compensate by showing exceptionally well-developed skills. It is, therefore, recommended that you mark most essay answers as a whole. In any case, only one mark must be shown at the end of each answer.

Care must be taken to award low marks (below 5) as accurately as possible. Answers which appear to be completely irrelevant, (for example, on the wrong person) must be examined thoroughly for any points the candidate makes which are worthy of a mark or marks.

Essay questions set candidates a clearly defined task and it is therefore possible to identify specific criteria against which answers should be assessed. You should ask yourself the following questions.

To what extent has the candidate demonstrated:

- an adequate knowledge of the subject or topic on which the question is based
- an ability to select and use knowledge relevantly and effectively to respond to the requirements of the question
- an understanding of the demands and the scope of the question
- an ability to plan an answer geared to meet the demands of the question
- a range of skills?

These skills will include the ability to:

- analyse and synthesize knowledge and evidence
- write clear, accurate narrative when appropriate
- construct coherent, convincing, well-supported arguments
- discuss and explain
- compare and contrast
- exercise critical judgment in the evaluation of different interpretations and conflicting evidence.

Precisely which of these skills and abilities the candidate is expected to demonstrate will depend upon the nature of the question.

Bearing in mind the criteria given above, the following mark band descriptors should be used in the assessment of each essay answer; together with the notes on individual questions found in the paper specific markscheme.

5 Paper 3 mark bands

The method of assessment used by the IBO is criterion-referenced and not norm-referenced. That is to say that candidates are judged by their performance in relation to the identified assessment criteria and not in relation to the rest of the population being assessed.

The mark bands concentrate on positive achievement.

Mark bands

- 0** If the answer does not achieve the standard described in markband 1–3, 0 should be recorded.
- 1-3** There is very little understanding of the question or relevant knowledge. Appropriate skills and organizational structure are lacking. The candidate's answer is no more than a collection of generalizations or a paragraph or two of facts, bearing little relation to the question.
- 4-5** Little understanding is shown of the question, which is not addressed effectively. Although some historical facts and comments are present they are limited, often inaccurate and of marginal relevance. There is also very little evidence of appropriate skills and the structure is basic.
- 6-7** There is some indication that the question is understood. The question is partially addressed, and there is a limited amount of accurate and relevant knowledge. There is a limited demonstration of skills, focus and structure.
- 8-10** The demands of the question are generally understood. The question may be answered with a relevant coherent argument which is supported by limited material. Alternatively, the answer contains accurate knowledge but is mainly descriptive or narrative with implicit analysis or explanatory comments, or it is made relevant by its conclusion. Some attempt to structure an answer (chronologically or analytically) is evident.
- 11-13** The demands of the question are understood and addressed, although not all the implications are considered. The answer is supported by accurate, relevant and adequate knowledge and has either an analytical structure or a soundly focused combination of narrative and analysis.
- 14-16** The demands of the question are effectively and relevantly addressed, usually in a structured framework. The answer is clearly supported by appropriate factual knowledge and demonstrates a consistent level of analytical ability, although all aspects may not have been addressed.
- 17-20** The demands of the question are effectively and relevantly addressed in a clearly structured and focused essay. Arguments are detailed and well developed. At the upper end of this markband the answer will, in addition, demonstrate **one** of the following: a well developed awareness of historiographical issues; a good conceptual ability; or a successful challenge to the assumptions implied in the question.

MARKSCHEME

May 2003

HISTORY - AFRICA

Higher Level

Paper 3

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1. Analyse the factors which facilitated the transition from the slave trade to legitimate trade in West or East Africa.

The question demands an analytical approach which identifies the factors that helped the transition process. Most answers will deal with West Africa as candidates are generally much less familiar with trade in East Africa in the nineteenth century. Answers on East Africa will need to show familiarity with the activities of the sultans of Zanzibar and the steps taken to enforce the abolition of the slave trade mostly by British threats of a naval blockade in the 1870s.

In West Africa, Britain and other European countries became increasingly opposed to the slave trade for humanitarian reasons and more interested economically in the raw materials and potential markets available in West Africa. West Africa had raw materials in great demand in Europe especially palm oil. States with a suitable geographical location within or near the palm oil belt, with the availability of easy transport facilities by water and with effective leadership and efficient government such as that provided by King Gezo and Glele in Dahomey, Jaja in Opobo and Nana in Itsekiriland, were well placed to facilitate the transition to legitimate trade and supply the products required by European traders.

Candidates may discuss how the house system in the Niger Delta city states encouraged social mobility and contributed to the emergence of new leaders promoted on the basis of their ability to trade and compete with commercial rivals.

Answers which are limited to the abolition of the slave trade may not reach **[8 marks]**.

[8 to 10 marks] may be awarded to narrative answers with some implicit sense of the factors that helped to promote legitimate trade.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] will be awarded to candidates who identify and explain the factors that facilitated the transition and illustrate them with supporting detail. Marks will increase according to the quality of the argument and supporting material.

2. How successfully did Johannis IV respond to internal and external threats to the unity and independence of Ethiopia?

Johannis regarded himself as first among equals and was ready to share authority with his subordinates provided his position as emperor was recognized. Unlike Tewodros, he tolerated regionalism, conscious of the impediments to establishing a unitary state. He tried to seek an accommodation with his two main vassals Adal (later called Tekle-Haymanot) of Gojjam and Menelik of Shoa. He was provoked into an invasion of Gojjam in 1888. In 1878 Menelik submitted to Johannis, agreed to pay him annual tribute and provide supplies to the imperial army. In return, Johannis recognized Menelik's authority as Negus of Shoa. In areas threatened by foreign invasion, Johannis could not afford indirect control and he made his trusted general Alula governor of the northern areas threatened by Egypt. He was less liberal in his enforcement of religious orthodoxy and persecution of Islam. The disadvantage of Johannis' policy of creating a loosely united Ethiopia under largely autonomous regional rulers was that it encouraged centrifugal tendencies which were always a potential threat to the unity of the state.

The first major external threat came from Egypt. The Egyptians were decisively defeated by the Ethiopians at Gundat in 1875 and Johannis further enhanced his prestige and captured valuable weapons in the battle of Gura. He followed this with an attempt at negotiated settlement which eventually succeeded in 1884 when the British wanted Ethiopian cooperation against the growing Mahdist movement in the Sudan. Bogos was restored to Ethiopia. In the last years of his reign, Yohannis had managed to defeat one relatively weak enemy only to face a growing threat from two stronger ones, Italy and the Mahdist state. The Italians acquired the port of Assab. In 1887 Ras Alula defeated the Italians at the battle of Dogali. Yohannis sought to end the Italian occupation of Massawa. He was forced to deal first with the Mahdists who had sacked Gondar. At the close of what had been a victorious battle at Metemma in 1889, he was killed by a stray bullet.

[8 to 10 marks] for a narrative with some implicit assessment.

[11 to 13 marks] for a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] may be awarded for a balanced assessment of Yohannes' response to both internal and external threats with well supported judgement on the extent of his success.

3. Account for the emergence of centralized states among the Hehe and Nyamwezi in the nineteenth century.

The emergence of centralized states among the Hehe and Nyamwezi was a long-term indirect result of the Mfecane. In the 1830s the relatively peaceful development of trade in east and central Africa was disrupted by the Ngoni invasions from the south. The Ngoni introduced into the region a new concept of centralised military organization. A number of eastern and central African peoples learnt from their Ngoni neighbours. Among the more successful of these were the Hehe of southern Tanzania. They adopted a Ngoni-style military structure based on age regiments. Under the leadership of Munyigumba the scattered Hehe chiefdoms united into a single centralising state. As such they were able to resist further Ngoni raids and later under Munyigumba's son Mkwawa they offered strong resistance to German conquest in the 1890s.

Ngoni warriors reached Unyamwezi in the 1850s. Mirambo learnt their language and adopted their military techniques and founded a kingdom which he named after himself Urambo. He built up an army of men from many different ethnic groups, absorbing large numbers of war captives and offering local kings a choice of submission or war. Mirambo's power depended partly on control of trade routes. The Nyamwezi were engaged in long distance trade from Bagamoyo, opposite Zanzibar, to the eastern Congo. From 1871 to 1875 Mirambo fought the Arab/Swahili enclave at Tabora. He was successful in war and trade but did not create an effective system of administration. The centralised states of the Hehe and Nyamwezi, especially that of Mirambo, depended on the leadership qualities of the rulers. Mirambo died in 1884 and the state he had created died with him.

Some answers may include irrelevant material on Mkwawa, who should not be the main focus of discussion of the Hehe as the question is on the emergence of centralised states.

[8 to 10 marks] may be scored by narratives of the two states with an implicit awareness of factors which led to their emergence.

[11 to 13 marks] for a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] may be awarded to a focused, in-depth analysis of the factors that led to the emergence of the two centralised states.

4. Compare and contrast the causes and evaluate the relative success of the jihads of Usman dan Fodio and Al-Hajj Umar.

Both jihads had religious and political causes and consequences. Usman dan Fodio's jihad was primarily a religious movement reacting to the Hausa rulers for combining Islam with traditional religion. He was backed by those opposed to the luxury, corruption and heavy taxation of the Gobir kingdom. The pastoral Fulani supported the jihad partly because of the cattle tax. Umar's jihad involved a clash between rival brotherhoods and was inspired by the example of Usman. Umar's Tijaniyya Brotherhood attracted men of action, businessmen, the young and members of inferior social groups.

Politically Usman's jihad resulted in the creation of the huge new Sokoto Caliphate while Umar's led to the creation of the Tukolor empire. Both led to the growth of Islamic education and increasing importance of Sharia courts. Usman's achievement was, however, much greater than Umar's and the Sokoto Caliphate lasted much longer than the Tukolor empire. The empire was much troubled by internal divisions after Umar's death and soon came under French control but still with a revived Islam continuing to survive and flourish.

[8 to 10 marks] for end-on accounts with reference to causes and relative success.

[11 to 13 marks] for a more comparative approach.

[14+ marks] for focused answers with in-depth comparative analysis of causes and a well supported evaluation of the relative success of the jihads.

5. Analyse the factors which led to the fall of the Old Oyo empire. How far do you agree that “the collapse of Old Oyo facilitated the rise of Dahomey”?

Dahomey had been a vassal of the Old Oyo empire since the mid-eighteenth century and remained so until the 1820s. The collapse of the empire enabled it to emerge as an autonomous kingdom. King Gezo of Dahomey seized the opportunity offered by the internal decline of Oyo to declare the independence of the kingdom. Dahomey enjoyed political stability in the nineteenth century thanks to its capable long-reigning kings, its economic strength and effective centralized system of administration.

Old Oyo had been less fortunate than Dahomey. Its fall was due to factors which predated but were intensified in the first two decades of the nineteenth century. There was a continuing power struggle between successive alafin and the lineage chiefs. The structure of the empire was deteriorating. It was further weakened by external forces such as the southern expansion of the jihad of Usman dan Fodio and the decline of the overseas slave trade. In the early nineteenth century there was an interregnum lasting nearly two decades after the shortlived, unsuccessful rule of Aaole and Maku. The revolt of Afenja as the professional head of the Oyo Army contributed to the final collapse of Old Oyo. The collapse led to a situation of general warfare and insecurity of which Dahomey was to take advantage to assert its independence.

[8 to 10 marks] may be awarded for narrative answers.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by a more explicit analysis

[14+ marks] will be awarded to candidates who analyse the factors which led to the fall of Old Oyo and link them with the rise of Dahomey.

6. Why did Samori Toure at first succeed, but finally fail, in his resistance to the French?

Samori Toure was France's single most formidable military opponent in western Africa. He commanded an army of 30,000 men, mostly foot soldiers but with an elite cavalry corps. They were well armed with muskets and rifles, imported from Sierra Leone through the sale of gold and ivory, or manufactured and repaired by his own metalworkers. His small units of riflemen were trained to shoot accurately. He was at the height of his power when he first came into contact with the French in 1882. He had built up his large Mandinka empire and had a powerful professional, well trained and disciplined army. His soldiers were united with him in the Islamic faith and Mandinka nationalism. His experience as a successful trader enabled him to ensure a regular supply of food and equipment for his army. He avoided direct confrontation with the French and used guerilla tactics to devastating effect.

These factors facilitated his early resistance and he even signed a treaty with the French which proved to be only a lull in the fighting which the French used to undermine him by supplying and inciting his rivals. The French invaded from the north in 1891, having overcome the resistance of the Tukolor empire. In 1894, they overran his empire and he escaped, conquered and founded an entirely new empire on the northern borders of modern Cote d'Ivoire and Ghana. But Samori was now a foreign conqueror facing the internal opposition of a subject people. He surrendered to the French in 1898.

The factors which enabled Samori to resist the French for over a decade could not save him from final defeat. He did not fail as a leader. His one serious military error was his decision to attempt to capture Sikasso. The geography of his country did not help him. He failed to persuade the British to grant him a protectorate or any other African leaders to join him in his struggle against the French. The French themselves were formidable opponents, as ruthless in their atrocities against civilians as he was in his scorched earth policy. Samori had no real answer to the vastly superior weaponry of the French.

[8 to 10 marks] for narratives with some comment on success and failure.

[11 to 13 marks] for a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] for focused answers explaining in depth Samori's long resistance and ultimate failure.

7. Explain the causes of the Mfecane and assess its impact on Southern Africa.

The Mfecane was a time of upheaval in Southern Africa which started off in the first decades of the nineteenth century. There has been much debate about the causes. It is agreed that one of these was population pressure and land shortage aggravated by severe famine which led to a struggle for declining resources in the northern Nguni area. Recent research stresses the importance in the struggle for supremacy and survival of competition for the new trade in imported goods at the port of Delagoa Bay. These factors led to unrest and violence in most of the northern Nguni states which responded to the changing situation with innovations in military tactics and organization. The introduction by Dingiswayo of military reforms which were continued and perfected by Shaka made the whole movement more intense and widespread.

The Mfecane triggered off a chain of events which led to the eclipse of existing states like the Mthethwa, Ndwandwe, Ngwane and the Hlubi and the rise of new states. It saw the emergence of aggressive conquest states like the Zulu, Ndebele and Gaza kingdoms and of defensive kingdoms like Lesotho, Swaziland and Kololo. Within these states it brought out the ingenuity of African political leaders and forced them to improve their military tactics and political skills.

The Mfecane led to the temporary depopulation of parts of Southern Africa which facilitated the taking over of these areas by the Boers during the Great Trek. The Boers thus expanded into the interior of Southern Africa and established themselves in the Transvaal area and the basin of the Orange river at the expense of the Sotho nation.

[8 to 10 marks] may be awarded for narratives of the Mfecane.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] will be awarded to candidates who focus on causes and impact and for the top bands show familiarity with the historiography of the Mfecane.

8. To what extent was rivalry between European powers responsible for the partition of Africa?

The political situation in Europe had been changed by the formation in 1870–1 of two new large nation-states, Germany and Italy. These states, especially Germany, wished to show that they were entitled to enhance their prestige by imperial exploits in Africa. Italy, therefore, attempted to establish colonies in North-East Africa and Germany in East, South-West and West Africa. The French fear of Italian imperial activity in North Africa led to her occupation of Tunis. Strategic considerations led Britain to invade Egypt to protect the Suez Canal, her trade route to India. She feared that the Russian fleet might enter the Mediterranean from the Black Sea and challenge Britain's position. It has been argued that Britain eventually occupied the Sudan, Uganda and Kenya to prevent any other European country from making colonies along the Nile banks.

Britain's occupation of Egypt in 1882 and Leopold II's earlier thinly disguised attempts to monopolize the control of commerce in the Congo Basin alarmed other powers with economic interests in Africa. Bismarck, fearing that France would fight a war of revenge against Germany, manipulated Anglo-French rivalry in Africa to drive a wedge between the two countries, before finally joining the race for colonies in Africa himself in 1884–5. Once the seeds of European rivalry and suspicion had been sown by these developments only direct control of territory would protect European interests.

Answers which discuss in general the causes of the partition may not reach **[8 marks]**.

[8 to 10 marks] could be reached by answers with some understanding of European rivalry

[11 to 13 marks] answers need to be more explicit in linking European rivalry and the partition.

[14+ marks] could be scored for well supported analyses of the extent to which European rivalry can explain the partition and some discussion of other factors.

9. For what reasons did the Nandi in Kenya manage to resist British imperialism for so long?

The Nandi put up the strongest and longest military resistance to British imperialism of all the peoples in Kenya. It began in the early 1890s and did not end until after their leader, Koitalel arap Samoei, was murdered by the British commanders in 1905, at a meeting which had been treacherously arranged.

Nandi society was divided into territorial units and warriors from each unit were responsible for the defense of their territory. These armies came together under the leadership of the orkoiyot, a ritual expert who acted as a religious leader and a political and military prophet. He decided when the army would go on a raid. The armies were linked to him through maotiks, agents who sat at each territorial council. Nandi society was centred on territory rather than clan and this made it more cohesive and militarily stronger than its neighbours.

Nandi terrain, with its steep heavily wooded valleys and lack of open country, was ideal for guerilla warfare. The cold, wet climate was a health hazard for invading forces largely composed of Sudanese and Maasai auxiliaries accustomed to a very different climate. The Nandi subsistence agriculture made it difficult for invading troops to live off the land and with their mixed economy the Nandi could live off their livestock when their crops were burnt or confiscated. They were more mobile than the British and had disciplined, efficient and experienced soldiers. Their traditional tactics, involving night fighting and ambushes, worked well against the British.

Resistance against the British came at a time when the Nandi had in Koitalel an orkoiyot who acted as a major unifying force and significant aid to resistance. He was a strong nationalist opposed to any accommodation with foreigners.

[8 to 10 marks] may be awarded for a narrative of the Nandi resistance with an implicit idea of why it was prolonged.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] will be awarded to candidates who focus in depth on the factors which contributed to the length and effectiveness of Nandi resistance.

10. “Lewanika defended the interests of his people more successfully than Lobengula.” To what extent do you agree with this comment on the methods used by the *two* rulers to deal with the ambitions of European imperialists?

Lewanika of Buluzi, like several other rulers in central and southern Africa such as Khama and Moshoeshoe, chose the strategy of protectorate or wardship rather than resistance. Because of his insecure position and the vulnerability to Ndebele raids, he adopted westernization, missionary alliance and British protection as essential instruments of policy. The Protestant missionary Coillard became a confident and influential adviser of Lewanika. By negotiations and treaties with the British he preserved his kingdom and his position as king. By the Lochner Treaty of 1890 he put his kingdom under the protection of the British South Africa Company. He gave the company mining rights throughout the kingdom and his chiefs assisted the company in establishing British rule in the western part of Northern Rhodesia (Zambia).

Lobengula also had diplomatic contact with Europeans and offered mining concessions to two foreign companies in 1870, concessions which broke with Ndebele tradition but did not at first endanger his sovereignty. The policy worked in 1870 but failed disastrously twenty years later.

Lobengula’s main aim during the scramble for Matabeleland and Mashonaland was to save his kingdom from being violently overrun by white people. He failed partly because he did not have the absolute power to implement policy without opposition and because he was outwitted by Rhodes and his agents. They hid their political ambitions behind commercial interests and deceived him into granting them the Rudd Concession in 1888, an act which resulted in Lobengula losing all control over white penetration of his country.

Lobengula regretted and soon repudiated the concession but Rhodes was determined to exploit it and the pioneer column of his British South Africa Company occupied Mashonaland and then invaded Matabeleland. Lobengula was provoked into armed resistance. His people were defeated and dispossessed of land, livestock and minerals after the leaders of their regiments had surrendered to the British. Lobengula was neither killed nor captured but died in 1894.

Lewanika might appear to have been more successful than Lobengula as the results of his policies were less disastrous for him and his people. But it is doubtful if Lobengula could have found a way of avoiding his downfall and the destruction of the Ndebele nation given Rhodes’ determination, the geographical position of Matabeleland and the unwillingness of his people to surrender their freedom without a struggle.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative accounts with an implicit sense of the people’s interest.

[11 to 13 marks] may be awarded for answers which attempt to compare and contrast and are more explicit in the analysis of the methods used to defend the people’s interests.

[14+ marks] will be awarded for essays which have a comparative structure and analyse the methods of the two rulers with sufficient supporting evidence.

11. Analyse the factors which caused, and led to the failure of, the Herero rising against German rule in South West Africa (Namibia).

In January 1904, the Herero broke out in a spontaneous revolt led by Samuel Maherero, who had previously made a peace treaty with the Germans and collaborated with them. By 1904, however, the Herero were experiencing the full negative effects of more direct German rule. They lost land to the steadily increasing number of white settlers and to the railway companies. Many of their cattle had died in the rinderpest epidemic of 1897 and more were lost to German traders who seized them after the 1903 Credit Ordinance to settle debts. The Herero took advantage of the withdrawal of German troops from Hereroland to put down an uprising among the Bondelswarts and surprised and killed over 100 German settlers and soldiers, sparing the women and children as well as the British and missionaries. It was, therefore, not a general anti-European rising but a reaction to cumulative German colonial oppression.

The Herero failed to win the support of other African communities. A letter requesting support from the Nama leader was ignored. The Herero remained on the offensive until June 1904 but had little experience of guerilla warfare. Nor were they prepared for the ferocity of the German response. The rising was seen in Germany as a national emergency and the mighty military machine was unleashed on the Herero. The German commander Leutwein was replaced by General Von Trotha who treated the Herero with a brutality unparalleled in the history of colonial rule in Africa. He decisively defeated them in the Battle of Waterberg but went on to wage a war of extermination. Less than a quarter of the Herero people survived the genocide. Women and children died of scurvy or the effects of forced labour in prison camps while thousands of others died of starvation after fleeing into the Kalahari desert. The Herero rising showed that inter-ethnic cooperation was needed for successful protest and it demonstrated the futility of armed resistance against a colonial power with a vastly superior military capacity.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative accounts of the rising with an implicit sense of causes and results.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] will be awarded for a focused analysis of the circumstances leading to the Herero rising and to an in-depth explanation of its failure.

12. How and why did Africans oppose the policies of Smuts and Hertzog in South Africa?

Opposition to the policies of Smuts and Hertzog took four principal forms: peasant protest, independent churches, elitist organizations and working-class movements. Rural South Africa was transformed from a peasant economy into a labour reserve. Peasants sought to protect their land and livestock and protest against increased taxation and labour demands. They defied registration laws, attacked loyalist chiefs and organized boycotts *e.g.* of European merchants and of dipping tanks.

Independent churches periodically engaged in explicit insurgent activities *e.g.* the Israelites and the Wellington movement. More effective as vehicles of nationalist protest were new elitist and working class organizations. The African National Congress, founded in 1912, initiated a mass campaign against a series of discriminatory laws enacted by Hertzog. The ANC joined forces with the South African Indian Congress and an organization of “coloured” people to condemn the legislation. The ANC was also active outside the country. In the 1930s, however, ANC leadership fell into the hands of moderates who feared communist influence.

Working-class movements in the industrial areas were another new form of protest. The first mass movement in South Africa occurred in the Transvaal mines in early 1918 with the boycott of the company shops through which the mine owners sold food and manufactured goods to workers. There was a smaller but better organized strike of sewage and garbage collectors in Johannesburg and another of 15,000 miners, also in 1918. There was a strike of over 70,000 African miners of different ethnic groups in the Transvaal in 1920 and an even larger one in 1946.

[8 to 10 marks] could be awarded for largely narrative answers with some sense of the different forms of protest.

[11 to 13 marks] for more explicit reference to the nature of opposition.

[14+ marks] may be awarded to answers that focus on several types of organized protest and illustrate them in depth.

13. Compare and contrast the organization and appeal of the Christian Missions and the African Independent Churches in the colonial period.

The mission churches in Africa were staffed by members of missionary societies such as the Catholic White Fathers or Holy Ghost Fathers and the Church Missionary Society linked to the Anglican Church. They were funded by the metropolitan churches and in the case of Catholic missions were part of a worldwide centralized organization with its headquarters in Rome. The Pope was responsible for the appointment of bishops throughout the church. Missionaries were faithful to the teachings of their “parent” churches. Though quite a number of Africans were trained as pastors or ordained as priests, after Crowther no Africans were appointed bishops until the Second World War.

The Independent Churches, as the name implies, were African-led. Men like Wade Harris in Liberia and Agbebi in Nigeria led flourishing churches. The issue of leadership was the major cause of the earliest independent churches which broke away from the European-dominated Anglican, Methodist, Lutheran, Presbyterian and Catholic Churches. These churches appealed to those who sought the opportunity to preserve some of their own culture and traditions in a Christian context and who wished to develop an African Christian theology, incorporating African spiritual values. They also appealed to those who had little or no other opportunity to express their political or social opinions. The independent churches in South Africa, for example, were strongly influenced by conditions of life there including colour bar, alienation of land and problems of a migrant labour economy. They also drew inspiration from African Americans and from Ethiopia as an African Christian empire. The independent churches were small-scale organizations and although they emphasized education, they did not have the resources to build as many schools and hospitals as the missionaries did.

The educational and medical skills and facilities provided by the missionaries were a significant part of their appeal. Christianity also presented itself as a new and revolutionary social ethic. Christianity had a greater appeal to some African communities than others, *e.g.* to the Igbo, the Baganda and the Basotho, for specific social and political reasons.

[8 to 10 marks] could be scored for descriptive answers on the activity of the missions and churches with an implicit sense of appeal.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored for a more explicit comparison of organization and appeal.

[14+ marks] will be awarded to answers with a clear comparative structure and focus on organization and appeal with specific supporting evidence.

14. Discuss the problems faced by Ras Tafari of Ethiopia up to 1930. How far did he overcome them?

Ras Tafari became Regent and heir to the throne of Ethiopia in 1916 and exercised dual authority with Empress Zawditu until her death in 1930. The country had an essentially feudal economy and faced problems of economic development. Just as much as his predecessors, Ras Tafari needed to safeguard national sovereignty. Most problems arose internally because of the rather indeterminate nature of the respective powers and prerogatives of the regent and empress. There was also a power struggle between Tafari and the intellectuals who supported his relatively progressive policies and forces of tradition among the nobility supported by the church.

Ras Tafari confronted his opponents. He dismissed ministers in 1918 after a public rally. He enhanced his international stature in 1923 and 1924 with the entry of Ethiopia into the League of Nations and a grand tour of Europe. He replaced the disloyal and potentially dangerous Balcha, a hero of the battle of Adowa, as governor of Sidamo in 1927. In 1928 he had to imprison the mutinous Abba Weqaw, head of the palace guards. The final challenge to Tafari came from Ras Gugsa, former husband of Empress Zawditu and governor of Bogemder. His rebellion was crushed at the battle of Ancham in 1930. Ras Tafari's army was superior in numbers and armament and had the incalculable advantage of using the first aircraft in Ethiopian history. Gugsa died in battle and his ex-wife, Empress Zawditu, two days later. The last obstacles in Tafari's path to the throne were removed and he was crowned Emperor Haile Selassie. Tafari succeeded in safeguarding his own position but it was not until he became emperor that he was able to embark on modernising policies.

Discussion of Ras Tafari as emperor after 1930 would be irrelevant. Narratives could score **[8 to 10 marks]** with an implicit awareness of problems and solutions.

[11 to 13 marks] for a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] may be awarded to answers well focused on Ras Tafari's problems and policies, and adequate detail and analysis of the extent of his success in overcoming problems.

15. “Squatter’s revolt, Kikuyu civil war, anti-colonial movement.” In what ways and to what extent do these describe the nature of the Mau Mau struggle?

The Mau Mau was a squatter’s revolt. When white settlers first established farms in the White Highlands of Kenya in the early twentieth century, they were frequently assisted by Africans who exchanged their labour services for herding and cultivation rights. But as white farmers became more mechanized, they threw many squatters off their farms. Some of these were resettled at Olenge and it was there that secret oathing was widely employed as a form of popular solidarity and resistance.

The declaration of emergency in October 1952 was preceded by the murder of the leading Kikuyu loyalist, Chief Waruhiu. Mau Mau has been described as a Kikuyu civil war and it certainly involved much violence by Kikuyu against Kikuyu. But most of these murders came after the British security forces had launched a counter-insurgency campaign, begun detaining Mau Mau suspects without trial and introduced compulsory villagization to separate forest fighters from rural and urban supporters.

Mau Mau involved resistance against enforced agricultural policies including compulsory terracing and rinderpest regulations. The oathing and hymns involved a cultural revival. But above all Mau Mau was an anti-colonial movement even if it attracted little support outside Kikuyuland and attracted more support from some parts of Kikuyuland like Nyeri and Muranga than others. It was a violent conspiracy to oust the British and to regain “stolen lands”.

[8 to 10 marks] may be awarded to narrative accounts of Mau Mau with an implicit sense of its nature.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by a more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] could be given to candidates who analyse the nature of the Mau Mau struggle with supporting evidence and specific reference to all three phrases in the quotation.

16. Why did Guinea achieve independence before Senegal?

In the 1950s Senegalese politics were dominated by Leopold Senghor while the trade unionist and party leader Sekou Toure was extending his support in the Guinean countryside. Senegal, where the French had applied a limited assimilation policy to four communes, might have been expected to achieve independence earlier than Guinea. Guinea, however, became independent in 1958 thanks to the courageous and defiant stand of Sekou Toure with the full support of the workers and the students. De Gaulle came to power in France in 1958 and prepared a new constitution for the Fifth Republic. He asked all the colonies to vote in a referendum on whether they wanted to retain their connection with France. They could join a French Community within which France would retain control of their foreign and defense policies. All except Guinea voted yes. In Guinea the “no” vote was over 80 % and Guinea proclaimed its independence in October 1958. French aid to Guinea was promptly withdrawn. De Gaulle’s revenge stripped it of everything, down to its French-supplied telephones.

Guinea’s independence inspired a revolution in attitudes in French West Africa. Countries which had been nervous about the prospect of independence without adequate French support now demanded it. The French acquiesced with startling speed and eight West African countries, among them Senegal, all became independent within a few months of each other in 1960. France was facing an escalating colonial war in Algeria and felt that early reform in sub-Saharan Africa would forestall another crisis. Sekou Toure was exceptional among French West African leaders in demanding independence as forcefully and successfully as Nkrumah had in Ghana. Senghor’s reluctance to campaign so vigorously for independence was partly due to his desire to retain the former large federations of French West and Equatorial Africa and avoid what he called the “balkanisation of Africa”.

[8 to 10 marks] could be awarded for a narrative account of the events leading to independence in the two countries with an implicit sense of why independence was attained earlier in Guinea.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by a more explicit comparison.

[14+ marks] answers will explain in depth the circumstances in which Guinea became independent in 1958 and Senegal in 1960.

17. For what reasons did Rhodesia become independent under minority rule in 1965, and why was minority rule replaced by majority rule in an independent Zimbabwe in 1980?

The Central African Federation was created in 1953 because Britain wanted to make a single viable colony out of the protectorates of Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia and the self governing colony of Southern Rhodesia. But the territories were racially and economically different. African nationalists denounced the Federation as a device to preserve white control and Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland left it to become the independent states of Zambia and Malawi in 1964. Southern Rhodesia, dominated by its large white population, mostly farmers but also with an urban middle and working class, had been self-governing since 1923 and now wanted decolonization and independence but under white rule. The ultra-conservative Rhodesian Front had been elected in 1962 and Ian Smith became Prime Minister in 1964. He rightly concluded that Britain would not use military force against its own “kith and kin” and made a Unilateral Declaration of Independence in November 1965.

African nationalist movements launched guerilla warfare against the Smith government. The UN applied sanctions but these were not well supported and were evaded with the help of South Africa and Portuguese-ruled Mozambique. Portuguese decolonisation and the achievement of independence in Mozambique in 1975 transformed the prospects of ZANU and ZAPU which united in a Patriotic Front in 1976 and could now operate from Mozambique as well as Zambia. Waning support from South Africa weakened Smith’s position. His attempts to reach an internal settlement were rebuffed by the Commonwealth. He could never defeat the Patriotic Front through military means. When even the Thatcher Government began to insist on all-party elections, Smith gave in and elections held in February 1980 and monitored by the Commonwealth led to a decisive victory for ZANU and Mugabe who became the first Prime Minister under majority rule of independent Zimbabwe in April 1980.

[8 to 10 marks] may be awarded for adequate narratives.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by answers with more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] will be awarded for clear and adequate explanations of UDI in 1965 and of how Zimbabwe became independent.

18. Discuss the main features of apartheid and the nature of African resistance to it up to 1961.

The main features of South Africa’s racial policy were present before 1948 but the National party government from 1948 presented apartheid as a new, positive ideology of “separate development” and underpinned it with massive new legislation. The Group Areas Act (1950) classified all South Africans by race. The Suppression of Communism Act (1950) labeled any critic of apartheid as communist and therefore a member of a banned organization. The Native Labour Act abolished collective bargaining and freedom of association by Africans. The Mines and Works Act (1956) prohibited any Africans from doing skilled work in the mines. Then came the Bantu Self-government Act which created so-called black homelands. Legally, all Africans in “white” South Africa were temporary residents, without title to civil liberties or property ownership.

The catalyst for change in African resistance came with the National Party’s victory in 1948 and subsequent increasingly discriminatory and oppressive policies. These led the formerly moderate, elitist ANC to develop under Luthuli into a large party with mass appeal which, after 1952, adopted the tactics of large scale passive resistance.

The ANC came to welcome support from Asians and whites, individuals and organizations, and approved the Freedom Charter in 1955. The government response was to pass even more oppressive laws. This led to the establishment of the more militant Pan-Africanist Congress in 1959.

The 1960 Sharpeville Massacre was another turning point in the history of African resistance. The ANC now formed a military wing, Umkhonto we Sizwe, which went underground and engaged in sporadic attacks. Its leader Nelson Mandela was arrested and imprisoned.

[8 to 10 marks] for a largely narrative answer with limited explanation of apartheid.

[11 to 13 marks] for more detailed grasp of apartheid policies and more explicit sense of changing tactics.

[14+ marks] for a focused answer with thorough knowledge of the nature of apartheid and the different phases of African resistance up to 1961.

19. Assess the achievements in Kenya since independence, of Jomo Kenyatta.

Jomo Kenyatta was Prime Minister of Kenya at independence in December 1963 and became President when Kenya became a republic a year later. By this time Kenya had become a de facto one party state when KADU merged with the ruling party KANU. Elections were regularly held which led to considerable changes in the composition of parliament and the cabinet but parliament tended to be sidelined and the government to become increasingly authoritarian. Opposition parties like the KPU led by the Luo leader, Oginga Odinga, were banned. The government's reputation was marred by the assassination in 1969 of Tom Mboya and in 1975 of J M Kariuki, a charismatic politician and one of the few MPs to speak out against social inequality, corruption and foreign domination of the economy. In the last few years of Kenyatta's presidency, critics of the government were detained without trial and party elections postponed.

In 1967 Kenya joined Tanzania and Uganda in the East African Community to cooperate in economic, social and cultural fields. The Community split in 1977, a year before Kenyatta's death, partly because of ideological differences between Kenyatta and Nyerere. Kenyatta showed magnanimity to the white settlers and in the Cold War era was a reliable ally of the west. Kenyatta's capitalist policies helped to promote economic growth but this could be at the expense of the mass of the population. By the time of his death, there was a growing gulf between rich and poor. On the positive side, there was a considerable expansion in social services, especially in the provision of education. But the economy was predominantly dependent on the agricultural sector which favoured production of cash crops at the expense of subsistence crops.

[8 to 10 marks] may be awarded to narrative answers with some assessment.

[11 to 13 marks] for more explicit assessment.

[14+ marks] may be awarded to answers which provide a balanced and critical assessment, both negative and positive, of Kenyatta's policies with supporting evidence.

20. “Self help imposed from above.” To what extent do you agree with this assessment of Nyerere’s socialist policies?

In the Arusha Declaration of 1967, Nyerere outlined his vision of a prosperous, self-reliant classless Tanzania which, he claimed, was based on traditional African principles of communal co-operation. Banks and foreign companies were nationalised and a leadership code banned leaders from accumulating private wealth. Tanzanian socialism was to be based on local resources rather than imported, high technology industrialization.

Nyerere’s policy, known in Swahili as ujamaa, involved gathering small, remote rural settlements into larger, more effective villages which could more easily be provided with roads, and social services. But the policy was implemented by government directive and could involve compulsory villagization. Peasant cultivators were often reluctant to move from areas where their ancestors were buried and where their families had successfully grown crops for generations.

Compulsory villagization, controlled by urban bureaucrats, was sometimes oppressive and often inefficient. Peasants were sometimes moved before roads, markets and welfare facilities in new villages were ready. Levels of production did not noticeably increase. Government “experts” thought they knew best. In the 1970s, however, the policies were modified to take more account of peasant knowledge and experience and to allow non-commercial peasant farmers to grow cash crops for export.

In the 1980s Tanzania was still one of the poorest countries in Africa with huge foreign debts and dependent on the export of cash crops. But it had maintained food production, avoided landless rural poverty and rural people enjoyed vastly improved welfare services.

[8 to 10 marks] for a descriptive answer with implicit assessment.

[11 to 13 marks] for more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] may be awarded to answers which are focused on the nature and implementation of socialist policies and critically assess how far the quoted statement is a fair and adequate summary of ujamaa.

21. Compare and contrast the rise to power of Banda in Malawi and Mobutu in Zaire.

Banda came to power as the leader of a nationalist political party after constitutional negotiation with Britain whereas Mobutu came to power in a crisis as a result of a military coup. Banda, like other nationalist leaders in Anglophone Africa such as Nkrumah and Kenyatta, had studied abroad and been imprisoned on his return because of his political activism but went on to become the first president of his country. Mobutu was a soldier without political experience at the time of independence.

After higher education in the USA and Edinburgh, Banda qualified as a doctor of medicine and served as a GP in London for 17 years. He returned to his nation Nyasaland in 1958 when African nationalism was growing in protest against the white dominated Central African Federation in both Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland. He then took over the leadership of the Malawi National Congress. He was arrested in 1959 but released in 1960 and resumed the struggle for secession from the Federation. In February 1963 Britain conceded self-government to Malawi and Banda became Prime Minister in July 1964. At independence in 1966 he became first President of Malawi.

Mobutu had served as an NCO in the Belgian colonial army and rose to become Colonel and Chief of Staff in the Force Publique, the embryonic army of the newly independent Congo Republic. The sudden grant of independence by Belgium in June 1960 caused a series of crises in the country between 1960 and 1965 and these gave Mobutu his chance to rise to power.

A UN force sent to restore order after the secession of Katanga failed to prevent the slide into further unrest. Mobutu, now a General, put down mutinies in the army and by September overthrew the radical Prime Minister, Patrice Lumumba, whilst retaining President Kasavubu. The situation remained confused until Mobutu, in November 1965, took over the presidency in a bloodless coup.

[8 to 10 marks] could be reached by narratives of rise to power with sufficient knowledge.

[11 to 13 marks] may be awarded to more comparative answers.

[14+ marks] will be awarded to answers with a clear comparative structure and an adequate and balanced coverage of the two rulers.

22. Account for the political instability in *either* Ghana or Nigeria between 1966 and 1979.

The dates given limit the scope of the essay and should discourage unpointed narrative and enable the candidates to discuss the issues in some depth.

Corruption, lavish spending and dictatorial intolerance of criticism led to the overthrow of Nkrumah in 1966. Ghanaians felt Nkrumah was seeking to be an international statesman but ignoring his country's worsening economic situation. There were also specific military grievances related to proposed cuts in defence spending, pay and political interference in army affairs. The military regime purged the civil service of Nkrumah's supporters and returned the country to civilian rule in 1969. Dr Busia failed to tackle Ghana's economic problems in the face of falling cocoa prices, and he was overthrown by Colonel Acheampong. Again, there were specific military grievances. Inflation continued to rise, and the blatant wealth of the ruling military elite prompted Flight-Lieutenant Rawlings to undertake a brief "cleansing exercise" in 1979. Three former military heads were executed for corruption. In 1979 there was a brief return to civilian rule under Dr Limann.

The political instability in Nigeria is related to ethnic and regional tensions between the Muslim North, the Yoruba west and mainly Ibo south east and the parties that represented these regional interests, the NPC, Action Group and NCNC. For numerical reasons the NPC dominated federal policies after independence. Fears of a change in the balance of power led to corruption and violence at elections. An army coup in January 1966 raised suspicions that the Ibos were plotting to seize power. In May Ibos were slaughtered in the north and General Gowon led a counter-coup in July. Further violence against Ibos led Colonel Ojukwu to proclaim an independent Biafra. The civil war which followed ended with the defeat of the Ibos in 1970. General Gowon was ousted in 1975 and replaced by General Mohammed and, after his assassination, by General Obasanjo, who returned the country to civilian rule in 1979.

[8 to 10 marks] for narrative answers with some awareness of the factors leading to instability.

[11 to 13 marks] could be awarded to answers with a more analytical approach.

[14+ marks] may be awarded to focused answers which analyse the political instability in either country over the thirteen year period in terms of corruption, reaction to dictatorship, ethnic tensions, personal ambition and grievances and rivalry within the army.

23. With reference to its activities in any *three* countries evaluate the success of the peace-keeping efforts of the United Nations Organization in Africa.

There are many examples to choose from with very different degrees of success. The UN had a controversial involvement in the Congo from 1960 to 1964 which prevented it from disintegrating into many states with rival Cold War backers. It took far longer, from 1945 to 1990, for the UN to make a real impact in Namibia and several UN organs were involved including the Security Council, the Trusteeship Council and the International Court of Justice. The UN organized elections and monitored South African withdrawal. In Somalia what began as a humanitarian operation lost its impartiality. Somali militia began attacking the Americans and they withdrew their contingents. The whole UN operation soon wound up without achieving its objectives. In Angola, the UN resources and mandate were inadequate and the UN could not satisfactorily monitor the first-ever elections held in a huge country which had been devastated by war since independence in 1975. The loser, UNITA, returned to the bush and the civil war continued.

The UN failed even more disastrously to prevent genocide in Rwanda in 1994. By contrast it managed in Mozambique to make a massive contribution to reconstruction after over a decade of vicious civil war. This involved the disarming of militias, demining, organizing elections, running ministries, retraining police forces and much more.

A general discussion of UN operations might not reach **[8 marks]**.

[8 to 10 marks] for a description of UN activities in three countries with some sense of the outcome.

[11 to 13 marks] for a more explicit evaluation.

[14+ marks] would be awarded to answers which assess and give supported reasons for the relative success or failure of the UN in three countries.

24. How and why was it difficult for the Organization of African Unity to achieve its objectives?

The main objectives of the OAU since its formation in 1963 have been to promote economic and political cooperation among member states, to help speed the decolonization of the rest of Africa, to mediate in conflicts between member states and to avoid interference from outside the continent. The OAU has generally found it difficult to achieve these objectives. One major weakness is that it had no legal sanctions to enforce its resolutions. It was often criticised as a “talking-shop”. It has not prevented conflicts breaking out within and between member states such as disputes between Ethiopia and its neighbours Eritrea, Somalia and Kenya and civil wars in Liberia, Nigeria, Sudan, Somalia, Congo, Angola, Mozambique and Sierra Leone. It has played a part in the resolution of some disputes *e.g.* between Morocco and Algeria and encouraged regional peace-keeping *e.g.* by ECOMOG.

Africa’s general poverty has prevented any significant progress in social and economic cooperation. The African Development Bank, which grew out of the OAU, has helped mobilise finance for African development projects. But African development has been hampered by corruption and poor leadership, the burden of debt, adverse terms of trade, lack of intra-African trade and foreign investment.

During the Cold War, rival power blocs carried their rivalry into the continent in a number of areas *e.g.* Angola and Zaire. On the positive side, the regular meetings of ministers and heads of state helped generate awareness of other countries’ problems and the OAU survived without any permanent split. The OAU’s greatest success was its contribution to freeing the continent of colonial rule. There was general agreement on bringing pressure on colonial powers and giving support and shelter to nationalist organizations in exile, notably by Egypt and Tanzania.

[8 to 10 marks] for a general description of the OAU’s aims and activities with limited evidence.

[11 to 13 marks] for a sound knowledge of aims and difficulties.

[14+ marks] may be awarded to answers with a comprehensive knowledge of the OAU’s opportunities activities and an assessment with supporting evidence of the difficulties faced in achieving its objectives.

25. “The arts have faithfully reflected the changing history of African societies.” Discuss this statement with specific reference to the work of African artists since independence.

There has been a flowering of written literature and the visual arts in Africa since the achievement of independence. The spread of western education helped to increase the number of potential authors and readers. Poetry was an established literary genre but the novel had been relatively alien. Creative writers examined the conflict between the African past and the present, sometimes as in the works of Camara Laye betraying a deep nostalgia for the past. They also looked at the culture clash between tradition and alien values, as in Achebe’s “Things Fall Apart” and Ngugi’s “The River Between” or the Nobel Laureate Wole Soyinka’s play “The Lion and the Jewel”. Sembene Ousmane and Ayi Kwei Armah’s novels reflect the clash between socialism and capitalism, between the quest for equality and the search for individual wealth. Kenyan writers like Ngugi explored the conflict of loyalties arising from the Mau Mau movement.

African writers soon began to write on themes arising from their post-independence history, the impact of urbanization (Nagib Mahfuz), the trend towards dictatorship (Wole Soyinka, Chinua Achebe, Francis Imbuga), the role of women (Mariama Ba) and problems of national unity, ethnic conflict and civil war (Christopher Okigbo).

The writers who have attracted most international attention have written in the colonial languages, English, French and Portuguese but there has been a considerable growth of literature in other languages, notably Arabic and Kiswahili.

The growth of African literature since independence has been paralleled by a growth in the arts: in traditional arts, art with a popular urban appeal and what has been called “academic art”, the product of schools of fine art such as that established at Makerere, art for the tourist market, rural, urban and sacred music, dance, pageantry, theatre, television and the cinema. Examples drawn from these art forms might not be common but would be equally relevant to the question.

Answers which do little more than summarize the plots of novels or plays might not reach **[8 marks]**.

[8 to 10 marks] could be awarded for a discussion of the work of African artists with an implicit sense of historical context.

[11 to 13 marks] could be scored by more explicit analysis.

[14+ marks] will be awarded to candidates who make specific reference to works of art and relate them to Africa’s changing history.
