

HISTORY

MODULE 2

GRADE 10

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MODULE 2

GRADE 10

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FEDERAL DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ETHIOPIA
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION



HAWASSA UNIVERSITY

ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

First Published _____ by the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Education, under the General Education Quality Improvement Program for Equity (GEQIP-E) supported by the World Bank, UK's Department for International Development/DFID-now merged with the Foreign, Commonwealth and Development Office/FCDO, Finland Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the Royal Norwegian Embassy, United Nations Children's Fund/UNICEF), the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), and Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs, through a Multi Donor Trust Fund.

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Printed by:

P.O.Box :

ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

Under Ministry of Education Contract no. :

ISBN:

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Symbols used in the Module:



This tells you there is an overview of the unit, section and what the unit, section is about.



This tells you there is an in-text question to answer or think about in the text.



This tells you to take note or to remember an important point.



This tells you there is a self-test for you to do.



This tells you there is a checklist.



This tells you there is a written assignment.



This tells you that this is the key to the answers for the self-tests.



This tells you that this is the Unit Summary

HISTORY GRADE 10

MODULE 2



Module Introduction

Dear Learner, welcome to the second module. The module contains five chapters. The first chapter is devoted to the history of the world since 1945. The most important issues incorporated in the unit are the foundation, Mission, Principles, and Achievements of the UN; the rise of Superpowers and the commencement of the cold war; Conditions in major Asian countries like Japan, Korea, China, and Vietnam during the Cold War; Non-Aligned Movement/NAM/;The Arab Israeli Conflict; and the Collapse of the Soviet Union.

The second unit focuses on the history of Ethiopia from liberation up to the downfall of the Derg regime in 1991. The major issues that are highlighted in the unit are External influence of Great Britain and USA ; Administrative Reforms during the Haile Selassie I's regime; The 1955 revised Constitution; A history of Agriculture, Land Tenure and Tenancy, Trade, Industry, Financial Sector, Education, Transport and Communication, and Health during the imperial era ; Early Opposition Movements against Emperor Haile Selassie's regime; A history Peasant Revolts in different parts of the country which among others include Tigra, Bale, and Gojjam peasant rebellions ; The unsuccessful military coup d'état against Emperor Haile Selassie's regime led by Mengistu and Germame Neway in 1960; The beginning of the Ethiopian Student Movement and its role in the downfall of the monarchy ; The Ethiopian Revolution and the Fall of the Monarchy; The rise to power of the military junta or the Derg; The socio-Economic and Political Reforms introduced by the Derg; The Ethio-Somalia War and Foreign Influences; The Question of Eritrea and the Armed Struggle up to Referendum in 1993.

The third unit highlights the post-colonial history of Africa. The major issues included in the chapter are the National Liberation Movement and the Rise of Independent States in Africa; Apartheid in South Africa; Pan-Africanism and the OAU; Successes and Failures of the OAU; Struggle for Economic Independence; and Major Issues in Contemporary Africa.

The fourth unit is titled Post-1991 Developments in Ethiopia. It highlights,

among others, the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE); The 1991 Transitional Charter and the Formation of TGE; The 1995 Constitution and the Formation of the FDRE; Hydro-Political History of the Nile(Abay) Basin and Development Issues; Hydro-Political History of the Nile(Abay) Basin; Development Issues & Challenges of Democratization Process in Ethiopia.

The Fifth chapter deals with the Indigenous Knowledge and Heritage of Ethiopia. It commences by defining the term Indigenous Knowledge. It also highlights the salient features of indigenous knowledge and its role in overall Development. The chapter also highlights the Meaning and Values of Heritage, Heritages of Ethiopia, and Types of Heritages.

UNIT 5: GLOBAL AND REGIONAL DEVELOPMENTS SINCE 1945



Unit Introduction

Dear learner, welcome to the first unit of the module. In the unit, you will explore some of the most significant historical developments that have unfolded in world history since 1945. The unit primarily focuses on the history and characteristics of the Cold War. It includes the following key points: The United Nations: its foundation, mission, values, and accomplishments; the rise of the superpowers and the beginning of the Cold War; Situations in Asian countries like Japan, Vietnam, China, and Korea during the Cold War, and the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM); the Arab-Israeli War; and the fall of Communism in Asia during the Cold War.

Unit Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

- evaluate the socio-economic features of the world in the post-WWII;
- examine the political condition of the world during the cold war;
- assess the sweeping changes that took place in the contemporary world;
- identify and discuss the major contemporary historical issues of the world;
- examine the major problems facing the contemporary world; and
- assess the political and socio-economic developments in the Middle East.

Unit Contents

Section 5.1. The United Nations Organization: Formation, Mission, Principles and Achievements

Section 5.2. The Rise of the Superpowers and the Beginning of the Cold War

Section 5.3. Situations in Asia during the Cold War: Japan, Korea, China, Vietnam

Section 5.4. Non-Aligned Movement /NAM/

Section 5.5. The Arab-Israeli Conflict

Section 5.6. The Collapse of the Soviet Union

The Required Study Time: _____ Periods.

Unit Learning Strategies:

Whether you are in junior high, high school, or college, learning materials are probably part of your history classes. This may be intimidating since learning materials are big and packed with information. How can you possibly learn all that? Do not worry! Learning materials are easier to read than you think. They are very straightforward and clear about the information you have to know. The best way to read a history learning material is by chapter because each chapter has a clear point. With the right strategies, you can break down each chapter and learn everything you need to know.

Skim the layout and contents at the beginning of the chapter. The module has a table of contents (toc) at the beginning of each chapter. The toc outlines the headings for each section, so you can tell where the chapter is going. Look at these headings and anticipate what this chapter will be about.

There are usually clues in the chapter headings. For example, if a heading starts with "The Arab-Israeli Conflict ..." you can anticipate that this section will be about the wars fought between the Arabs and Israel.

Read the introduction and summary of each chapter attentively to get the chapter's main idea. Every chapter has an introduction that summarises the whole chapter. Even better, most introductions and summaries are usually only a paragraph long. This is a great way to get the main ideas for each chapter without reading a lot. Be sure to read them carefully and write down the themes the author says they will cover.

Get the main idea by reading the first and last sentences of paragraphs. This classic reading trick usually works very well for history textbooks. The first and last sentences of paragraphs usually summarise the entire paragraph and give you the main points. Reading these two sentences in each paragraph lets you get all the necessary information without reading every word.

Write down any bold vocabulary words that you come across. Textbooks usually have a vocabulary list for each chapter, and these terms appear in bold throughout the text. These words are important for the chapter, so always write them down and define them. This way, you have a simple list

of key terms to study later.

If the term is not defined in the text, check the glossary at the back of the book for the definition. You may have already done this if you checked the end of the chapter for a vocabulary list. Not all textbooks have a list at the end of the chapter, so writing them down as you read is good practice.

Skip the explanations for graphs or charts that are self-explanatory. History textbooks might have visual aids like graphs, timelines, or maps. Usually, the few paragraphs around these images explain what they show. The images are often self-explanatory, and you do not need to read the other text. This is a good way to read quickly and retain all the information.

Stop and summarize what you read at the end of each section. It is easy to lose focus while reading, especially if you are not interested in the subject. Keep yourself on track by stopping for a minute to summarize what you have read at the end of each section. You are on the right track if you write a few sentences about the content and conclusions of that section. If not, go back and review it more.

If you have trouble remembering what you have read, you should adjust your reading style. For example, if you are skipping around a lot, try going slower and reading whole paragraphs instead of just a few sentences.

Writing things down in your own words can help make it easier to digest what you read.

To remember what was in a passage you just read, write down your summary on a sticky note, then place the sticky note in the text next to that passage.

Finish the whole chapter to get all the information you need. While you can skip around and skim, you still have to go through the whole chapter. History learning material chapters are usually organized by topic, so you will miss important information if you only read part of it. Use these skimming and reading techniques to get through the whole chapter, and you will not miss anything.

You do not have to read the whole chapter at once. If you are getting bored or need help paying attention, read the chapter in 10-page chunks so you do not tune out.

Memory and Study Tips:

- Take notes after each section instead of writing as you read.
- Highlight and underline only key information.
- Stop and look up any unfamiliar words or concepts.
- Jot down questions or doubts you have about the chapter.



<https://www.wikihow.com/Read-History-Textbooks#/Image:Read-History-Textbooks-Step-12.jpg>

Section 5.1 The United Nations Organization: Formation, Mission, Principles and Achievements

Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the first section of the module. This section is devoted to the history of the United Nations Organization (UNO). The UNO is an intergovernmental organization whose stated purposes are to maintain international peace and security, develop friendly relations among nations, achieve international cooperation, and be a center for harmonizing the actions of nations. This section highlights the foundation of the United Nations Organization; Missions of the UNO; Principles and Achievements.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- explain how and why the UN was established;
- outline the founding conferences of the UN;
- design a chart showing the main organs of the UN; and
- acknowledge the principles and roles of the UN.

The United Nations is a global organization that was established in 1945. There are currently 193 UN member states. The United Nations' mission and operations are driven by the goals and ideals outlined in its founding Charter. The predecessor of the United Nations was the League of Nations, which existed from 1926 to 1946 and failed to achieve its most fundamental goal of preventing another global war.

The League of Nations had several weaknesses that finally led to its demise. Among these, the first was the inability of the world's most powerful governments to join the League, most notably the United States. Second, during the 1930s, League members hesitated to denounce Japanese, Italian, and German aggression strongly.



Self-test Exercise 5.1

Answer the following:

1. What is the purpose of the UN?
2. What are the six organs of the UN?



Figure 5.1 The flag of the UNO

The UN has six official languages: Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. Five of the official languages were chosen when the UN was founded (the languages of the permanent members of the Security Council, plus Spanish, which was the official language of the largest number of nations at the time). Arabic was added in 1973. The Secretariat uses two working languages, English and French.



Timeline of the history of the United Nations:

- August 1941- U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt and British Prime Minister Winston Churchill signed the Atlantic Charter;
- On January 1, 1942, 26 countries signed the Declaration by the United Nations, which set forth the war aims of the Allied powers. At this time, the name United Nations was used;
- October and December 1943: The idea for the United Nations found expression in declarations signed at conferences in Moscow and Tehran ;
- September 1944: U.S., British, Soviet Union, and Chinese representatives(“ Big Four” met at Dumbarton Oaks in Washington in August and drafted the charter; and
- June 26, 1945: The 50 nations represented in San Francisco signed the Charter of the United Nations. Poland was not represented at the conference but signed the charter, bringing the original signatories to 51.

The United Nations has four main goals: to maintain international peace and security; to foster friendly relations among nations; to collaborate in the resolution of global economic, social, cultural, and humanitarian problems; to promote respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; and to protect the Earth and its environment.

The essential principles underlying the purposes and functions of the organization are:

The UN is based on the sovereign equality of its members; disputes are to be settled through peaceful means; members are to refrain from the threat or use of force in violation of the UN's purposes; each member must assist

the organization in any enforcement actions it takes under the Charter; and non-intervention in matters considered within the domestic authority of any state.

The Structure of the UN

The six main organs of the UN are:

1. **The General Assembly:-** This is the meeting of the representatives of all member nations. There is only one vote per nation. It meets once a year to discuss global problems, consider the UN budget, and elect the members of the Security Council.
2. **Security Council:-** The Security Council maintains peace and security among countries. It is the most powerful body of the UNO. The decisions of the Council are known as United Nations Security Council Resolutions. The Security Council comprises five permanent members-United States, Britain, France, Russia and China and ten non-permanent members, who are elected for two years by the General Assembly. The permanent members can veto any of the decisions and prevent any action.
3. **The Secretariat :-** The Secretariat is headed by the Secretary-General and consists of many employees. The Secretary General's duties include helping resolve international disputes, administering peacekeeping operations, organizing international conferences, gathering information on implementing Security Council decisions and consulting with member governments regarding various international relations initiatives.



The Secretary Generals of the UNO

<i>Trygve Lie of Norway</i>	<i>1946-52</i>
<i>Dag Hammarskjöld of Sweden</i>	<i>1952-61</i>
<i>U Thant of Myanmar, Burma</i>	<i>1961-71</i>
<i>Kurt Waldheim of Austria</i>	<i>1971-81</i>
<i>Javier Perez de Cuellar of Peru</i>	<i>1981-91</i>
<i>Boutros Boutros-Ghali of Egypt</i>	<i>1991-96</i>
<i>Kofi Anan of Ghana</i>	<i>1997-2006</i>
<i>Ban Ki-Moon of South Korea</i>	<i>2007-2016</i>

Trusteeship Council:- Trusteeship Council aims to help countries under foreign rule to attain independence. Eleven such countries came under

this system after the Second World War. By 1994, all Trust Territories had attained independence. The last to do was Palau.

1. International Court of Justice:- The International Court of Justice is the principal judicial organ of the UN. The seat of the Court is in The Hague, Netherlands. It is composed of 15 judges elected by the General Assembly.
2. The Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) assists the General Assembly in promoting international economic and social cooperation and development.



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Self-test Exercise 5.2

Part I: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. All of the following countries have veto power in the UN Security Council EXCEPT
A. Japan B. USA C. Russia D. Britain
2. The United Nations Charter in 1945 was signed by _____ Countries.
A. 63 B. 51 C. 193 D. 76

3. Which of the following is not the main organ of the United Nations?
 - A. The General Assembly
 - B. The Secretariat
 - C. International Monetary Fund
 - D. International Court of Justice
 - E. Economic and Social Council
4. The official languages of the "United Nations" include the following except
 - A. Swahili
 - B. Arabic
 - C. English
 - D. Chinese
5. The US president who an important pivotal role in the foundation of the United Nations (UN)
 - A. Harry Truman
 - B. Franklin D. Roosevelt
 - C. Winston Churchill
 - D. Woodrow Wilson
6. The goal of the United Nations is to:
 - A. promote respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms
 - B. protect the Earth and its environment
 - C. collaborate in the resolution of global economic and social problems
 - D. maintain international peace and security
 - E. All of the above



Activity 5.1

1. Elaborate some of the mechanisms that the UN Security Council employs to maintain peace and security.
2. List the United Nations Organization Secretary Generals from the first to the present.

Section 5.2 The Rise of the Superpowers and the Beginning of the Cold War



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the second section of the unit. A superpower is a state with military or economic might or both and a general influence vastly superior to that of other states. The United States (USA) and USSR emerged as superpowers immediately after World War II. The open yet restricted rivalry that developed after World War II between the United States, the Soviet Union, and their respective allies is known as the Cold war. The Cold War was waged on political, economic, and propaganda fronts and had only limited recourse to weapons.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- examine the US-Soviet relations during and after WWII;
- point out the salient features of the Cold War;
- evaluate the methodologies employed by the superpowers to implement their political, economic and military goals.

US-Soviet Russian Relations During WWII

Tensions between the Soviet Union and the Western powers increased from 1945 to 1947, especially when Stalin's plans to consolidate Soviet control of Central and Eastern Europe became manifestly clear in Potsdam, Yalta, and Tehran. The western countries feared that the communists, led by the Soviet Union, were planning to take over Europe.

The Second World War resulted in the emergence of two superpowers: the USA (United States of America) and the USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republic). The United States was the sole superpower that possessed atomic weapons at that time, after bombarding Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945. The American economy was strong and healthy. The United States strengthened its military and political influence in Europe and Asia, consolidating its status as a leading world power.

The Soviet Union's economy was seriously affected by the war. The Soviet Union suffered huge losses, including 20 million deaths and heavy damage to industry and agriculture during World War II. Joseph Stalin wanted to protect the USSR from further attack by establishing "satellite nations" that were sympathetic and allies to communism along its western borders.

In 1944 and 1945, the Soviet Red Army liberated and occupied Poland, Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary. The Soviets established a communist regime in these countries. In these Eastern European countries, the Allies desired free elections. However, around 1948, the Soviet Union was able to crush opposing groups and completely subjugate East European countries to communist parties. The countries of Eastern Europe were known as "European People's Democracies" or Soviet satellite states or the formation of a Soviet. They were under heavy political, economic and military influence or control of Soviet Russia.

The political, military, and ideological barrier erected by the Soviet Union after World War II to seal off itself and its satellite states from open contact with the West and other noncommunist areas was known as Iron Curtain. Winston Churchill coined the term in 1946 during his speech in Fulton, Missouri. It was an imaginary political boundary dividing Europe into two separate areas from World War II in 1945 to the end of the Cold War in 1991. However, it seemed clear after the war that the Soviets were still committed to expanding communism worldwide.



Map 5.1 The Iron Curtain: imaginary line dividing Europe into two parts, (source: <https://www.google.com/search?q=iron+curtain+powerpoint>)



Activity 5.2

1. Write the names of the superpowers during the cold war.
-
-

2. Refer to the following documentary film about the Cold War from the following website or additional reading material and answer the following question: (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NF3u8Ju9aAg>)

Explain the differences between the USA and Soviet Russia in terms of ideology, economic system, and governance.

Characteristics of Cold War



The Cold War was the continuing state of political conflict, military tension, proxy wars, and economic competition primarily between the Soviet Union and its allies, on the one hand, and the USA and its western allies on the other, after World War II. It was called the Cold War because there was large scale war directly between the two nations.

As they were significantly stronger than any other country, these two countries are generally called superpowers. However, the term "Cold war" became popular or got wider currency in April 1947 when journalist Walter Lippmann published a book on U.S.-Soviet tensions entitled "The Cold War". There are different interpretations of the causes of the Cold war. Western writers blamed Russia. They said Stalin was trying to build up a Soviet empire. Other historians blamed America, particularly President Truman, as a cause for the Cold war. Recently, most historians argued that the misunderstanding between the USA and Soviet Russian leaders was responsible for the beginning of the Cold war.



The fundamental difference between the USA and The Soviet Union

Points of differences	USA	Soviet Union
Ideology	Capitalism, Western democracy	Communism, Marxism-Leninism
governance	multi-party system	Mono-Party rule (One)
Property ownership	Private ownership	Public (state) ownership
Economic system	Free market economy	Command economy

Table 5.1 The difference between the USA and the Soviet Union in terms of ideology, governance, and economy

The US and the USSR used various methods to achieve their goals during the Cold war period. The most important strategies of the Cold war include:

1. **The arms race:** from 1945 onwards, both sides have been engaged in an ongoing nuclear and conventional arms competition.
2. **Espionage:** collecting intelligence and information through spies and secret agents.
3. **Propaganda:** Information, ideas or rumours disseminated to influence others.
4. **Military Alliances:** the development of opposing military alliances, such as NATO for the United States and Western Europe and the Warsaw Pact for the Soviet Union and its satellite states.
5. **Aid programs:** Both sides strove to expand their influence by providing aid to underdeveloped nations in particular.
6. **Proxy wars:** armed conflict between states or groups that represents the interest of the superpowers.

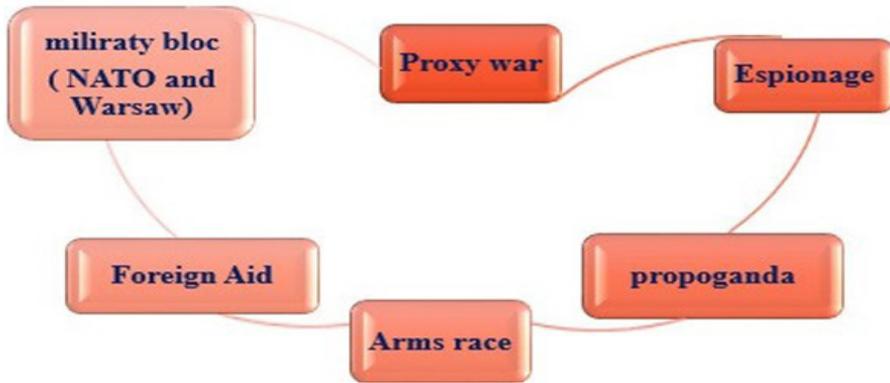


Diagram 5.1 Shows the strategies of the Cold war



Activity 5.3

Explain briefly the methodologies employed by the superpowers to achieve their political and economic goals.

The Truman Doctrine

Early in 1947, the US emerged as the west's leader in the face of Soviet expansion. When the British government indicated it would no longer be able to protect the eastern Mediterranean region, Western nations were concerned that Greece, Turkey, and the Middle East, with their vast oil reserves, might fall to communism.

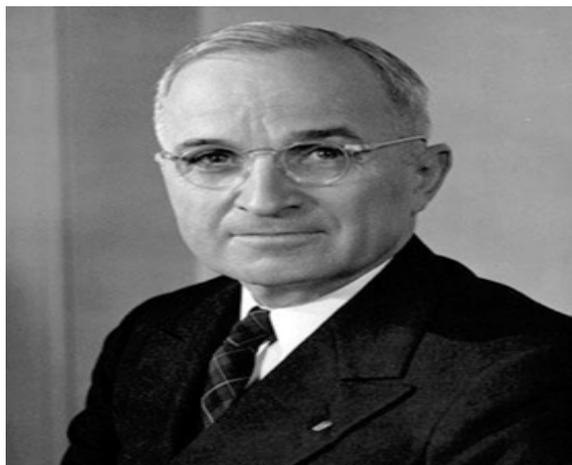


Figure 5.2 President H. Truman

The United States decided to act. It issued what became known as the Truman Doctrine in March 1947. The United States was resolved to stop communism's spread. For this purpose, Truman said that the United States utilizes its money, supplies, and technological knowledge to assist countries threatened by communism. Truman requested \$400 million in funding and other supplies from Congress to assist in the defense of Greece and Turkey against communist attacks. In 1949, the Greek government suppressed the communist movement with American financial and technical assistance. Following that, the United States adopted a new strategy known as Containment to stop or slow the expansion of communism. George Kennan was the originator of the Containment Doctrine.

The Marshall Plan

Europe was devastated by years of conflict during World War II. Millions of people had been killed or wounded. Industrial and residential centres were ruined. Much of Europe was on the brink of famine as agricultural production had been disrupted by war. Transportation infrastructure was in disaster. In 1947, the United States Secretary of State, George Marshall, announced a new policy that came to be known as the **European recovery program**, often called the **Marshall Plan**. The USA raised \$17 Billion in the economic and technical assistance of 16 European countries.



Aims of the Marshall Plan

- *To stop the spread of Communism (main political motives of the USA*
- *To help economies of Europe recover, and*
- *To provide a market for American goods.*



Figure 5.3 The motto of the Marshal Plan,(source: https://www.wikiwand.com/en/Marshall_Plan)



Self-test Exercise 5.3

Part I: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

- The main goal of the USA during the Cold War was to:
 - help developing countries
 - strengthen ties with non-capitalist nations
 - contain communism
 - prevent wars
- The first beneficiary country by the Truman Doctrine was:
 - Italy
 - Greece
 - Austria
 - Iran
- The Soviet Union during the Cold War was mainly aimed to:
 - unite Germany
 - spread communism
 - militarize Asian nations
 - expand capitalist ideologies
- The architect of the containment policy was _____.
 - George Marshal
 - George Kennan
 - Truman
 - W. Churchill
- The Soviet satellite states were _____.
 - western European countries that followed the socialist path of development
 - eastern European countries that followed the capitalist path of development

- C. countries that were under the influence or aligned with the USA
 - D. countries that were aligned with or influenced by the Soviet Union
6. All are aims of the Marshall Plan, EXCEPT
- A. stopping the spread of Communism
 - B. helping economies of Europe recover
 - C. providing a market for American goods
 - D. preventing economic development in Europe

The Americans also tried to extend aid to the Soviet Union and its satellites, but the latter rejected it. Joseph Stalin, the Soviet leader, denounced it as a “Dollar Imperialism” and banned the Soviet satellites from joining it. The Soviet response to the Marshall plan was known as the Molotov Plan, named after the Russian foreign minister, to provide aid to rebuild the countries in Eastern Europe that were politically and economically aligned to the Soviet Union (aka satellite state).



Figure 5.4 George Marshall, American Secretary of State

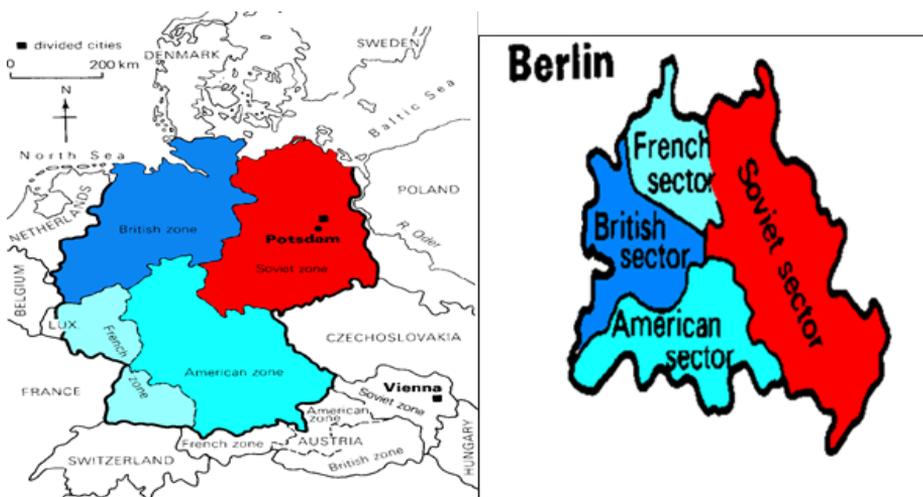
The Division of Germany

After conquering Nazi Germany in WWII, the occupying powers split Germany into four zones: Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States. Even though each power was in command of its zone, the four powers aspired to administer Germany collaboratively and

cooperatively. Despite its location in the heart of the Soviet Zone in Eastern Germany, Berlin was split into four parts. In January 1948, the United Kingdom and the United States united their two zones and named it Bizonia. Later, the Trizonia (three zones) was created when the French zone merged into Bizonia in April 1949.

The Berlin Blockade lasted from 24 June 1948 to 12 May 1949 and was one of the Cold War's first significant international crises. Stalin imposed the Berlin Blockade in June 1948, prohibiting food, resources, and supplies from reaching West Berlin. The large "Berlin airlift," which supplied West Berlin with food and other supplies, was launched by the United States and numerous other nations in response. The Soviet Union lifted the blockade of West Berlin on 12 May 1949. The Berlin Blockade exposed postwar Europe's conflicting ideological and economic ambitions.

One of the consequences of the Berlin blockade was the establishment of two German states. In August 1949, the western powers set up the German Federal Republic (FRG), known as West Germany. Konrad Adenauer became the first Chancellor of FRG. The German Democratic Republic (GDR), or East Germany, began functioning as a state on 7 October 1949. Germany remained divided until the collapse of communism in East Germany (December 1989).



Map 5.2 The division of Germany, (source: Adapted from <https://slidetodoc.com/division-of-germany-where-germany-europe-west-germany/>)



The Consequences of the Berlin Blockade

- To provide a market for American goods.
- Cold War worsened.
- Two Germans created: East and West Germany.
- Led to formation of military blocs: NATO and the Warsaw Pact.
- Arms Race intensified.

Military Blocs and the Arms Race

In March 1948, Britain, France, Holland, Belgium and Luxembourg signed the Brussels Defense Treaty promoting collaboration in case of war. It was becoming increasingly clear that no European force would be strong enough to stop the Soviet Red Army if Stalin attacked them. As a result, in March 1949, the Brussels Pact opened secret negotiations with the Americans, and in April 1949, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) was founded. It was signed by 12 nations: the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Portugal, Norway, Denmark, Iceland, Canada, Belgium, The Netherlands, and Luxembourg. Greece and Turkey joined in 1952, and West Germany in 1955. In May 1955, in Warsaw, Poland, the Soviet government held a meeting of representatives of the governments of the Eastern Europe communist bloc-Poland, East Germany, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, and Albania who formed a military bloc known as **the Warsaw Pact**.

The Arms Race

The Cold War between the US and the Soviet Union was possibly the world's greatest and most costly weapons race. The arms race is defined as a fast growth in the number or quality of military force instruments. The atomic bombings of the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945 sparked an arms race between the United States and the Soviet Union. This event signalled the start of the Nuclear Age. However, the Soviet Union launched an atomic weapon in 1949, initiating the Cold War nuclear arms race. Both sides were competing to acquire more nuclear weapons than the other. They also attempted to create more powerful weaponry.

In the 1950s, tension grew between the two superpowers. The Americans worried about an advancing tide of communism following the success of the communist revolution in Asia. In 1949, Mao Tse Tung(Mao Zedong) established the Chinese communist government. In 1950, Communist North Korea invaded South Korea. In addition, there were strong communist movements in Vietnam. As a result, the arms race intensified as both powers invested a vast budget to produce armaments.



Arms Race Timeline

- **1952-** Americans exploded the Hydrogen bomb. 2500 times more powerful than the atomic bomb
- **1953-** the Russian produced Hydrogen bomb
- **1953-55:** This was a period of soft relations (Thaw) between the USA and Soviet Russia. The factors that contributed to these developments were: the death of Joseph Stalin and his successor Khrushchev came with a policy of destalinization and peace co-existence.
- **21 August 1957-**First ICBM missile was launched by USSR.
- **4 October 1957-** the Soviets launched the first earth satellite known as Sputnik. Nuclear arms supremacy became in the hands of Russian in 1957

Another development in the arms race was the invention of ICBM (Intercontinental Ballistic Missile). The Russians were the first to produce ICBM. The ICBM is a nuclear war that carries a rocket powerful to hit America when fired from Russia. Soon the Americans produced their version known as the Atlas.



Figure 5.5 Intercontinental Ballistic Missile, (source: <https://www.google.com/search?q=intercontinental+ballistic+missiles+cold+war>)

The arms race between the two superpowers increased fear and hostility on the part of the countries involved in the race and the world at large. Moreover, it displaced more productive forms of investment. For instance, the Soviet Union's economic difficulties were certainly aggravated by the high proportion of the gross domestic product devoted to arms.

The weapons race also impacts poorer countries because those emerging countries were victims of the debt issue as they imported more weaponry from manufacturers. In addition, the arms race intensified the probability of war by undermining military stability and damaging political relations.



Self-test Exercise 5.4

1. Elaborate the motives of the Marshall plan
2. Explain the arms race and its effects on the USA and the Soviet Union.

Section 5.3. Situations in Asia during the Cold War: Japan, Korea, China, and Vietnam



Section Overview

Dear student, this section explores situations in Asia during the cold war. It explores a history of major Asian country like Japan, Korea, China, and

Vietnam. It pinpoints with which super power`1 these countries allied.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learner will be able to:

- appreciate the national liberation movements of Asian people;
- compare and contrast the role of the USA and the Soviet Union in the internal
- affairs of Asian nations after WWII ;
- explain how the Non-Aligned Movement started; and
- discuss the achievements of the Non -Aligned Movement.

Japan

Before World War II, Japan had been the most industrialized Asian nation. Although the destruction of many factories and the loss of its Asian possessions hurt Japan's economy, its post-war recovery was rapid and impressive. After that, however, the Cold war led to a reversal of Japan's international position.

Since its loss in World War II, Japan has been a close ally of the United States. The success of the communists in China and Korea shifted American strategy in Japan. The US-led economic assistance packages quickly renewed the industrial growth that had turned Japan into an imperial capitalist nation before the war. The United States began assisting Japan as a prospective ally in the face of Soviet expansion. Japan's post-war experience has been distinct. In the post-World War II era, Japan's success was an economic miracle. By 1985, Japan became the world's second-largest industrial power, with increasing dominance in international commerce. By the mid-1980s, Japan had a massive trade surplus worldwide, especially with the United States and Europe.

China

During World War II, China was occupied by the Japanese army. The two conflicting forces in China, the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) led by Mao Tse Tung (**Mao Zedong**), and the nationalists or **Kuomintang party(KMT)** led by **Chiang Kai-shek agreed** to stop their civil war and form a united front against their common enemy, Japan. However, their alliance broke down before the end of the war. During the civil war from 1946 to 1949, the CCP won and gained the upper hand. In October 1949, the People's Republic of China (PRC) was formed by the Chinese Communists and forced the

Kuomintang government to flee to Taiwan (Formosa).

During the civil war, the Americans supported the Chiang Kai-shek government. The USA government continued to support the nationalist Government in Taiwan. The Chinese Communist Party regarded the US as a serious threat to Communist China. In June 1949, the Chinese Communist leader Mao announced that New China would support the Soviet Union in international affairs. The Chinese and Soviet leaders signed the Sino-Soviet Treaty of Friendship, Alliance, and Mutual Assistance on February 14, 1950.

The United States gave aid to the Chiang Kai-shek government for many years and kept troops and a fleet based in Taiwan. The Republic of China, also called Nationalist China, led by Chiang Kai Shek, occupied China's permanent seat on the United Nations Security Council. The US used its veto power not to admit Communist China to the UN. In 1971, however, the PRC was admitted to the UN, and the Nationalists were expelled.

The Korean War: 1950-53

From 1910 to 1945, Korea was a colony of Japan. By an agreement reached at the end of World War II, the Soviet Union occupied northern Korea, and the United States occupied southern Korea. The dividing line was the 38th parallel of latitude. Each occupying power organised the government in its zone. In 1948, The Republic of Korea was formed in South Korea with Syngman Rhee as the president. Its capital was Seoul. At the same time, a Democratic People's Republic, known as North Korea, was formed in the north. Its president was Kim Il Sung. The United States recognised South Korea as the legal government, while communist countries recognised only North Korea.

In June 1950, the North Korean army invaded South Korea. As Kim Il-Sung's North Korean army armed with Soviet tanks, quickly overran South Korea, the United States came to South Korea's aid. The United Nations members supported South Korea with manpower and supplies to resist the aggression.

The UN troops crossed North Korea and approached the border of China. This provoked the Chinese to launch a massive attack against the UN

forces and South Korea. A Chinese army of 300,000 men (Known as the “Volunteers”) forced the UN troops to retreat. In 1953 a peace treaty was signed at **Panmunjom** that ended the Korean War.



Result of the Korean War

- *Death and displacement of Koreans, destruction of industries, agriculture ruined, and millions became refugees*
- *Saved South Korea from communism.*
- *Revival of the relationship between Russia and China.*
- *China became a major power in Asia and saved North Korea from America.*
- *Increased American protection for Taiwan (Formosa.)*
- *The strength of the communist movement in Asia forced the Western powers to establish a military bloc in south East Asia. As a result, SEATO (South East Asia Treaty Organization) was formed in 1954 as a branch of NATO in Asia. Member countries were Australia, France, New Zealand, Pakistan (including East Pakistan, now Bangladesh), the Philippines, Thailand, the United Kingdom and the United States*

The First Indo-China War (1946-54)

Indo-china includes the modern states of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia. These countries had been French colonies since the 19th century. During the Second World War, Indo-China came under Japanese occupation. It compelled the people of Indo-China to fight for independence.

The First Indochina War was an anti-colonial war that started following the defeat of Japan in the Second World War. The war started in 1946 and lasted until 1954. During this war, the people of Vietnam were led by the communist Ho Chi Minh, who established an organization known as Viet Minh (Vietnamese Independent League).

Viet Minh was a Communist independence movement in Vietnam, founded in 1941. The Chinese communists and Soviet Russia supported the Viet Minh with military aid. President Truman of the USA promised to return Indochina to France after WW II.

The US was worried about the spread of communism in Asia and supported the French. The Indo-China war was unpopular in France, particularly among French Communists. It was known as the “**Dirty war**”.



Figure 5.6 Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969)

The US used **Domino Theory** to describe growing concern over communist influence in Indochina. This theory was quite clear: if the communists were not stopped, then they would expand to neighbouring countries. The Viet Minh defeated the French forces at the Battle of Dien Bien Phu on 7 May 1954. In peace negotiations at Geneva (the Geneva Accords May 1954), the decision was reached to divide Vietnam into northern and southern halves. Laos and Cambodia were made independent. North and South Vietnam were separated at the 17th parallel.



Map 5.3 The division of Vietnam, (source: vietnamwar50th.com)

In the North, a Democratic Republic of Vietnam was established by the communists, headed by **Ho Chi Minh**, with its capital at Hanoi. In contrast, South Vietnam, with its capital at Saigon, would remain non-communist. The Soviet Union and the People's Republic of China supported the North, while the United States was determined to maintain an independent, non-communist South Vietnam.

In December 1960, the National Liberation Front, commonly called the Viet Cong, emerged to challenge the South Vietnamese government. They were trained and supported by North Communists. As a result, the Second Indochina War (1957-1973) began in earnest with the US commitment to preventing the communists from controlling South Vietnam.

In the spring of 1961, the administration of John F. Kennedy expanded US support for the South Vietnamese government, including an increase in US military advisers. The 'Strategic Hamlet' program or Safe Village Policy "was introduced. It was a policy to stop the Vietcong from getting their supplies and soldiers from villages. In practice, it meant destroying peasant villages

near areas held by the Vietcong and forcefully relocating the people.

In 1965, President Johnson began a campaign of sustained airstrikes (bombing) against the North that was code-named Rolling Thunder. The fight expanded to neighbouring Laos and Cambodia during the reign of Nixon, and a program known as Vietnamization was introduced. Vietnamization was a strategy that aimed to reduce American involvement in the Vietnam War by transferring all military responsibilities to South Vietnam.

On January 27, 1973, an agreement on ending the war and restoring peace in Vietnam was signed by representatives of the South Vietnamese communist forces, North Vietnam, South Vietnam, and the United States. In 1975, the North Vietnamese finally achieved the objective of uniting the country under one communist government. The Socialist Republic of Vietnam was formally established on July 2, 1976, and Saigon was renamed Ho Chi Minh City.

- The major factors for the victory of the Vietnamese people during the Second Indo-China war include:
 - The Vietcong (the NLF) had widespread support from the masses;
 - The Vietnamese were experts at guerilla fighting;
 - Support from North Vietnam, China and Russia; and
 - The North Vietnamese were dedicated to eventual victory and the unification of their country.



Self-test Exercise 5.5

Part I: True/false Items. Write true if the statement is correct and false if it is incorrect.

1. The founder of the Chinese Communist party was Chiang Kai Shek.
2. The French-Vietnamese confrontation from 1946-54 was known as the "Dirty War".
3. Korea was a Chinese colony before WW II.
4. South Korea has been a close ally of the communist bloc after WW II.
5. A Democratic Republic of Vietnam was established by the communists under the leadership of Ho Chi Minh.

Part II: Matching Item: Match items under column B with their correct matches under Column A.

A	B
1. The first president of South Korea	A. Ho Chi Minh
2. A Vietnamese communist and revolutionary leader	B. Kim Il Sung
3. The US president known for his policy of "Vietnamization"	C. R. Nixon
4. A Communist Independence movement in Vietnam	D. Syngman Rhee
5. A Communist leader and founder of North Korea	E. Viet Minh

Part III: Answer for the following questions

1. Discuss the policies implemented by the American presidents during the Vietnam war.
2. What was the intention of USA in the Second Indo-China war?

Section 5.4. Non- Aligned Movement

The Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) was formed during the Cold War as an organization of States that did not seek to formally align themselves with the United States or the Soviet Union but sought to remain independent or neutral. NAM is an international organization which was not officially aligned with or against any significant power bloc. Almost all the Asian, African, and Latin American states are members, and they have come together despite their political, economic, and cultural differences. NAM does not mean the neutrality of the state on global issues. On the contrary, it was always a peaceful intervention in world politics. During the movement's early days, its actions were critical factors in decolonization, leading to achieving freedom and independence.

The basic concept for the NAM originated in 1955 during the Asia-Africa Bandung Conference held in Indonesia. This Conference was held in Bandung on April 18-24, 1955 and gathered 29 Heads of State belonging to the first post-colonial generation of leaders from the two continents (Africa and Asia). The participants of the Bandung conference urged

the formation of a United Nations Fund for economic development; they condemned Apartheid, racial discrimination and colonialism.

The first NAM Conference took place in Belgrade, Yugoslavia, in September 1961. The most important leaders of the Non-Aligned Movement were Joseph Broz Tito of Yugoslavia, Gamal Abdel Nasser of Egypt, Jawaharlal Nehru of India, Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, and Sukarno of Indonesia.

The purpose of the organization was enumerated in the Havana Declaration of 1979 to ensure “the national independence, sovereignty, territorial integrity and security of non-aligned countries” in their struggle against imperialism, colonialism, neocolonialism, racism, and all forms of foreign subjugation.



Self-test Exercise 5.6

Write an appropriate answer for the following questions.

1. List the founding fathers of the Non-Aligned Movement.

2. Explain the objectives of the Non-Aligned Movement.

Section 5.5. The Arab-Israeli Conflict



Section Overview

Dear learner! This section will explore the sporadic conflict between the Arabs and Israel. It was a series of military conflicts between Israeli forces and various Arab forces, most notably in 1948–49, 1956, 1967, 1973, 1982, and 2006. The roots of the Arab–Israeli conflict have been attributed to the support by Arab League member countries for the Palestinians, a fellow League member, in the ongoing Israeli–Palestinian conflict; this, in turn, has been attributed to the simultaneous rise of Zionism and Arab nationalism towards the end of the 19th century.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:

- assess the political and socio-economic developments in the

Middle East after WWII;

- identify the major causes of the Arab-Israeli wars;
- examine the role of external forces in the Arab-Israeli war.

Before WWI, Palestine was under the occupation of the weak and declining Ottoman Turk administration. In 1915, hoping to secure support against the Ottoman Empire, the British promised Palestine to the Arabs. However, in 1917 the British supported the establishment of a Jewish homeland in Palestine in what was known as the Balfour Declaration.

After WWI and the destruction of the Ottoman Empire, Britain and France divided the Middle East into mandates they controlled directly. This included the territory of Palestine, where British officials had supported growing Jewish migration from Europe. In the 1920s and 1930s, there was growing Jewish immigration into Palestine. As a reaction against anti-Semitism in Europe, **Zionism**, a Jewish nationalist movement, grew in popularity. Zionists wanted to create a Jewish homeland.



Figure 5.7 Theodor Herzl

Theodor Herzl, the founder of Zionism, encouraged Jews to move to Palestine and buy land to have enough land to establish a state.

The demand for an independent Jewish state increased after the **Holocaust**. In 1947, in the aftermath of the Holocaust, the systematic state-sponsored killing of six million Jewish men, women, and children and millions of others by Nazi Germany and its collaborators during World War II, the British government presented the case of Palestine to the United Nations. The United Nations General Assembly decided to partition Palestine

into Jewish and Arab states. Jerusalem was to be internationalized. The Arabs opposed the decision claiming Palestine only for the Arabs. The Jews partially accepted the plan and proclaimed the establishment of the state of Israel on May 14, 1948.

The First Arab-Israeli War of 1948

On May 15, 1948, the governments of Egypt, Syria, Iraq, and Trans-Jordan (Jordan) declared war on Israel. The Jewish successfully repulsed repeated Arab attacks. By early 1949 the Israelis had occupied half of Jerusalem and the northwest coastal area along the Mediterranean Sea. In Israel, the war is remembered as the War of Independence. In the Arab world, it became known as the Nakbah (or Nakba; "Catastrophe") because of the many refugees and displaced persons resulting from the war.



Map 5.4 UN Partition Plan, 1947, (source: mfa.gov.il/MFA/)

The Suez War of 1956

On July 26, 1956, Gamal Abdel Nasser announced the nationalization of the Suez Canal Company. On October 29, 1956, Israeli forces attacked Egypt and started the second Arab-Israeli war, also known as the Suez Canal Crisis. Britain and France supported Israel. Soviet Russia, the USA and the UN forced Israel, Britain and France to stop the war and withdraw their forces. This action saved Egypt from total defeat.

The ‘Six Days War’

The Six-Day War, also known as the third Arab-Israeli war, was a bloody conflict fought in June 1967 between Israel and the Arab states of Egypt, Syria and Jordan. On June 5, 1967, the Israeli air force attacked Egyptian air bases and destroyed most of their air force while it was still on the ground. The war resulted in Israel controlling the Golan Heights, Jerusalem, the West Bank, the Gaza Strip, and the Sinai.

“Yom Kippur War”

On October 6, 1973, Egyptian and Syrian forces launched a coordinated attack against Israel on Yom Kippur, the holiest day in the Jewish calendar. An oil embargo was placed on Western nations that supported Israel. Oil prices increased drastically. The USA supported the Israeli forces, while the Soviet Union was on the side of Egypt. The Arab forces were defeated, and Israel seized even more territory in the Golan Heights. The Palestinian liberation struggle continued under the leadership of the PLO (Palestinian Liberation Organization). Yasir Arafat was a Palestinian political leader. He was the Chairman of the Palestine Liberation Organization from 1969 to 2004.



Figure 5.8 Yasser Arafat



Activity 5.4

1. Identify the British foreign policy regarding the Arab Israeli conflict before 1948.

2. Explain how Zionism and Arab nationalism led to the beginning of conflict between the Arabs and Israel?

Section 5.6. The Collapse of the Soviet Union



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the last section of the unit. The chapter highlights the reforms introduced by the Soviet leader, Mikhail Gorbachev and his reforms which paved the way for the disintegration of the USSR.

Gorbachev's policy

Mikhail Gorbachev became the leader of the Soviet Communist Party in 1985. He introduced two bold reforms called **glasnost** and **perestroika**. He was known for the beginning of liberalization in the USSR.



Figure 5.9. Mikhail Gorbachev

Glasnost, a Russian word, for openness or publicity, was a call for greater transparency in the Soviet government, allowing more freedom of speech and freedom of the press.

Perestroika refers to restructuring or reorganizing the USSR. It was a movement aimed at allowing private ownership of some businesses. Gorbachev's plan for economic restructuring focused on a hybrid communist-capitalist system.

Gorbachev's reforms encouraged people to demand more rights and freedom. They started protesting against their governments and the communist regimes that collapsed one after the other.

Changes in Eastern Europe

After WWII, the central and Eastern European countries, Poland, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia and East Germany, became Soviet satellites. In 1989, nationalist movements first started and brought regime change in Poland, and the movement soon spread to Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, and Romania. As these Soviet republics pulled away from the Soviet Union, the power of the central state weakened. All overthrew their communist regime peacefully except in Romania, where the revolution was violent.



Map 5.5 Central and Eastern Europe (Soviet satellites), (source: euroland. eklablog.com)

In 1991, fifteen sovereign states emerged from the collapse of the USSR: Russia, Ukraine, Georgia, Belorussia, Uzbekistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia.



Activity 5.5

1. Explain the impacts of Gorbachev's policy on the 1989 revolutions in Eastern Europe.

2. Why Gorbachev was forced to introduce his two reforms?



Unit Summary

While the United States and the Soviet Union worked together to defeat the Axis powers, their partnership quickly became a conflict and confrontation. This fierce conflict is called the “**Cold War**” since the two superpowers never directly engaged in combat (“**hot war**”).

Instead, they increased their military capabilities, tried to expand their global influence, and undermined others' way of life in the eyes of the world. While the United States believed in a capitalist system of free markets and multiple political parties, the Soviet Union was founded on a communist system controlled by a centralized state and a single political party.

The Cold War started in Europe. From 1945 to 1953, the USSR expanded its influence by creating the Eastern Bloc across states like Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Hungary. Stalin set up puppet communist governments that he could control. He repressed anyone who resisted him. The United States likewise began to meddle in the affairs of foreign nations where it feared communist regimes would gain control. This became known as a policy of containment.

The Cold War started in Europe and gradually spread to the Middle East, Asia, and Latin America, with each side trying to establish control. The Cold War finally ended in the 1990s. The USSR could no longer be on par with US military spending.

Meanwhile, economic problems in the Eastern Bloc and growing opposition to Soviet domination encouraged Eastern Europeans to revolt against communism. As a result, the new Soviet leader, Michael Gorbachev, proposed reforms to stimulate communist economies. His reforms were known as perestroika or “glasnosts”.

In 1989 anti-communism movements spread throughout the Eastern Bloc. The end of the Cold War was marked by the disintegration of the USSR into over a dozen independent nations.



Self-test Exercise 5.7

Part I: Fill in the blanks with an appropriate answers

1. The beginning of the space race marked by the event called_____.
2. The Russian response to the Marshal plan was known as _____.
3. _____ is a European nation that most benefited from Truman Doctrine.
4. _____ and _____ were the UN General Secretaries from Africa.
5. The UN organ that maintains peace and security among countries is _____.

Part II: Matching Item: Match items under column B with their correct matches under column A.

A	B
1. The first city to be hit by the atomic bomb	A. Sputnik
2. The first artificial satellite in history	B. Containment
3. Name given to the US and the USSR because of their dominance	C. Hiroshima
4. The US policy to stop the spread of communism	D. Iron curtain
5. Separates western Europe and eastern Europe	E. Superpowers

Part III: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. All of the following are the purpose of the UNO, EXCEPT ?
 - A. To maintain international peace and security
 - B. To develop friendly relations among nations
 - C. To cooperate in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems
 - D. To protect and promote capitalism
2. The slogan that best represented the motto of the Marshal Plan was?
 - A. Down to Dollar Imperialism
 - B. Stop! Apartheid Policy
 - C. Whatsoever the weather we will move together
 - D. Viva! Communism
3. The Cold War explained by the following features, EXCEPT
 - A. Espionage
 - B. Foreign Aid
 - C. Space race
 - D. Nuclear War
 - E. Economic competition

4. The event that describes an action taken by the United States in response to the Soviet expansion after WWII?
 - A. adopt a policy of containment
 - B. offer the Soviet Union financial assistance
 - C. launch a nuclear attack against the Soviet Union
 - D. negotiate with the Soviet Union about what territories they could expand into
5. Which of the following factors did not contribute to the downfall of the Soviet Union?
 - A. Gorbachev's Policies
 - B. Anti-Communist Movement in Eastern Europe
 - C. Economic troubles in the Soviet Union
 - D. The Regan Policy towards USSR
6. The political borders of Eastern European countries during the 1990s were changed as a result of the:
 - A. failure of communism
 - B. expansion of the Warsaw Pact
 - C. end of free trade
 - D. decline of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)
7. The result of the Korean War was best explained by:
 - A. the increasing demand for unification of the two Koreans by its political leaders
 - B. Korea remained divided as North and South Korea
 - C. the North's readiness to withdraw from Warsaw membership
 - D. little change with the border between the North and South Korea after the war

✓ Checklist

Put a tick mark (✓) in the boxes given to prove if you have understood the respective issues well.

1.	The United Nations Organization (UN)	
2.	The League of Nations	
3.	The Secretary Generals of the UN	
4.	The UN General Assembly	
5.	The UN Security Council	
6.	The six official languages of the UN	
7.	Iron Curtain	
8.	The Super Powers of post WWII	
9.	Cold War	
10.	The Truman Doctrine	
11.	The Marshal Plan	
12.	Military Blocks	
13.	The Arms Race	
14.	Mao Tse Tung (Mao Zedong)	
15.	The Korean War	
16.	The "Dirty war"	
17.	Domino Theory	
18.	Ho Chi Minh	
19.	The Non-Aligned Movement (NAM)	
20.	Bandung Conference	
21.	Zionism	
22.	The holocaust	
23.	The Suez Canal Crisis	
24.	Yom Kippur War	
25.	Glasnost and perestroika	
26.	Mikhail Gorbachev	
27.	The Palestine Liberation Organization	

Dear learner, did you mark a [✓] If not, please look at the corresponding item to the left and go back and read about it.

UNIT 6: ETHIOPIA: INTERNAL DEVELOPMENTS AND EXTERNAL INFLUENCES FROM 1941 TO 1991



Unit Introduction

Dear learner, welcome to the sixth unit of the module. This unit deals with Ethiopia's major socio-economic and political developments from 1941 to 1991, which saw strong foreign influence. It covers the following important lessons: major administrative reforms and socio-economic conditions in the post-liberation period, external influences (the British and the Americans), early opposition movements against the imperial rule, administrative reforms, the 1955 constitution, agriculture, land tenure and tenancy, trade, industry, financial sector, education, transport and communication, and health, the Ethiopian Revolution and the fall of the Monarchy, the Ethio-Somalia War and foreign influences, the Question of Eritrea and the fall of Derg.

Unit Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

- elaborate how the British established their dominance in Ethiopia immediately after the termination of the Fascist Italian rule;
- explain how the United States was involved in consolidating autocracy in Ethiopia;
- assess the causes and results of the Ethiopian Revolution of 1974;
- compare and contrast the land policies of the Imperial and the Derg regime;
- outline the major opposition movements against the imperial regime in Ethiopia;
- describe the process of federation and union of Eritrea with Ethiopia;
- distinguish the major factors for the decline of the Derg regime.

Unit Contents

Section 6.1 Major Administrative Reforms and Socio-Economic

Conditions in the Post-Liberation Period

6.1.1 External Influences

6.1.2 Administrative Reforms

6.1.3 The 1955 Constitution

6.1.4 Agriculture, Land Tenure and Tenancy

6.1.5 Trade, Industry, Financial Sector, Education, Transport and Communication, and Health

Section 6.2 Early Opposition Movements against the Imperial Rule

6.2.1 Peasant Revolts

6.2.2 The Coup of 1960

6.2.3 The Ethiopian Student Movement

Section 6.3 The Ethiopian Revolution and the Fall of the Monarchy

6.3.1 Deposition of the Emperor and Emergence of the *Derg*6.3.2 Socio-Economic and Political Reforms of the *Derg*Section 6.4 The Ethio-Somalia War and Foreign Influences, the Question of Eritrea, and the Fall of the *Derg*

6.4.1 The Ethio-Somalia War of 1977

6.4.2 The Question of Eritrea & the Armed Struggle up to Referendum

The Required Study Time: _____ Periods.

Unit Learning Strategies:

Dear learner, the detailed learning strategies mentioned at the beginning of unit one are also applicable here. You may use them here. Do not forget to attempt all the activities and exercises after reading the issues included in the unit. Try to tick the checklists included at the end of the unit.

Section 6.1 Major Administrative Reforms and Socio-Economic Conditions in the Post-Liberation Period



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the first section of the Unit. In the section you will explore Ethiopia's relations with Great Britain and USA and how the country became heavily dependent on these two western countries. The section also highlights the administrative reforms introduced by Emperor Haile Selassie I during the post liberation period. The Socio-economic conditions of the country, namely, agriculture, land tenure and tenancy; trade, industry etc. are also the issues that you will study in the unit.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- examine the impact of foreign influences on Ethiopia in the immediate post-liberation period;
- evaluate the essence of the treaties of 1942 and 1944 signed with Great;
- outline the political, economic and administrative changes in the post-liberation period;
- sketch a map that shows the administrative divisions of Ethiopia during the imperial regime;
- explain the differences between the 1931 and 1951 constitutions.
- Learning outcomes of the lesson;
- evaluate the socio-economic conditions of the imperial regime during the post-liberation period;
- examine the nature of the import-export trade of Ethiopia during the Imperial period.

6.1.1 External Influences

A. The British Era

In unit three you have studied the Fascist Italian Aggression and Ethiopian Patriotic Resistance which continued throughout the five years of Italian occupation. On May 5, 1941, Haile Selassie returned to Addis Ababa. Despite officially recognizing the sovereignty of Emperor Haile Selassie, Ethiopia remained under the control of Britain. The British military administration dictated all internal and external affairs of the country. They controlled the most important government bodies (the police force, the army, and finance). In addition, the British set up the Occupied Enemy Territory Administration (OETA) over Ogaden and Eritrea.



The first agreement Anglo-Ethiopian agreement British signed on 31 January 1942. The treaty recognized Ethiopia as an independent state. However, the agreement restricted the country's sovereignty in many ways. For instance,

- the Ethiopian army was to be trained by the British military mission;
- the British minister enjoyed a privilege over the other diplomatic representatives in Ethiopia ;
- British advisors were assigned to each government ministry office;
- the British military could use former Italian state property without payment; and
- the British were also to remain in control of the region termed as the Haud and the reserved area along the boundary with the British Somaliland and the rest of the Ogaden.
- The high-power radio transmitting station, the telephonesystem and the railway were to remain under the British control.
- The British East African Shilling was made the official Monetary Unit.

The **Second Anglo-Ethiopian treaty** was signed in December 1944. The British promised to restore Ogaden to Ethiopia and allowed Ethiopia to use the Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway. The privilege enjoyed by the British minister over the other diplomatic representatives in Ethiopia was also lifted. Moreover, the British agreed to train and modernize the Ethiopian army. Accordingly, they set up a British Military Mission to Ethiopia (BMME) mission. However, the Ogaden stayed under the British until 1954, while Eritrea remained under their administration from 1941 to 1952.



Activity 6.1

Answer the following Questions Appropriately.

1. Do you agree or disagree whether the first Anglo -Ethiopian Treaty made Ethiopia dependent or not. Explain why you take the position?

2. Which of the 1942 and 1944 agreements gave the Ethiopian state a relatively greater margin of independence?

Immediately after the end of the Second World War, the Ethiopian government demanded that Eritrea be unified with Ethiopia based on historical and geographical grounds. Different political parties emerged and came up with different options to address the question of Eritrea.

1. **The Unionist Party:** constituting the single largest political group, largely based on the Orthodox Christian and the Tigrigna speaking population, and demanded the unification of Eritrea with Ethiopia.
2. **The Independence bloc:** It was a collection of different groups that were united by their opposition to the union. It included:

A. The Muslim League, which had its stronghold in the Muslim-inhabited lowlands;

B. The Liberal Progressive Party, which campaigned for the independence of Eritrea, and to ultimately unit it with Tigray. It was a creation of the British, who advocated a policy of partitioning Eritrea by attaching the lowlands to Sudan and uniting the Tigrigna speaking highlands.

C. Pro-Italian party brought together Italian settlers, Eritreans who served in the colonial army (ex-askaris), and the people of mixed races. This group was mainly supported by the Italians.

The victorious powers of the Second World War (known as the Four powers), namely Britain, France, the Soviet Union and the United States, found it

difficult to settle the Eritrean issue and finally passed it on to the United Nations in 1948. As a result, the UN passed a resolution called **UN Resolution 390V**, adopted on 2nd December 1950. This resolution decides that Eritrea should be united with Ethiopia by a federation.



Self-test Exercise 6.1

Part I: True or False Item. Write True if the Statement is Correct and False If it is Incorrect.

1. Great Britain occupied Eritrea as a formal colony in 1941.
2. The Ogaden stayed under the British until 1954.
3. The UN Resolution 390 V, supported the separation of Eritrea from Ethiopia.

Part II: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. Which of the following political groups did not support the independence of Eritrea in the immediate WWII period?
 - A. The Muslim League
 - B. The Unionist party
 - C. The Liberal Progressive Party
 - D. Pro-Italian party
2. Eritreans who served in the colonial army were known as:
 - A. Askaris
 - B. Arbegnoch
 - C. Mahal Safari
 - D. Qagnew tor

B. The American Era

The Ethio- American official relations began in 1903 with the arrival of the first American mission to Ethiopia, led by Robert Skinner, but it grew stronger and more active following WWII. The two countries signed the Point Four Agreement on May 15, 1952. As a result, the United States agreed to assist Ethiopia in locust management, agricultural and public health education, public administration training, and scholarship awards to Ethiopian students.

In the 1950s, American strategic interests in Ethiopia, the Horn of Africa, and the Middle East shifted dramatically. Following the Young Free Officers' revolt in 1952, Egypt adopted a pro-communist, anti-Israel administration.

Colonel Gamal Abdel Nassir headed the movement. As a result, the US began looking for a new partner in the Middle East. The Ethiopian-American Treaty of 1953 was based on these developments. The 1953 deal let the US operate the Kagnew station, a communication facility in Asmara that the Italians had previously used as Radio Marina.

It was renamed Kagnew station after the name of the Ethiopian battalion that took part in the Korean War of 1950 -1953 on the side of the Americans. In return, the US government promised to provide military assistance to Ethiopia and set up a unit known as the Military Assistance Advisory Group (MAAG). American influence was particularly strong in the fields of Military organization and training, communication, and education. In the 1960s and 70s, Ethio-US relations began to decline due to the following reasons:

- Advances in satellite communication significantly diminished the importance of the Kagnew station on which the Ethio-American alliance had been founded.
- Growing opposition, especially among students, against American Imperialism.

Thus, on the eve of the Ethiopian revolution of 1974, Haile Selassie's regime began to lose the USA, its strong ally.



Self-test Exercise 6.2

- A. What were the objectives of the Point Four Agreement?
- B. What were the causes of the decline of Ethio-American relations in the 1960s and 1970s?

6.1.2 Administrative reforms

In the post-liberation period, Emperor Haile Selassie took several measures to strengthen his power. His political vision mainly focused on the suppression of regional nobilities and the creation of a centralised state. To this end, Ethiopia was reorganised into twelve taqalaygezats (governorate-generals) in 1942. Each province was subdivided into sub-provinces (awrajas), districts (weredas), and sub-districts (mikitil weredas). The head of each taqalaygezat was appointed by the Emperor and was known as endarase (on my behalf), who was to rule on behalf of the Emperor.

6.1.3 The 1955 Constitution

Another important measure Haile Selassie took to consolidate his power was revising the Ethiopian constitution in 1955. The Emperor sought to provide a formal basis for his efforts at centralization and to attract the loyalty of educated Ethiopians. The other reason that necessitated the promulgation of the revised constitution of 1955 was the federation of Eritrea, which had an elected parliament and a more modern administration.

The Revised Constitution of 1955 strengthened the absolute power of the Emperor. Haile Selassie remained the head of the government's executive, legislative and judiciary organs. The Revised Constitution of 1955 did not introduce constitutional principles like popular sovereignty, the rule of law, good governance, and religion-state relations. Instead, it focused on the centralization of governmental authority in the hands of the monarch rather than promoting the values of Ethiopians as culturally diverse people.



Activity 6.2

1. Draw a map that shows the administrative of Ethiopia during the Imperial regime.

2. What is the difference between the 1931 and 1955 Constitutions?

6.1.4. Agriculture, Land Tenure and Tenancy

Agriculture is the dominant human activity and the backbone of the Ethiopian economy. Most of the societies in rural areas are engaged mainly in subsistence agricultural activities. Agricultural commodities, such as coffee and oilseed, comprised the country's exports. In addition, the country's livestock population was the largest in Africa. During the Imperial period, the agricultural sector was particularly important for its large contribution to the economy and because the land was the basis of power. The indigenous systems of land tenure in Ethiopia were communal Gult and Rist. Gult referred to the right to collect tributes (gibr) from peasants granted by the emperor to various ranks of the warrior class, local rulers, the church and others. Rist refers to land owned based on a lineage system.

Although the qalad system or land measurement had a long history in Ethiopia, it is in conjunction with the creation of Menilek's empire-state that it came to have wider application. The motives behind land measurement were facilitating taxation. The measured land was divided into lam, lam-taf and taf (fertile, semi-fertile and unfertile, respectively). Land measurement also promoted the twin processes of private ownership and land sale. Lam land paid the highest and taf the lowest rate of tax. The qalad system also enabled the state to appropriate large areas of land either for its benefit or for individuals and institutions it wished to reward. The most important consequence of the growth of private tenure was the associated spread

of tenancy (landlessness), especially in the Southern half, where some 50%-65% of all holdings were estimated to fall under this category.

The post-Liberation period witnessed the acceleration of the privatization of land and the remarkable growth in land sales, particularly in the last decade and a half before the Revolution of 1974. Along with land measurement, large-scale land sales and evictions became common. As a result of the feudal exploitation, most peasants became subsistence farmers living in acute poverty during this period, especially in the southern half, where the tenancy system, locally known as Chisegna, was widespread.



Self-test Exercise 6.3

Part I: Match the items under column A with the terms under column B.

<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>
1. the right to collect tributes	A. Gabbar
2. land measurement	B. lem meret
3. cultivated land	C. Gibr
4. Tribute	D. qalad system
5. tribute paying peasant	E. Rist-Gult

Part II: Short answer and discussion

1. Explain the roles of women in agricultural activities.

6.1.5. Trade, Industry, Financial Sector, Education, Transport and Communication

When the Italians left Ethiopia in 1941, the country's economic structure was almost as it had been for centuries. However, there were some improvements in communications, particularly in road building. Attempts were also made to establish a few small industries.

In the post-liberation period, the country depended on a few agricultural products for export. The leading agricultural export was coffee. Next to coffee, the second export item was skins and hides, and pulses and oilseeds ranked third. Regarding import items, the post-war period was characterized by a change from the prewar importation of textiles to machinery and chemicals. Italy, Japan and the USA were Ethiopian partners in imports.

By the early 1950s, Emperor Haile Selassie I attempted to introduce a new economic policy, which focused on transitioning from a subsistence economy to an agro-industrial one. In 1954/55, the government created the National Economic Council to coordinate the state's development plans. The First Five-Year Plan (1957-61) sought to develop a strong infrastructure in transportation, construction, and communications to link isolated regions. In addition, this plan aimed to accelerate agricultural development by promoting commercial agricultural ventures.

The Second Five-Year Plan (1962-67) signalled the beginning of a twenty-year program to transform Ethiopia's predominantly agricultural economy into an agro-industrial. Both the first and second plans focused on the intensification of agricultural development. The Third Five-Year Plan (1968-73) also sought to facilitate Ethiopia's economic well-being by raising manufacturing and agro-industrial performance. However, it focused on developing the agricultural sector through package programs to address the rising problem of food shortages in Ethiopia.

Several factors hindered the implementation of Ethiopia's development planning during the imperial period. These included a lack of administrative and technical capabilities to implement a national development plan. Many projects failed chiefly because of a shortage of qualified personnel, funds and equipment.

By the end of the plan period, the overall industrial base of the country remained weak and characterized by a rudimentary small scale mainly found in Asmara, Addis Ababa., and Dire Dawa.

During Haile Selassie's regime, the Ministry of Public Health was founded in 1947, as well as referral hospitals in some provincial capitals, and medical and health colleges in Addis Ababa and Gondar were also founded. However, these early health structures were primarily in urban centres and focused on curative care.

In the post-liberation period, the government encouraged the development of education. In doing so, the Ministry of Education and Fine Arts was established in 1942, and the effort to modernize education started all over the country again. Consequently, schools started growing in some of the country's urban centres.

From the time of liberation to the early 1950s, the British highly influenced the Ethiopian education system. In 1950s, the American educational system had replaced the British system. American citizens were assigned as directors and teachers in the Ethiopian schools, enabling them to increase their influence on Ethiopia's educational system.



Self-test Exercise 6.4

Part I: Multiple choice Items: Choose the correct answers from the given alternatives.

- The main item Ethiopia exported in the post liberation period was
 - Gold
 - Coffee
 - Skin and hides
 - Oil seeds and spices
- The industrial sector of the country by the end of the 1970s
 - played the dominant role as compared to the agricultural sector
 - characterized by a primary small scale industry
 - was uniformly distributed in all provinces
 - was the main source of income
- The modern Ethiopian education system from 1942 to 1954 was highly influenced by:
 - the British
 - the Americans
 - The Church
 - The French
- The aim of the First Five-Year Plan(1957-61) was to:
 - get access to mining sector
 - accelerate agricultural development
 - establish regional economic integration with neighboring countries
 - serve the urban population
- The country that was not the major Ethiopian partner in imports in the 1960 and 70s?
 - The USA
 - Italy
 - Japan
 - China

Part II: Short Answer

- Evaluate the administrative and economic reforms introduced during the imperial period in the post-liberation period.

Section 6.2 Early Opposition Movements Against the Imperial Rule



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the second section of the unit. In this section, you will study the beginning of opposition against the imperial regime and how

the regime reacted to these early opposition movements. By this time, the regime encountered opposition from the peasants, soldiers and students. The peasant revolts took place in different provinces of the country like Tigray, Bale, Gojjam and Sidamo, among others. The attempted coup d'état led by the Neway brothers, Mengistu and Germame, was among the earliest opposition against the regime. The Ethiopian students personified the final opposition in this vein.

6.2.1 Peasant Revolts



There had been various oppositions against the imperial regime in the post-liberation period. The earliest noticeable revolt Emperor Haile Sellsie faced soon after his return from exile took place in Tigray and is known as the Woyyane revolt. In 1943, three disgruntled social groups, namely, the semi pastoralists, highland peasants, and some local feudal lords formed a united front against the regime. The revolt was led by Bilata Haile Mariam Reda.

- *The feudal lords wanted a greater share in the regional reallocation of power.*
- *The semi-pastoral communities of Southern Tigray, especially the Raya and Azebo, felt that centralization posed a danger to their communal ideals of egalitarianism and justice.*
- *The highland cultivators sought to prevent feudal exploitation and wanted to terminate the excessive demands of state officials and the militia.*

This was the most serious internal threat that Haile Selassie faced. It was finally crushed with the imperial force in collaboration with the British Royal Air force.

The revolt in Bale started in the district of Elkere in 1963 and ended in 1970. By 1964, the revolt spread to the districts of Wabe, Dallo, and Ganalle. One of the leaders of the Bale uprising was Waqo Gutu.



Land alienation, taxation, religious discrimination, ethnic hostility and corrupt administrative practices that worsened peasant life sparked the peasant uprising in Bale.

- *The arrival of Christian settlers into a mostly Muslim area intensified religious tensions.*
- *The emerging Republic of Somalia, which vowed to construct “Greater Somalia”, provided crucial morale and material support to this campaign.*
- *However, the uprising was finally quelled after its popular leaders including Waqo Gutu surrendered in March 1970. The government assigned General Jagema Kello as governor of Bale.*

The Gojjam peasants also revolted several times during the reign of Emperor Haile Selassie due to their resentment over the ill-treatment of patriots and the imposition of heavy taxation. What finally triggered the Gojjam uprising of 1968 was the Imperial government's attempt to introduce the 1967 agricultural income tax. When the central government sent tax assessors to Gojjam, the peasants refused to allow them to enter their land and resisted the government agents. Then, they presented their petition to the state. Without a positive response from the state, the peasants defied the state's authority and rebelled.

The government reacted by sending a combined force of local militia and armed police to the rebellious districts, especially Mota, Qolla Dega Damot, and Bichena districts. Two other areas which witnessed significant peasant uprisings against the Imperial rule were Yejjju in North East Wallo and Geddeo in the southern province of Sidamo. Both uprisings had their genesis in land alienation. However, both uprisings were crushed by government forces.



Activity 6.3

Answer the Following Questions Appropriately

1. List the major causes of peasant rebellions against the Imperial regime.

2. Explain the role of students, peasants' and the elite movements against the Imperial regime.

6.2.2 The Coup of 1960

The most serious challenge to the administration of Emperor Haile Selassie in the post-liberation period was the attempted coup d'état of 1960. The two brothers, Mengistu Neway and Germame Neway, organised the coup. Menegistu was then the commander of the Imperial Bodyguard. He was aided by his younger brother Germame, a civil servant and an intellectual, who represented a bridge between the pre-Italo-Ethiopian War intellectuals and the student radicals of the 1960s and 1970s. In addition, the Chief of Security, Colonel Warqenah Gabayahu, the Police Commissioner, Brigadier General Tsege Dibu and a few educated radicals joined the two brothers. They were supported by most of the Imperial Bodyguards.



Figure 6.1 Leaders of the abortive coup d'état of 1960, Brigadier-General Mengistu (left) and Germame Neway, (source: Bahru Zewde, *A History of Modern Ethiopia: 1855-1974*)

The coup makers proclaimed the establishment of a new government on 14 December 1960. The emperor's son and heir, Asfawosen Haile Selassie, was appointed head of state as a salaried constitutional monarch. Ras Emeru Haile Selassie was designated prime minister of the new government, while the popular General Mulugeta Buli was nominated chief of staff of the armed forces.

Confrontations were made between the rebels and loyalists to the regime in Addis Ababa for barely two days. The emperor entered the city two days later, aborting the coup d'état. General Tsigie Dibu, Chief of the Police force, was killed in action. Germame and Colonel Workneh Gebeyehu committed suicide; Mengestu was captured and sentenced to death. The leading cause of the coup's failure was a lack of support from the army. It also lacked proper organization.

6.2.3 The Ethiopian Student Movement

The Ethiopian student movement began following the expansion of secondary and higher education in post-liberation Ethiopia. The nucleus of the student movement was the University College of Addis Ababa (founded in 1950), later named Haile Selassie I University. Many students were displeased with the ruling monarchy, the feudal land structure, and the poor quality of life of the people. They also demanded improvement in education facilities and services. In addition, they began to demand a free press and the right to form their union.



Although the undemocratic rule of the Haile Selassie government system was the main reason for the student movement, other additional factors strengthened their activism and radicalism.

These include:

- *Ethiopian students' activism abroad,*
- *the attempted coup of 1960,*
- *the anti-imperialist and pro-socialist movement in some Western countries, and*
- *the presence of students from different African countries through Ethiopian government scholarships.*

One major social and political issue that the students raised in the mid-1960s was abolishing the feudal land tenure system, which was likely to have affected agricultural productivity. The famous slogan of the students was “Meret Learashu”, “Land to the Tiller”. In addition, the students were advocating Marxism-Leninism as the right and appropriate ideology.

On December 28, 1969, the student union president, Tilahun Gizaw, was shot by the security police while walking outside the Sidist kilo campus in the Afencho Ber area. Tilahun Gizaw’s death was a transformative event that pushed more radical student activists towards revolution.



Activity 6.4

After watching the video, under the following link, describe briefly the speech of Tilahun Gizaw and the nature of Ethiopian student movements.

<https://youtu.be/DpSJ5Xmy0ZE>

Section 6.3. The Ethiopian Revolution and the Fall of the Monarchy



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the third section of the chapter. The section explores the Ethiopian outbreak of the Ethiopian Revolution of 1974, which led to the downfall of the imperial regime and the coming to power of the military led by the Derg. Therefore, in this section, you will explore the factors that led to the deposition of the regime of Emperor Haile Selassie I. Moreover, the section explores the socio-economic reforms introduced by the Derg regime.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- describe the major developments of the 1974 Revolution;
- write a short essay on socio-economic and political reforms of the *Derg*;
- list down the fundamental causes for the fall of the *Derg* regime

6.3.1. Deposition of the Emperor and Emergence of the Derg

The last two decades of Haile Selassie's reign witnessed growing opposition to his regime, which peaked in February 1974. This was when the country's social, economic and political situations worsened, and different sections of the people made a series of strikes, protests and demonstrations against the imperial regime.

The life of rural people also deteriorated as various natural, and artificial famines hit them. From 1958 to 74, almost all administrative regions of

Ethiopia were affected by famines of varying degrees. The most serious occurred in Tigray in 1958/59, Wag-Lasta in 1956/66, and Wallo province in 1972/73.

These famines resulted in the death and dislocations of tens of thousands of people. In addition, the urban population was suffering from inflation and corrupt administration. The devastating famine was made public to the international community by Ethiopian students and the documentary film produced by British journalist Jonathan Dimbleby.



Activity 6.5

Watching the documentary film by Jonathan Dimbleby entitled “The Unknown Famine” from the following website: <https://www.youtube.com/watch=ML32CeRUglU>, answer the following questions.

A. List the provinces affected by famines and drought in the 1950s and 1960s.

B. Enumerate the impacts of the famine and drought in Ethiopia?

At the beginning of 1974, the situation in Ethiopia was ripe for revolution. Popular uprisings became widespread, particularly in urban centres. Different sectors of society took part in the uprisings. Students, teachers, unemployed youth, civil servants, taxi drivers and soldiers had active roles. Nevertheless, the first serious act along the road to revolution came from the army when the Negelle army mutinied in protest in January 1974. Armed forces in other provinces of the country followed the footsteps of the Negelle army and began to demand a pay increase and improvement in their working conditions.

On 18 February 1974, the Ethiopian Teachers Association opposed the new educational reform program known as the Sector Review. Students and some parents accompanied the teachers. On the same day, taxi drivers went on strike in protest against the 50% rise in petrol prices. The

Confederation of Ethiopian Labour Union (CELU) also presented a list of demands to Prime Minister Endalkachew Mekonen. The workers' demands included; the passing of new labour legislation, freedom of organization (association), pension and wage increase, job security, and free education for all. In addition, the Muslim community demonstrated against the age-old discrimination they suffered.

The Coordinating Committee of the Armed Forces (AFCC), commonly known as Derg, composed of senior officers below the rank of major, was set up by the Armed forces, police and territorial army. The military uprising and riots in the capital eventually led to the resignation of Prime Minister Aklilu Habtewold, who was replaced on 28 February 1974 by the new Prime Minister, Endalkatchew Mekonnen.

Since its establishment on 28 June 1974, the Derg acted as a de facto government and began exercising power and taking action. The first move was the detention of high-ranking officials of the imperial regime, including Prime Minister Endalkachew. Following this, Lij Michael Emiru became prime minister. Then, the Derg introduced its motto or slogan called 'Ethiopia Tikdem'.

On 12 September 1974, the Derg deposed Haile Selassie and transformed itself into a Provisional Military Administration Council (PMAC). Lieutenant General Aman Michael Andom became the first chairman of PMAC. Major Mengistu Haile Mariam and Major Atnafu Abate also became the first and second vice-chairman, respectively.

However, General Aman, a well-known, famous commander and hero of the war in the first Ethio-Somalia War, conflicted with the radical elements in the Derg over the question of Eritrea. Finally, he was killed at his home while resisting arrest. On 24 November 1974, Brigadier General Tafari Benti became the new Derg chairman and head of state, with Mengistu Haile Mariam and Atnafu Abate as his two vice-chairmen.



Figure 6.2 Menegistu (left side) Teferi (centre) and Atnafu (right side),
(source: File:Derg.gif.wikimedia commons)

6.3.2 Socio-Economic and Political Reforms of the Derg

The Derg introduced a series of radical reforms and measures. For instance, in December 1974, the Development through Cooperation Campaign, or Edget Behebret, was launched to implement literacy and rural development programs. In late December, about 60,000 campaigners were sent to the rural areas to provide basic literacy and give orientations about socialism to peasants.

The military junta nationalized private banks and insurance companies in January 1975, and private industrial and business companies were also confiscated a month later.

In March 1975, the Land Reform Proclamation nationalized all rural land and ended feudal relations in rural Ethiopia. It was radical in that it sought to transform the country's land tenure system. In addition, it provided conditions for establishing peasant associations on a Kebele basis. The associations' primary task was implementing the proclamation and overseeing the periodic redistribution of land.



Activity 6.6

1. By collecting oral source on the Development Through Cooperation Campaign or *Edget Behebret* and discuss the merits and demerits of the campaign.
2. Based on the Collected data write a one-page report on the roles and achievements of the peasant Association.

Urban Land and Extra Houses were nationalized and made public property on 26 July 1975. Urban dwellers associations, the kebeles, were formed to administer housing and neighbourhood affairs.

After the overthrow of the old regime, issues like the military's political role and the strategies and tactics of the regime's exercise of power during the transition period caused a split within the civilian political groups. These political groupings were the All Ethiopian Socialist Movement (AESM) or MEISON and the EPRP (Ethiopian People Revolutionary Party). A bitter struggle emerged between these political parties. All Ethiopian Socialist Movement led by Haile Fida followed the strategy of critical support to the Derg.

The National Democratic Revolution (NDR) program was announced on 20 April 1976. It envisaged a people's democratic republic under the leadership of the proletariat, acting in close alliance with the peasantry and supported by the petty bourgeoisie, and promised the formulation of a working-class party.

In 1976 and 1977, EPRP intensified its armed struggle against supporters and functionaries of the Derg. The military regime, in turn, carried out systematic and ruthless elimination of its opponents in a campaign known as Red Terror, a bloody campaign against the EPRP and other suspected individuals. Mass killing and torture became the order of the day. It was most intense in Addis Ababa's major provincial towns. Thousands of students, teachers, workers and ordinary people suspected of supporting opposition groups were imprisoned without charge, tortured and executed.



Figure 6.3 Red Terror Victims, (source: <http://abyotawi.blogspot.com/2016/03/scenes-from-red-terror.html>)



Activity 6.7

Write a short essay on the 1974 Revolution.

Section 6.4 The Ethio-Somalia, War and Foreign Influences, the Question of Eritrea, and the Fall of the *Derg*



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the last section of unit six. In this section, you will explore the causes of the Ethio-Somalia war of 1977 and the role of foreign powers in the war. The section also highlights the question of Eritrea and the armed struggle to liberate Eritrea. Finally, the section explicates the factors that led to the downfall of the *Derg*.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At this end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:

- evaluate the major geopolitical factors for intra and inter-state wars in the region of Ethiopia and the Horn;
- appreciate the resistance movement of the people of Ethiopia against foreign aggression;
- discuss the internal and external factors that led to the decline of the *Derg* regime.

6.4.1 The Ethio-Somalia War of 1977

The Ogaden region has been an area of conflict between Ethiopia and Somalia, particularly since Somalia became independent in 1960. The conflict between the two countries briefly escalated into a border war in January 1964.

The major reason for the war was the political agitation of the new republic of Somalia that was committed to bringing all Somali-speaking territories under one five-pointed star in the Somalia flag. Each point represents one of the five Somali-speaking territories of South Somalia, North Somalia, French Somaliland (now the Republic of Djibouti), the Ogaden region of Ethiopia, and the Northern Frontier District (NFD) of Kenya. In the end, following the OAU's peacemaking intervention, both countries returned to where they started- no change of boundaries.

In 1977, Ethiopia and Somalia again entered a serious conflict over the Ogaden region. The war was initiated by President Siad Barre of Somalia, who pursued his irredentist policy of achieving the creation of "Greater Somalia". In the course of the war, Ethiopia was supported by the Soviet Union, Cuba, and the Democratic Republic of Yemen, while Somalia got military aid and technical support from the USA and the Arab world.

A bold counter-offensive of the Ethiopian people successfully repulsed the full-scale invasion of the Somali forces. Following the invasion of Somalia, Derg mobilized hundreds of thousands of militia forces.

The war had far-reaching political, economic, and social implications for both countries. In Somalia, it brought a massive influx of refugees from the north, which, in turn, worsened the land and property rights of the local people. In Ethiopia, the victory encouraged Mengistu's government to focus on fighting the northern opposition forces.



Activity 6.8

Explain the causes of the Ethio-Somalia war.

6.4.2 The Question of Eritrea and the Armed Struggle up to Referendum

In 1941, Eritrea came under British control following the expulsion of the Italians. During the next decade, the fate of the former colony became an international issue. The federation of Eritrea with Ethiopia in 1952 was the compromised solution recommended in 1950 by the United Nations General Assembly. Eritrea was given legislative, executive, and judicial power to govern its domestic affairs. In contrast, the defence, foreign affairs, currency and finance, interstate commerce, and communications became the responsibility of the Ethiopian government.

The subsequent introduction of measures that were contrary to the Federal Act of 1952, which thoroughly undermined the autonomy of Eritrea, created discontent among some Eritreans against the Ethiopian government.

The discontent finally led to the establishment of a movement known as the Eritrean Liberation Movement (ELM) in 1958. In 1960, in the meantime, a rival organization, Eritrean Liberation Front (ELF), was formed in Cairo and dedicated to launching an armed resistance. However, there was also tension in the different units of the ELF.

In 1973, the Eritrean People's Liberation Forces (EPLF,) also known as **Shabbiya**, which means popular in Arabic, was founded. The year 1977 marked the peak of the **anti-Derg** opposition. External military aggression from Somalia, offensives from internal armed political groups like EDU and the EPRP, and internal power struggle put the military government almost on the verge of collapse.

After defeating the invading forces of Somalia in 1978, the Ethiopian military deployed from the eastern front to the northern front, Eritrea. As a result, the Eritrean rebels were forced to retreat to the Sahel.

In 1982, the Derg announced a military campaign named Operation Red Star to solve the Eritrean problem once and for all. However, despite initial decisive victories, the operation was not successful. The government forces were dissatisfied, and the top military commanders were suspected of corruption and treason. The coordinated military offensives of the EPLF (Eritrean People's Liberation Front) and the TPLF (Tigrean People's Liberation Front) greatly weakened the government forces. They forced them to lose battle after battle.

The Fall of the Derg

Several factors led to the fall of the military regime. First, the famine of 1984/5, preceded by drought and crop failure, forced the military government to introduce a program of forced mass resettlement from drought-affected regions of Tigray and Wallo. Thus, the people were resettled in south and southwestern Ethiopia. However, this resulted in a massive refugee problem due to ineffective organization. In addition to the economic and political crisis, the forceful resettlement, collectivization, and villagization programs contributed to the downfall of the régime.

In the last years of the 1980s, the EPLF joined with the TPLF forces that occupied most of northern Ethiopia. In the southern regions like Bale and Hararghe, the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF) and the Somali Abo Liberation Front (SALF) were active as of 1975. The Western Somali Liberation Front (WSLF) was also active in the Ogaden region.

In the second half of the 1980s, Soviet Russia and other Eastern European countries, struggling with their internal problems, gradually withdrew their economic and military assistance to the Derg. In 1991, the EPLF and EPRDF (Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) forces launched a highly successful operation in their respective areas and secured military victories that resulted in the collapse of the military regime.



Self-test Exercise 6.5

Writes short answer for the following question.

1. Elaborate the internal and external factors for the decline of the Derg regime.



Unit Summary

The post-liberation period (1941-1991) was the most crucial in Ethiopian history. It saw strong foreign influences, especially from Great Britain and the USA. During this period, the restored monarchy took various economic, political, and military measures to consolidate autocracy. As of 1960, however, the regime had encountered implacable opposition from students, peasants, and the military.

In February 1974, the Ethiopian revolution erupted and resulted in regime change. The spontaneous nature of the movement enabled the military, which maintained a certain level of organization, to assume power. The new government led by the Derg adopted Marxism-Leninism as its official ideology and took the task of building a socialist state in Ethiopia.

The Derg did not respect human and democratic rights and finally faced various forms of opposition from different sections of the population. As a result, the Eritrean People's Liberation Front (EPLF), the Tigray People Liberation Front (TPLF), the Oromo Liberation Front (OLF), and others opposed and engaged in an armed struggle to overthrow the Derg.

The famine of 1984/5, preceded by drought and crop failure, changed peasant life from bad to worse. The resettlement and villagization programs launched by Derg were not effective and lacked proper coordination. In the meantime, the Derg failed to stop the guerilla movements of the various liberation forces, and the continuity of the civil war left the country impoverished.

In addition to these internal factors, the changes in Soviet Russia resulted in losing vital military support and aid from the eastern bloc. Finally, the front made up of the TPLF, the EDPM (Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement), the Oromo People's Democratic Organization (OPDO), and the Ethiopian Democratic Officer's Revolutionary Movement (EDORM), known as EPRDF (the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front) controlled Addis Ababa on May 28, 1991, that brought the end of the Derg regime.



Self-test Exercise 6.6: Unit Review Questions

Part I: Write True for correct statements and False for incorrect ones

1. The 1942 Anglo-Ethiopian Treaty marked the end of British domination in Ethiopia.
2. *The White Terror* was a reaction of Derg to the Red Terror.
3. The Bale Peasant rebellion was characterized by foreign intervention.
4. Like the 1931 constitution, the 1955 constitution in Ethiopia gave less emphasis to an imperial succession.
5. The education system in Ethiopia after 1950 was oriented towards the American system of education.

Part II: Fill the blank spaces with appropriate answers.

1. Among the leaders of the 1960 coup detat, mention the one who epitomized the intelligentsia.
2. The well-known slogan of the Ethiopian student movement was _____.
3. The renowned motto and philosophy of the Derg was _____.
4. Mention the Cold war period superpowers who backed Ethiopia and Somalia during the Ethio-Somalia War of 1977.
5. List at least two provinces which had a strong tradition of peasant uprisings in Ethiopia before the 1974 revolution.

Part III: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. The radical measure taken by the Derg which led to the collapse of the feudal economy in Ethiopia
 - A. Development through Cooperative campaign
 - B. Nationalization of foreign investments
 - C. Nationalization of rural land
 - D. Resettlement and villagization programs
2. Which of the following was among the fundamental causes of the failed 1960 coup d'état,?
 - A. the support of Britain to the imperial regime
 - B. growing opposition to the coup-makers from university students
 - C. lack of support from the army
 - D. division among the leaders
3. Jonatan Dimbleby's documentary film entitled the "Unknown Hunger"
 - A. showed the brutality of Derg to the international community
 - B. emphasized the agricultural reforms of the imperial regime
 - C. disseminated the idea that Ethiopia is a source of ancient civilization
 - D. exposed the famine and drought of Wallo to the world

4. The Ethiopian student movement renowned slogan during the struggle against the imperial regime was:
 - A. All things to the war front!
 - B. Down to American Imperialism!
 - C. Land to the Tiller!
 - D. Revolutionary motherland or death!
5. Pick the correct chronological order from the earliest to the recent.
 - A. The Referendum of Eritrea of during the Imperial period
 - B. A proclamation of nationalization of Rural land
 - C. The resignation of Aklilu Habtewold
 - D. Launch of the *Ediget behberet zemecha*

Part IV. Short answer questions

1. Elaborate the fundamental causes of Ethiopian peasant rebellion.
2. Pinpoint the internal and external factors for the decline of the Derg regime.

✓ Checklist

Put a tick mark (✓) in the boxes given to prove if you have understood the respective issues well.

1.	The British Era	
2.	The 1942 and 1944 Agreements	
3.	The American Era	
4.	The Federation of Eritrea with Ethiopia	
5.	Point four Agreement	
6.	Kagnew station	
7.	Administrative reforms	
8.	The Peasant Rebellion	
9.	The 1955 Revised constitution	
10.	The 1960 coup d'état	

Dear learner, did you mark a [✓] If not, please look at the corresponding item to the left and go back and read about it.

UNIT 7: AFRICA SINCE 1960

Unit Introduction

Dear learner, welcome to the seven unit of the module. The unit covers the history of Africa since the 1960s. The year 1960 is often considered the year of Africa because over a dozen African countries got their independence in this year. Hence in the unit, you will explore the national liberation movements in north and northeast Africa; West Africa; East Africa, and South Africa; Pan-Africanism and the formation of the Organisation of Africa Unity (OAU) and its replacement by the Africa Union (AU); characteristics of the post-independence economy of Africa; regional economic integration; major issues in contemporary Africa which include among others, ethnicity, and ethnic conflicts; poverty, unemployment, population pressure, and environmental and climatic problems.

Unit Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

- compare and contrast different forms of national liberation struggles in Africa;
- appreciate Africans struggle for political independence;
- outline major socio-economic problems of African independent nations since the 1960s; and
- evaluate the successes and limitations of African regional economic integrations

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7.1.5 Apartheid in South Africa

7.1.6 Pan-Africanism and the OAU

7.1.7 Successes and Failures of the OAU

Section 7.2 Struggle for Economic Independence

Section 7.3 Major Issues in Contemporary Africa

Unit Learning Strategies:

Dear learner , the detailed learning strategies mentioned at the beginning of unit one are also applicable here. You may use them here, too. Remember to attempt all the activities and exercises after reading the issues included in the unit. Try to tick the checklists included at the end of the unit.

The Required Study Time: _____ Periods.

Section 7.1 Rise of Independent States in Africa



Section Overview

Dear learner , welcome to the first section of unit seven. In this section, you will explore how African countries gained independence from the European colonial domination. The process of decolonization in Africa started in the 1950s with North African countries, and the decolonization of the sub-Saharan African countries kicked off in 1957 with the independence of the British colony of Gold Coast, which took the name Ghana.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- examine the national liberation movements in different regions of Africa ;
- explain the process of foundation of the OAU;
- prepare the timeline of how the OAU was replaced by AU; and
- produce a chart that shows the main organs of the OAU and AU.

7.1.1 National Liberation Movement in North Africa

The first breakthrough toward independence came in North Africa, spearheaded by Egypt, the protectorate of Great Britain starting from 1882. Soon after the end of WWI, the delegation of Egyptian nationalist activists led by Saad Zaghlul requested the British High Commissioner to end the British Protectorate in Egypt and Sudan. The request was accompanied by demonstrations and strikes across Egypt by students, elite, civil servants, merchants, peasants, workers, and religious leaders. As a result of the popular uprising, London was compelled to issue a unilateral declaration of Egyptian independence on February 22, 1922.

Some decades after Egyptian independence, the Kingdom of Libya achieved its independence from Italy under UN Trusteeship (British administration) on December 24, 1951.

Following the Egyptian Revolution of 1952, which overthrew the unpopular government of King Farouk, demand for the withdrawal of British forces from all of Egypt and Sudan was intensified. Muhammad Naguib, one of the two co-leaders of the revolution along with Gamal Abdel Nasser and Egypt's first President made securing Sudanese independence a priority of the revolutionary government. On 1 January 1956, Anglo-Egyptian Condominium over Sudan duly ended, and Sudan became independent.

The liberation of French colonies in North Africa began in the 1950s. French military defeat in Indo-China in 1954 gave an impetus for the peoples of North Africa to wage a liberation war to end French colonial rule. For instance, the Moroccan National Front led by Sultan Mohammed V had already started challenging French colonial domination. In 1953, the Riff and Atlas communities revolted and started the armed struggle.

After a negotiated settlement, Morocco was proclaimed independent on 2 March 1956. French and Spanish Morocco reunited after independence. Tunisia also won its independence in 1956 under the leadership of Habib Bourguiba, who headed the Neo-Destour Party.



In Algeria, the French faced a protracted and bitter anti-colonial struggle.

- In Algeria, there had been a relatively larger number of white settlers.
- These white settlers were determined to prevent the independence of Algeria. They formed the “Secret Armed Organization” to hold back Algerian independence.
- The Algerian nationalist organization the “National Liberation Front of Algeria” (FLN) led by Ahmed Ben Bella waged a bitter guerrilla war of liberation against the French colonial domination from 1954 to 1962.
- Finally, based on an agreement reached between the Algerian freedom fighters and the French government, a referendum was conducted.
- The people of Algeria overwhelmingly voted for independence. In consequence, Algeria was proclaimed independent on 1 July 1962.



Activity 7.1.

1. The North African countries that became independent in 1956 were _____.
2. A country in north Africa which became independent after the UN resolution was _____.
3. Name the French colony in North Africa that faced a protracted and bitter anti-colonial struggle _____.
4. The Neo-Destour party was to Tunisia as _____ was to Algeria.

7.1.2. National Liberation Movement in West Africa

A. British West Africa

Gold Coast (now Ghana), Nigeria, the Gambia, and Sierra Leone constituted British West Africa. The first British colony to gain independence in sub-Saharan Africa in general, and in West Africa, in particular, was the Gold Coast. In the Gold Coast, the struggle was at first led by an

organization called the United Gold Coast Convention (UGCC).

However, in 1949, Kwame Nkrumah left UGCC, founded his new political party known as the Convention People's Party (CPP) and assumed leadership in the struggle for independence. As a result, the Gold Coast became independent in 1957 and adopted the historic name Ghana.

Unlike Ghana, where the parties had nationwide support, in Nigeria, the parties were divided along region and ethnic lines. Thus, the National Council of Nigeria and Cameroon (NCNC) is based in Igbo land, the Yoruba Action Group (AG) in Yoruba country, and the Northern People's Congress (NPC) in Fulbe-Hausa in Eastern, Western and Northern regions, respectively. Again, while the parties of Ghana readily agreed on the issue of independence and the date, both issues became subjects of bitter controversy among the parties in Nigeria. It was not until 1959 that all the parties agreed on the fateful year of 1960 when Nigeria became independent. The remaining British Colonies in West Africa, Sierra Leone, and Gambia became independent in 1961 and 1965, respectively.



Activity 7.2

1. List the political parties established in Nigeria on the eve of its independence.

2. What was the difference between the parties founded in Ghana and Nigeria?

B. French West and Equatorial Africa

The French colonies in Africa were divided into two territories of French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa. French West Africa was a federation of eight French colonial territories, which consisted of the following counties: Mauritania, Senegal, French Sudan (now Mali), French Guinea, Côte d'Ivoire (Ivory Coast), Upper Volta (now Burkina Faso), Dahomey (now Benin) and Niger. French Equatorial Africa was also a federation of French colonial possessions in Equatorial Africa, comprising what are today the

countries of Chad, the Central Africa Republic, the Republic of the Congo, and Gabon.



By 1958 France was under increasing pressure due to the war of liberation waged by the FLN in Algeria. To defuse the nationalist struggles and rid himself of potential conflict in the French West and Equatorial Africa, Charles De Gaulle, the French President, decided to conduct a referendum in 1958. As a result, the French Equatorial and West Africa voted YES to the referendum. However, Guinea (Conakry), under the leadership of Seko Toure, voted NO to the referendum. The independent Republic of Guinea was thus proclaimed on 2 October 1958, four days after the people voted to reject France's offer of membership in the new French Community.

Other French colonies remained under French rule until 1960. The French colonies that became independent in 1960 were: Cameroon, Togo (both under UN trusteeship), Madagascar (now the Malagasy Republic), Dahomey (Benin), Niger, Upper Volta (Burkina Faso), Ivory Coast (Cote d'Ivoire), Chad, Ubangi Shari (Central African Republic), Congo (Brazzaville), Gabon, Senegal, French Sudan (Mali) and Mauritania .



Activity 7.3.

1. The French colony in West Africa that voted _____ against the 1958 referendum was _____
2. What was the former name of the present-day West African country of Benin

3. The two French colonial territories in Sub-Saharan Africa were _____

C. Portuguese West Africa: Guinea-Bissau and the Cape Verde Islands

While all the British and French colonies in West Africa had achieved their independence by 1965, it was not until 1973 and 1974 that Guinea-Bissau and the Cape Verde Islands, as well as the other two Portuguese African colonies, Angola and Mozambique, succeeded in overthrowing Portuguese colonialism.

Furthermore, while the struggles for independence in all the other West African colonies were peaceful in Portuguese Africa, it was a violent, bloody, and protracted war of liberation. The key to explaining these unique features of the anti-colonial struggle in Portuguese Africa lies in the principles and practices of Portuguese colonialism and the nationalist movements that emerged.

Portugal, like France, from the beginning, considered its colonies not as colonies but as overseas provinces of Portugal. The Portuguese maintained the policy of keeping their empire intact by any means.



Activity 7.4

1. Mention the two Portuguese colonies in Southern Africa.

2. What were the reasons for the delay of the independence of Portuguese colonies?

7.1.3 National Liberation Movement in East and Central Africa

A. British East Africa

Uganda, Kenya, and Tanzania (Tanganyika and Zanzibar) constituted the British Colony of East Africa. Although, in 1962, Uganda attained independence from Britain as a single entity under the prime ministership of Milton Obote, it did so under a coalition government between the royalist Kabaka Yekka movement and the Uganda Peoples' Congress (UPC) of Milton Obote.

The British trust territory of Tanganyika won its independence in 1961 under the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) led by Julius Nyerere. Zanzibar also became independent in 1963. In 1964 these two independent states formed a federation called Tanzania.

Kenya's road to independence was not smooth compared with the neighboring British colonies. In Kenya, the peasants who were dispossessed of their lands by the British white settlers organised a revolt known as Mau Mau between 1952 and 1955. However, the movement was suppressed by the British colonial forces. Thousands of its members, including its leader, Jomo Kenyatta, were imprisoned by the British.

However, in 1959 British Officials eased restrictions on Mau Mau, and the Kenya African Union (KAU) was resurrected as KANU (the Kenya African National Union) and won 67 percent of the votes in the ensuing election with a still-detained Jomo Kenyatta as the national president. Kenya won independence in 1963, and Kenyatta became its first president.



Activity 7.5.

1. Why was the road to independence in Kenya was bumpier compared with the neighboring British colonies?

2. Name the first British East African colony that gained independence

_____.

3. Milton Obote was to Uganda as _____ was to Tanganyika.

B. Belgian Congo

Belgian Congo was a colony of Belgium from 1908 until 1960. The first nationwide Congolese political party, the Congo National Movement, was launched in 1958 by Patrice Lumumba and other Congolese leaders. In January 1959, riots broke out in Leopoldville (now Kinshasa) after a rally was held calling for the independence of the Congo. Violent clashes between Belgian forces and the Congolese also occurred later that year. Belgium, which previously maintained that independence for the Congo

would not be possible in the immediate future, suddenly capitulated and began making arrangements for the Congo's independence.

In May 1960, Patrice Lumumba's MNC (Congo National Movement) Party won the parliamentary elections. The party appointed Lumumba as Prime Minister and elected Joseph Kasavubu of the Alliance des Bakongo (ABAKO) party as the president. The Belgian Congo achieved independence on 30 June 1960, named the Republic of the Congo. Shortly after independence, the provinces of Katanga, led by Moise Tshombe and South Kasai, engaged in secessionist struggles against the new leadership.

On 5 September 1960, Kasavubu dismissed Lumumba from office. Lumumba declared Kasavubu's action unconstitutional. A crisis between the two leaders developed. On 17 January 1961, Katangan forces and Belgian Paratroopers supported by the United States and Belgium kidnapped and executed Patrice Lumumba. The Katanga secession ended in January 1963 with the assistance of UN forces.



Activity 7.6.

1. Which area attempted to secede from Congo after independence?
_____.
2. The first prime minister and president of the former Belgian Congo were _____ and _____ respectively.
3. Describe the reasons why the USA and Belgium collaborated with the Congolese authorities to assassinate Patrice Lumumba.



Figure 7.1 Patrice Lumumba

C. Rwanda and Burundi

Burundi, Rwanda, and Tanganyika became part of the German Protectorate of East Africa in 1890. During the First World War, it was occupied by the British, who received a mandate to administer the greater part of it, Tanganyika Territory, by the Treaty of Versailles. A smaller portion (Ruanda-Urundi) was entrusted to Belgium. The Belgian mandate territories of Rwanda and Burundi became independent by the decision of the UN in 1962. At independence, Rwanda became a republic. Burundi was made a kingdom until it became a republic in November 1966.



Activity 7.7

Describe why the former German colonies in East Africa were handed over to other powers as mandates of the League of Nations

7.1.4 National Liberation Movement in Southern Africa

Southern Africa was dominated by Great Britain, who colonized Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), Northern Rhodesia (Zambia), Nyasaland (Malawi), Bechuanaland (Botswana), Basutoland (Lesotho), and South Africa. South Africa, in turn, after the First World War, came to occupy Southwest Africa (Namibia), the German Colony, in the name of the League of Nations. The other colonial power with colonies in Southern Africa was Portugal, which dominated Angola and Mozambique.

The dominant theme of Southern African history of the 1960s and 1970s was the revolutionary tide of liberation movements and the armed struggle in the settler colonies of South Africa, Rhodesia, Mozambique, Angola, and Namibia.

Kenneth Kaunda was the head of the Zambia African National Congress and its successor, the United National Independence Party (UNIP). In 1962, the UNIP organised a massive civil disobedience campaign against British rule. Early in 1964, an election based on universal adult suffrage gave UNIP a decisive majority, supported by nearly a third of the white voters. On October 24, the country became the independent Republic of Zambia, within the Commonwealth and with Kaunda serving as executive president. Similarly, Nyasaland became independent in 1964 as Malawi, with Hastings Kamuzu Banda as its president. In 1966, Basutoland (now Lesotho) and Bechuanaland (renamed Botswana) became independent. The British island colonies of Mauritius and Seychelles became independent in 1968 and 1976, respectively.

South Rhodesia's Road to independence also had its challenges. In 1965 the racist white settlers under the leadership of Ian Smith declared what was called the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI). This step delayed majority rule in that country. Black Africans and the British government rejected this one-sided declaration of independence. However, the British government failed to take military actions to suppress the white minority racist government in South Rhodesia. Thus, the Africans resort to guerrilla fighting. A long and bitter war was fought by the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) and the Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU) led by Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo, respectively. This bitter struggle

brought the white minority rule to an end. A majority rule was established in April 1980. Robert Mugabe became the first Prime Minister, and South Rhodesia adopted the name Zimbabwe.

By the Versailles Peace Treaty, at the end of World War I, South West Africa (present-day Namibia) was taken away from Germany and put under the Republic of South Africa mandatory rule. After the Second World War, the responsibility of looking after the mandate territories was transferred to the United Nations (UN Trust Territories). In such a way, Spanish Guinea gained independence in 1968 and was renamed Equatorial Guinea. However, Southwest Africa entered a long and bitter war against the Republic of South Africa. The “Southwest African People’s Organization” (SWAPO) organized and led the struggle. International diplomatic pressures were also put on South Africa. Finally, Southwest Africa won its independence in 1990 and was renamed Namibia.

7.1.5 Apartheid in South Africa

Two years after South Africa was freed from British rule in 1910, the African National Congress (ANC) was formed in 1912, aimed at struggling for the rights of the black population. Later, the ANC crystallized its demands into a call for “One man, one vote.” In 1948, a general election brought the Afrikaner National Party to power. It was a party made up of extreme racist groups. It promoted a policy of discrimination, which came to be known as Apartheid. Apartheid means separate development of the races and white domination of the majority blacks by the minority whites. Apartheid denied all political rights to blacks and other non-whites. Under Apartheid, eighty-seven per cent of all land in South Africa was reserved for whites.

Additionally, the racist Nationalist party canceled all the nominal rights the blacks used to have. It passed several laws that deprived Africans of their political and human rights and imposed rigid segregation in sports, recreational areas, schools, hospitals, buses, etc. In reaction to such repressive acts, widespread demonstrations and riots were held many times. In 1952 the ANC, led by Albert Luthuli, Oliver Tambo, Nelson Mandela, and Walter Sisulu, waged a passive resistance campaign to the various discriminatory rules.

Nevertheless, the government continued with its repressive policy. On

21 March 1960, police fired on a peaceful and unarmed demonstrator at Sharpeville. Seventy-two people were killed, and some 186, including women and children, were wounded. The incident is remembered as the Sharpeville massacre. The act aroused worldwide condemnation. Many nations enacted economic sanctions against the racist government of South Africa. The racist government arrested the opposition leaders, including Nelson Mandela, and banned all-black political organizations as illegal. Mandela was in jail at Robben Island until he was released in 1990.



Figure 7.2 Sharpeville Massacre and Apartheid, (source: nikotina72.blogspot.com; globalblackhistory.com)

The struggle of the ANC finally bore fruit. Apartheid was abolished, and “one man, one vote” was introduced in South Africa. In April 1994, Mandela won the election and held office as the first democratically elected president of the Republic of South Africa. He was able to reconcile blacks and whites in peace. In 1999, he left the presidency for the next democratically elected president, who happened to be his second in command in the ANC. Mandela has left a rich legacy of democratic government in South Africa.

**Activity 7.8.**

1. What happened in Sharpeville on March 21, 1960?

2. Who was Nelson Mandela? What made him prominent in the history of South Africa?

3. When did apartheid end in South Africa?



Map 7.1 Year of African countries independence, (source: Contemporary World History@parkmont: African Independence)

7.1.6 Pan-Africanism and the OAU

Pan-Africanism is the idea that peoples of African descent have common interests and should be unified. Pan-Africanism originated in the New World in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as an integral part of the black liberation struggles against white domination and exploitation. For the first time in the history of the pan-African movement, in the Fifth Pan-African Congress at Manchester in October 1945, African delegates' dominated the Manchester Congress, where the focus of the discussions

was the liberation of colonized Africa.

Several delegates, such as Kwame Nkrumah and Jomo Kenyatta, soon left London for Africa and led their peoples into independence.

The pace-setter of this period was Kwame Nkrumah. He also played a pivotal role in the formation of the short-lived and loose regional organization of the Union of African States, sometimes called Ghana–Guinea–Mali Union, formed in 1958 by the West African nations of Ghana and Guinea as the Union of Independent African States. Mali joined in 1960. It disbanded in 1963.



Figure 7.3 W.E.B DuBois-Co-Founder of NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People)

However, African leaders began to be divided into opposing camps, particularly over the future of the integrationist aspect of the pan-African movement. In 1961 Ghana, Guinea, Egypt, Mali, Morocco, Libya and the Algerian government-in-exile formed the **Casablanca Group**. The remaining former French colonies, plus Nigeria, Ethiopia, Liberia and Sierra Leone, formed the **Monrovia Group**.

The Casablanca Group favoured a strong political union along the lines of Nkrumah's the United States of Africa. The group consisted of the militant pan-Africanist, socialist and non-aligned leaders of Africa, who believed in centralized continental economic planning and development, a continental defence and security system, and cultural restoration.

The Monrovia Group favoured a loose confederation of independent sovereign African states that would promote voluntary participation and cooperation in cultural exchanges and economic interaction. The Brazzaville group, which included moderate Francophone states such as Ivory Coast, Gabon, Niger, Senegal, Upper Volta,

Mauritania etc. joined the Monrovia Group and formed its hardcore. By this time, members like Ethiopia and Liberia, neutral towards rivalry between Casablanca and Monrovia groups, came to play a pivotal role in bridging the gulf between the rival blocks. Despite this division into groups, African states came together at Addis Ababa and established the Organization of African Unity (OAU) in May 1963.



Figure 7.4 Listen to Kwame Nkrumah's Iconic Speech about African Unity in Addis Ababa, 1963: We Must Unite or Perish(source: <https://youtu.be/-XAINNcYxCc>)

Between 22 and 25 May 1963, delegates from 32 African countries convened in the Ethiopian capital of Addis Ababa to establish the Organization for African Unity (OAU). The main objectives of the OAU were to rid the continent of the remaining vestiges of colonization and apartheid; to promote unity and solidarity amongst the African States; to coordinate and intensify cooperation for development; to safeguard the sovereignty and territorial integrity of member states, and to promote international cooperation.

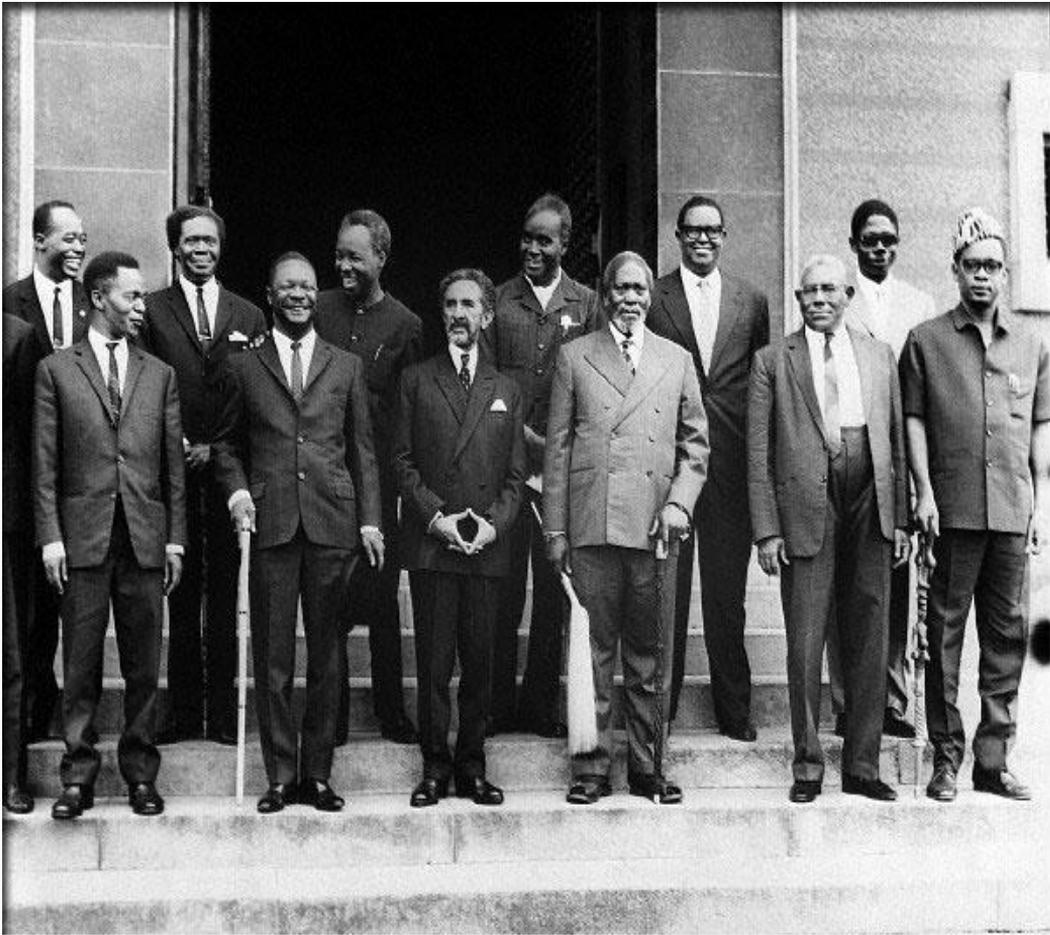


Figure 7.5 Founding fathers of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), 1963



The Principal Institutions of the OAU

- **The Assembly of the Heads of State and Government:** the organization's supreme organ which met once a year, in a different capital city, although it could also meet in extraordinary session;
- **The Council of Ministers:** normally met twice a year or in special sessions. Subordinate to the Assembly of Heads of State and Government, the council's principal responsibility was preparing the assembly's agenda;
- **The General Secretariat:** headed by a secretary-general, appointed by the Assembly of Heads of State and Government. The secretariat was responsible for the administration of the OAU.

7.1.7 Successes and Failures of the OAU

The OAU had a mixed record. Its greatest success was decolonization. It played a pivotal role in eradicating colonialism and white minority rule in Africa. Overall, the failures of the OAU outweighed its successes. Its major failure was its inability to bring peace, prosperity, security, and stability to Africa. Its powers were too weak, and its influence was inadequate to deal with the internal and external conflicts, poor governance, human rights abuses, poverty, and underdevelopment from which much of Africa suffered. The OAU was also considered incapable of meeting the challenges of globalization.



Activity 7.9

1. Describe the goals and the functions of the Organization of African Unity.

2. What were the strengths and weaknesses of the OAU?

By the end of the twentieth century, a comprehensive reform became imperative. As a result the African leaders decided to launch a new organization-the African Union (AU). AU was officially launched in July 2002 in Durban, South Africa.



Self-test Exercise 7.1

1. What were the roles of Kwame Nkrumah in the liberation of Africa from European colonial domination?
2. The African countries that waged a guerrilla war of liberation against European colonial domination were_____.
3. Draw a chart showing the organs of the OAU.
4. What were the differences between the Casablanca and Monrovia Groups on the eve of the foundation of the OAU?
5. What were the successes and failures of the OAU?

Section 7.2 Struggle for Economic Independence



Section overview

Dear learner, welcome to the second section of unit seven. In this section you will study the salient features of the post-independence economy of Africa ; attempts made by the African leaders to establish regional economic organizations like ECOWAS in West Africa.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- identify the salient features of the post-independence economy of Africa ;
- appreciate attempts made by African leaders to form a regional economic organization to integrate the economy of different regions of Africa;
- list the major regional economic organizations in Africa.

While Africa achieved substantial economic growth from 1965 to 1974, there was a downward trend after that. There was a modest recovery in the second half of the 1990s, but not enough to translate into meaningful increases in per capita incomes or reduction in poverty. Moreover, the

GDP growth has barely kept pace with the high population growth rate. Achieving and maintaining reasonable real growth rates thus remains a major challenge for sub-Saharan Africa.

Two of the principal factors adversely affecting African developments in the 1980s and 1990s have been international debt and drought. At the root of the problem are the continuing adverse terms of trade. Since the 1960s, Africa's raw material exports have dropped in price ten or twenty times compared to manufactured imports. Running out of foreign exchange, governments have had to turn to the IMF for emergency foreign exchange and for further loans to help pay the interest on loans that were already too large for them to pay off. The trouble is that the IMF and its associate, the World Bank, are financed by the banks of the developed capitalist economies of Western Europe and the USA. Their priorities reflected the interests of the capitalist west, which still regarded Africa primarily as the source of raw materials for its developed industries.

Regional Economic Communities (RECs) are established in different regions of Africa. The purpose of the RECs is to facilitate regional economic integration between members of the individual regions and through the wider African Economic Community (AEC), which was established under the Abuja Treaty (1991). The 1980 Lagos Plan of Action for the Development of Africa and the Abuja Treaty proposed the creation of RECs as the basis for wider African integration, with a view to regional and eventual continental integration. The RECs are increasingly involved in coordinating AU Member States' interests in wider areas such as peace and security, development and governance.



The Major Regional Economic Communities

- **Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)**, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cape Verde, Cote d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, and Togo
- **Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD)**, Ethiopia, Sudan, South Sudan, Eritrea, Kenya, Uganda, and Djibouti,
- **Southern African Development Community (SADC)**, Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia Zimbabwe, South Africa, and Republic of Congo.
- **Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA)** is a regional economic community in Africa with twenty-one member states stretching from Tunisia to Swaziland. COMESA was formed in December 1994, replacing a Preferential Trade Area which had existed since 1981.



Activity 7.10

What were the principal factors that adversely affected African development in the 1980s and 1990s? Mention at least two of them.

IGAD member states

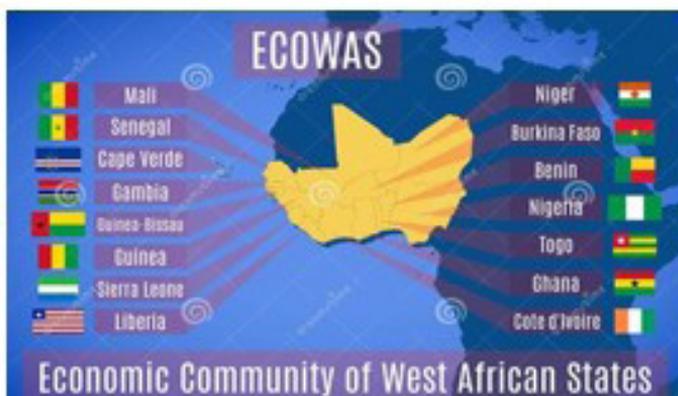


Figure 7.5 Member states of ECOWAS, IGAD, and SADC, (source: shutterstock.com; ResearchGate, <https://rr-africa.oie.int/wp-content/uploads/2000/11/kinyanjui.pdf>)

Section 7.3 Major Issues in Contemporary Africa

Section Overview

Dear learner, congratulations ! You have reached the final section of the unit. In this section, you will explore the major challenges post independent African states encountered and the reasons behind the impoverishment of Africa.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- assess the major challenges post-independence African states faced;
- unravel the causes for the impoverishment of Africa.

Most African countries, which were products of colonialism, have stronger ties with their former colonial masters. They are coming to terms with post-colonial challenges ranging from contested boundaries, ethnicity, corruption, and nepotism to client-patron relations. The so-called “colonial hangover” is deeply embedded. France, for instance, has always maintained strong ties with its former colonies in sub-Saharan Africa, aimed at sustaining its neo-colonial grip in these countries.

Most of the newly independent African countries share peoples who belong to the same ethnic groups. This has led some African states to try to redraw colonial boundaries following ethnic settlements. As a result, Africa has seen frequent border conflicts, which were products of colonialism, have stronger ties with their former colonial masters. They are coming to terms with post-colonial challenges ranging from contested boundaries, ethnicity, corruption, nepotism to client-patron relations. The so-called “colonial hangover” is deeply embedded. France, for instance, has always maintained strong ties with its former colonies in sub-Saharan Africa, aimed at sustaining its neo-colonial grip in these countries.

Most of the newly independent African countries share peoples, who belong to the same ethnic groups. This has led some African states to try to redraw colonial boundaries following ethnic settlements. As a result, Africa has seen frequent border conflicts.



Ethnic oppression and conflicts within African states have bred civil wars.

- The root of the ethnic conflicts have been political, economic and social injustices. Therefore, Africa is a continent that has been continually plagued by the effects of ethnic conflict. From the conflict between the southern Igbo and the northern Hausa in the Biafra War to the ethnic cleansing in Darfur and Rwanda, Africa has suffered tremendously due to ethnic discord.
- The Biafra War, also known as the **Nigerian Civil War**, is an educative example when studying African ethnic conflict. The Biafra War began shortly after Nigeria gained independence from Great Britain, and as a young inexperienced nation, the divisiveness of ethnic conflict soon engulfed the nascent country.

During the British rule, the northern region of Nigeria was largely isolated from the southern and eastern regions. The distribution of wealth was unequal, as the Igbo people of the southeast region had greater prosperity due to palm oil and petroleum resources). In contrast to the Hausa, who occupied the north and Yoruba, who occupied the southwest, the south-eastern Igbo were geographically isolated. As a result of their decentralized location, wealth, and religion, the Igbo people were marginalized and labelled as outsiders. As a result of the 1966 military coup, Nigeria was thrown into a bloody civil war, and the Hausa-controlled government mobilized drastic measures to eliminate the Igbo population, which had chosen to secede and form the nation of Biafra.

Similarly, the African country of Rwanda has a long history of ethnic conflict. The most horrific display of violence occurred from April to July of 1994 between two of Rwanda's ethnic groups: the Tutsi and the Hutu. The Rwandan Genocide, as it came to be known, was one of the bloodiest ethnic conflicts in history. The Hutu people's attempted extermination of the Tutsi resulted in 800,000 deaths, the majority being Tutsi.

For further information, listen to the following documentary produced by the BBC about the Rwandan Genocide titled: "How could the

Rwandan Genocide happen? - BBC Africa." <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SVnOGsJY5RQ>.

Poverty was another problem that Africans faced during the post-colonial period. Extreme poverty in Africa has many reasons, some of which are closely linked. The fundamental causes of poverty in Africa and the suffering of millions of people include:

Growth of Population

Despite numerous prevention and education campaigns, population growth on the African continent is rapid. Developmental success and economic growth cannot keep pace with this. In other words, first of all, rapid population growth is likely to reduce per capita income growth and well-being, which tends to increase poverty. Second, rapid population growth increases landlessness and poverty in densely

populated poor nations with pressure on land. Finally, the adverse effects of rapid population growth on child health and possibly on education will likely increase poverty in the next generation.

War and Crises

Of the world's 20 war-related conflicts in 2013, 11 alone were fought on the African continent—all in sub-Saharan Africa. This includes the wars in Sudan and South Sudan, Somalia, Nigeria, Mali, the Democratic Republic of Congo and the Central African Republic. In crisis regions, agricultural production usually comes to a standstill. Many flee, are forcibly expelled from their homes, and depend on outside help. Poverty in Africa is increasing as a result of these wars.

Climatic Conditions

The African continent has been suffering increasingly from climate change in recent decades: devastating floods and extraordinary drought periods lead to crop failures. The consequences are regular hunger crises and famine in Africa. Particularly affected are East Africa and the Sahel region.

Diseases

Diseases, such as AIDS, malaria and Ebola are the cause but also the result of poverty in Africa. Low education and inadequate medical

care in many regions mean that diseases spread faster and cannot be treated. The population's average life expectancy is decreasing, and the number of orphans is increasing. Loss of labour is particularly noticeable in agriculture and leads to reduced food production.

Inadequate agricultural infrastructure

In many African regions, agriculture lacks infrastructure and expertise, such as roads, wells, irrigation systems, storage facilities, and agricultural machinery. That is why local self-help is so important in helping to fight poverty in Africa.

Despite negative impressions about Africa as the arena of dictators and despots, there are glimmers of hope and optimism. The past two decades have undoubtedly seen a steady expansion of the frontiers of liberal democracy in Africa. In Africa, for instance, by the 1990s, profound democratic reforms had swept across the entire continent, including South Africa, where the white-settler apartheid system collapsed in favour of multi-party democracy.

From Algeria to DRC (Democratic Republic of Congo) and from Benin to Kenya, democratic reforms led to the collapse of decades of single-party dictatorships and military rule. Africa's democratic wave of the 1990s and 2000s has been termed "second independence", reminiscent of the anti-colonial struggles of the 1950 and 60s, which led to the end of European colonial projects in Africa.



Activity 7.11

1. List and put in rank the major challenges post-colonial African states encountered.
2. Write the major causes of the impoverishment of Africa.
3. Mention the causes of the Rwandan genocide of 1994 and the lesson the world Community in general and African counties, in particular, should learn from this tragic incident in the modern history of Africa.
4. Describe what Africa's Second Independence/Liberation means.



Unit Summary

The unit explored how different African countries gained independence from European colonial domination. Most African countries got their independence through the non-violent passive resistance movement. However, the road to independence was more difficult in the colonies where many Europeans settled, for instance, Algeria and South Rhodesia (Zimbabwe). The latter, therefore, were compelled to wage guerrilla wars of liberation to attain their independence.

There is no shadow of a doubt that Pan-Africanism and, of course, the OAU, the culmination of the Pan-African movement, played an irreplaceable role in the liberation of Africa from European domination in general and white minority rule in particular. However, the OAU failed to bring peace, prosperity, security, and stability to Africa.

For this reason and others, the OAU was dissolved and replaced by the AU at the beginning of the twenty-first century.

Despite widespread optimism in Africa by the end of colonial rule, the newly independent African countries were troubled by ethnic and border conflicts, debt, drought and famine. These problems reached a climax in the 1980s, often known as the lost decade.



Self-test Exercise 7.2 : Unit Review Questions

Part I: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. Which of the following was the first country that gained independence in North Africa
A. Tunisia B. Morocco C. Libya D. Algeria
2. The main cause of the mass killings in Rwanda in the mid-1990s was
A. ethnic conflict
B. isolationist policies
C. dictatorial rule
D. religious fundamentalism
3. The wars that took place in the Democratic Republic of Congo and Nigeria in the 1960s, and in Rwanda and Somalia in the early 1990s are similar in that they were caused in part by disputes:
A. over water sources
B. over oil and mineral rights
C. between ethnic groups
D. between Communist and non-Communist forces
4. Which of the following was the North African country that became independent after the guerrilla war of liberation?
A. Algeria B. Tunisia C. Egypt D. Morocco
5. The first British Colony that gained independence in sub-Saharan Africa was:
A. Gold coast B. Nigeria C. South Rhodesia D. the Gambia
6. Identify the Odd one:
A. ANC - South Africa
B. UGCC- Gold Coast
C. MNC- Zimbabwe
D. NCNC – Nigeria
7. Which of the following was not among the challenges that post-independence African countries faced?
A. Rapid population growth
B. The HIV/ AIDS Epidemic
C. Ethnic conflicts
D. Overproduction of food crops

✓ Checklist

Put a tick mark (✓) in the boxes given to prove if you have understood the respective issues well.

1.	National Liberation Movement	
2.	The Year of Africa	
3.	Pan-Africanism	
4.	Organization of African Unity (OAU)	
5.	Africa Union(AU)	
6.	Decolonization	
7.	Nationalism	
8.	Guerrilla war	
9.	Independence	
10	The first country to gain independence in Sub-Saharan Africa	
11.	the Egyptian Revolution of 1952	
12.	Gamal Abdel Nasser	
13.	Kwame Nkrumah	
14.	National Liberation Front of Algeria" (FLN)	
15.	the Yoruba Action Group (AG)	
16.	The Mau Mau movement	
17.	Patrice Lumumba	
18.	he African National Congress (ANC)	
19.	National Liberation Movement	
20.	The Year of Africa	
21.	Pan-Africanism	
22.	Organization of African Unity (OAU)	

Dear learner, did you mark a [✓] If not, please look at the corresponding item to the left and go back and read about it.

UNIT 8 : POST- 1991 DEVELOPMENTS IN ETHIOPIA



Unit Introduction

Dear learner, welcome to the eighth unit of the module. The unit focuses on post 1991 developments in Ethiopia. It explores the downfall of the Derg regime and the formation of the Transitional Government of Ethiopia; the 1995 Ethiopian constitution and the formation of FDRE; Hydro-politics of the Nile.

Unit Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

- distinguish the salient features of the transitional period;
- debate on some articles of the 1995 FDRE Constitution;
- identify the Nile Basin riparian states and the existing relationship.

Unit Contents

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Section 8.2. Hydro-Political History of the Nile (Abay) Basin and Development Issue

8.2.1 Hydro-Political History of the Nile (Abay) Basin

8.2.2 Development Issues & Challenges of Democratization Process in Ethiopia

Unit Learning Strategies:

Dear learner, the detailed learning strategies mentioned at the beginning of unit one are also applicable here. You may use them here. remember to attempt all the activities and exercises after reading the issues included in the unit. Try to tick the checklists included at the end of the unit.

The Required Study Time: _____ Periods.

Section 8.1. TRANSITIONAL GOVERNMENT OF ETHIOPIA (TGE)



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the first section of this unit. In this section you will learn the salient features of the 1991 Transitional Charter of Ethiopia. Similarly in here you will study about the 1995 Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

Learning outcome of the lesson

At the end of this section, the learners will be able to:

- identify the coalition of ethnic-nationalist forces that toppled the Derg regime;
- explore major issues incorporated in the Transitional Charter;
- unravel the major articles included in the 1995 Ethiopian constitution;
- point out the unique features of Ethiopian Federalism.

8.1.1 The 1991 Transitional Charter and the Formation of TGE

In 1991, following the end of the decades-long civil war, Ethiopia began a new chapter in its contemporary political history. The Marxist military junta was toppled by a coalition of ethno-nationalist forces, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Front (EPRDF), dominated by the Tigray People's Liberation Front (TPLF). Other members of the EPRDF were the Ethiopian Peoples' Democratic Movement (EPDM), the Oromo People's Democratic Organization (OPDO) and the Southern Ethiopian People's Democratic Movement (SEPDM), which joined the coalition in 1992.

The May 1991 London Conference was sponsored by the United States of America and attended by the Ethiopian government headed by Tesfaye Dinka, the EPLF under Isaias Afwerki, the EPRDF under TPLF leader Meles Zenawi, and the OLF under its deputy secretary-general, Lencho Letta.

The United States Assistant Secretary for African Affairs, Herman Cohen, served as a mediator. The conference was supposed to explore ways to set up a transitional government in Addis Ababa. However, it was soon overtaken by events on the ground and Addis Ababa was occupied by the insurgents on May 28, 1991.

As a result of the occupation of Addis Ababa by the insurgents, talks with government representatives broke down almost immediately, leaving the Eritrean and Tigray rebel leadership to plan the next step with Herman Cohen. A national conference was convened two months later in Addis Ababa to prepare for the transitional phase. An agreement to hold a referendum on independence in Eritrea in two years had been agreed upon already.

The Ethiopian Democratic and Peaceful Transitional Conference convened in the first week of July 1991. The conference was held in accordance with agreements reached by the leaders of EPDRF, EPLF, and OLF at the United States-brokered peace talks held in London. Each group's seats varied according to the size of the ethnic group it represented. Chaired by Meles Zenawi, the meeting followed the agenda prepared by its sponsors. For instance, Herman Cohen, who chaired the meeting in London, announced that the EPRDF would lead an interim government in Addis Ababa, hold a national conference including all existing political and ethnic organizations in the country and afterwards form a coalition government. The 'nationality issue' figured prominently in it, and a heated discussion took place on the issue of secession.

The de facto acceptance of Eritrean secession implied in the provision for a referendum on the issue limited to Eritreans passed with only one vote against and four abstentions. The EPLF sweetened the pill by offering Assab to use Ethiopia as a free port.

The reorganizing of the Ethiopian state as a federation on an ethnic basis by giving nationalities the right to 'administer their affairs within their own defined territory' was passed with a minimum of reflection. Whether the participants realized the importance of the issue is open to debate.



The new government included an 87-member Council of Representatives and a National Charter that functioned as a transitional constitution.

- There were 32 political groups represented in the Council of Representatives, but EPRDF-allied groups held 32 of the 87 seats. The TGE included a 17-member, ethnically mixed Council of Ministers.
- The OLF held four ministerial positions.
- The Council of Representatives elected Meles Zenawi as chairman of the Council of Representatives and president of Ethiopia.

Despite the participation of various political and ethnic groups in the TGE, violent clashes occurred throughout many parts of Ethiopia. This instability had resulted mainly from the dominance of the EPRDF and its allies in the TGE. Nearly a year after the formation of TGE, the OLF withdrew from the government. In March 1993, the TGE expelled members of the Southern Ethiopia Peoples' Democratic Coalition. Despite these developments, President Meles pledged to oversee the formation of multiparty democracy. In June 1994, there were elections for a 547-member Constituent Assembly that adopted the constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia.

Moreover, the Transitional Charter established 14 “self-governing regions” of “nations, nationalities, and peoples”. Thus from 1991 to 1995, Ethiopia was gradually evolving into a federal system of government.



Activity 8.1.

1. Which issues dominated the Transitional Period, and how were they resolved?

2. List the important political parties that attended the Ethiopian Democratic and Peaceful Transitional Conference.

8.1.2 The 1995 Constitution and the Formation of the FDRE

The 1995 constitution, which established the country as a federation of the multi-ethnic nation, identified nine states as the sub-national entities that constitute the Ethiopian federation. Ethiopia has been viewed by many commentators as “ethnic” or “ethnicity” federalism, perhaps as a result of the ethnolinguistic nature of the basis of state formation. The 1995 Federal Constitution was a compact document with a notable degree of clarity and simplicity. It is a document of 106 articles contained in eleven chapters. Principles of rule of law, self-determination, popular (or ethnic) sovereignty, inter-ethnic and inter-religious equality and gender equality are high in the list of priorities. Moreover, the principles of constitutional supremacy, respect for fundamental rights and freedoms, secularism, and accountability and transparency of government are stipulated as the basic principles of the constitution.

The principle of sanctity of human rights and freedoms is further elaborated by the incorporation of a host of rights in 31 articles (Articles 13-44). Classical civil liberties of individual rights and economic and socio-cultural rights are all recognized. Right to peace, development and environment, too, are granted constitutional recognition.

Group rights (or collective rights as they are also known) are stressed. Thus the right of ethno national communities to self-determination (political, cultural, as well as economic) is rather gratuitously recognized. Ethno-national communities in Ethiopia not only have the right to promote their cultures, develop their languages, preserve their identity and history, they also have the right to “a full measure of self-governance” and even the right to secede from the Ethiopian polity (Article 39).



The federal constitution established a parliamentary system of government with the **House of Peoples’ Representatives (HPR)** as the supreme political organ in the country. The HPR is a legislature whose members are elected for a term of five years.

As such, the institution enjoys the decisional, control and representative powers of legislatures elsewhere. The Upper House called the House

of Federation (HoF), is a representative body whose members are representatives of each “Nation, Nationality, and People”. Its main task is constitutional interpretation (Article 62).

The constitution also recognized the establishment of an independent judiciary with the Federal Supreme Court at the top of a three-tier judicial hierarchy. Although the courts are free to decide overall justiciable cases, including those in which the constitutional rights of citizens stand tall, they have an equivocal position about the power to interpret the constitution as the ultimate interpretive power is explicitly given to the HoF.



The federal constitution made contemporary Ethiopia a composite of nine ethno-national states. The nine states and two city administrations (Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa). The nine states thus established were 1. Afar; 2. Amhara; 3. Benishangul-Gumuz; 4. Gambella; 5. Harari; 6. Oromia; 7. Somalia; 8. Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples' State (SNNPRS); and 9. Tigray.

Although the states have an ethnic configuration, none of them is homogeneous. Some are even highly heterogeneous. The SNNPRS, having around 56 different groups, is so diverse and complex that one is prompted to think of a form of “federation within a federation”. Benishangul/Gumuz and Gambella have 4-5 ethnic groups within their territory. Afar, Somali, and Oromia, which seem to be homogeneous to many observers, also have pockets of non-Afar, non-Somali, and non-Oromo in their territory. Tigray, another state viewed as entirely homogeneous by many, is also a composite of the dominant Tigray, the Erob and the Kunama.

The Amhara State has the Agaw, the Oromo and other minorities, and the dominant Amhara. The Harari State has a large number of Oromo inhabitants, thereby necessitating the formation of a coalition government at the state level. In this way, Ethiopia’s constitution-makers have tried, or so they claimed, to forge a multi-ethnic federation.

In terms of the size of the member states, Oromia State accounts for one-third of the country’s total landmass, whereas the Harari State is by far the smallest at only 340 square kilometers. While the State of Somalia, the

State of Amhara and the State of the Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples are also large, the rest of the member states are smaller, signifying the asymmetric nature of the Ethiopian federation. Likewise, the ethnic composition of the federation reveals that together ethnic Oromos and Amharas constitute around 70 per cent.

Amharic was chosen as the working language at the federal level, although all languages are declared equal. States have the liberty to choose their working languages within their territory. Thus Tigray has chosen Tigrigna; Oromia has chosen Afaan Oromo; Somalia has chosen Somali; Harari has chosen Harari, Afaan Oromo and Amharic. Afar has chosen Amharic until its own Afar language has developed its script form to meet the needs of the bureaucracy effectively.

Benshangul-Gumuz, Gambella and SNNPRS have chosen Amharic as their working language at the state level primarily because Amharic is more neutral to all diverse groups inhabiting their states. In all these states, ethnic groups are free to use their languages in schools, local councils, courts, administration and, of course, in their dealings with the federal government. The Ethiopian federation is designed as the framework within which the Ethiopian ethnic groups can protect their rights and within which they are stimulated to develop a cooperative relationship. To put it differently, the constitutional objective of the federal structure is the creation of 'unity in diversity'.

The major challenges the Ethiopian "brand" of federalism has posed to legal and political actors in contemporary Ethiopia include a) the threat of secession and internal fragmentation, b) managing extreme inter-state imbalances, c) the task of the state-building, especially in the economically impoverished and historically underserved states; d) power-sharing in the executive offices; e) choice of capital cities (both at the federal level and the state level); f) the quest for having more than one working languages at the federal level, and g) the promotion of a uniform human rights standard in the face of an intensely pluralized legal system.



Activity 8.2.

1. Which of the 1995 Constitution's articles do you consider to be the most controversial? Why?

2. List the regional states that comprised the FDRE.

Section 8.2 Hydro-Political History of the Nile (Abay) Basin and Development Issues



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the second section of the unit. It mainly focuses on the hydro-political history of the Nile (Abay) basin. To be precise, in this section, you will explore the major tributaries of the Nile River, the bilateral and multilateral agreements signed on the use of the Nile River, and development issues and major challenges of democratization in Ethiopia.

Learning outcome of the lesson

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- identify the major tributaries of the Nile River;
- stipulate major agreements signed on the use of the Nile River;
- distinguish major Challenges of democratization in Ethiopia.

8.2.1 Hydro-Political History of the Nile (Abay) Basin

The Nile is the world's longest river, flowing south to north for about 6825kms. The river crosses over 35 degrees of latitude (the 40S to 310N). It traverses through countries with various climates and natural formations that range from mountainous highlands like the Hydro-Political History of the Nile (Abay) Basin Ethiopia to barren deserts like Egypt.

The Nile has three major tributaries: the Blue Nile (Abay) and the Tekkeze (Atbara), which flow from the highlands of Ethiopia, and the White Nile-the

headstreams of which flow into Lake Victoria. It traverses eleven African countries: Burundi, the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda, and South Sudan. These countries are known as the Nile riparian countries.



The Blue Nile originates from the highlands of Western Gojjam from a kebele named Sekela 100 km South of Lake Tana. From its source to Lake Tana, it bears the name Gilgel Abbay meaning smaller Abay and is fed by many smaller tributaries. The Blue Nile joins the White Nile in Khartoum. It contributes about 86% of the annual volume of water to the Nile.

Tekkeze River originates from the Siemen Mountains, northeast of Lake Tana, and flows to Sudan, bordering Ethiopia and Eritrea. After entering Sudan around Gallabat, Tekeze bears the name Atbara and flows to Lekahshim al-Gibran Dam. Atbara passes through the valley 290kms north of Khartoum. From January to June, the size of the river decreases greatly and disappears in the deserts of Sudan before reaching the Nile.



Map 8.1 The Nile Basin Countries, (source: science.org)

From time immemorial until the present, the most extensive use of the Nile water has been in Egypt. Egypt has utilized more water than all other riparian states altogether. The better utilization of the Nile in Egypt is borne out of the necessity that life in the country and settled agriculture depend on it. That is why life and agricultural activities in Egypt are completely confined to the Nile valley and its Delta.

On the contrary, although Ethiopia contributes about 86 per cent of the water of the Nile, and its catchment areas occupy more than 60 per cent of the country's total area, it utilizes less than 1 per cent of the Nile up until recent times.



The agreements signed in the twentieth century, both during and after the colonial period reserved the whole waters of the Nile for the lower riparian countries of Egypt and to some extent Sudan.

- *The first important agreement was the 1929 Agreement between Great Britain, on behalf of the Sudan and Egypt.*
- *The agreement gave Egypt the right to veto any project on the Nile that could adversely affect its interests.*
- *Nevertheless, the agreement could not have any binding effect since it did not include any of the upper riparian states of the Nile.*

This agreement was challenged by Sudan soon after its independence. The Sudanese argued that the agreement was no longer valid because it was signed by Britain and Egypt without consulting with them and had discriminated against Sudan by granting it only 4-billion-meter cubic water of the Nile. Thus, Egypt and Sudan signed the 1959 agreement after three consecutive years (1956-1958) of deadlock or no-peace no-war kind of relationship that had been created along their common boundaries.

The 1959 Agreement granted Egypt 55.5 billion cubic meters per annum while Sudan's share increased to 18.5 billion. Therefore, the 1959 Agreement was a watershed in the hydro-political history of the Nile valley. It strengthened a monopoly on the waters of the Nile by Egypt and Sudan.

The agreement ignored the natural and legal rights of the remaining riparian states to the bounty of the Nile water resources and left no room whatsoever for the other co-basin countries, including Ethiopia, which contributes 86 per cent of the total annual flow of the Nile.

Following the coming of the EPRDF to power, attempts were made to resolve differences in the use of the Nile waters between Ethiopia and Egypt. As a result, a Cooperative Framework Agreement (CFA) was signed between the two countries, Ethiopia, represented by Meles Zenawi and Egypt by Hosni Mubarak. It was an agreement for general cooperation in utilising the Nile waters corresponding to international law. However, it was only a talk to further talk on the Nile water question, which can neither be considered a treaty nor an agreement nor a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU).

It mentioned neither the 1959 Agreement nor the principle of 'fair and equitable utilisation of the Nile waters' Ethiopia has been calling for. Instead, the 'no harm principle' that protects the interests of Egypt was mentioned in the accord. Even then, the then President of Ethiopia, Meles Zenawi, reiterated in the meeting that the status quo concerning the Nile could not be maintained indefinitely.

The most important agreement signed so far is what is known as the Nile Basin Initiatives (NBI). It was a plan signed between the Nile riparian states, represented by their ministers of water development, in Dar es Salaam (Tanzania). For the first time in the Basin's history, an all-inclusive basin-wide institution was established, on 22nd February 1999, to provide a forum for consultation and coordination among the Basin states for the sustainable management and development of the shared Nile Basin water and related resources for win-win benefits.

As indicated above, the agreements signed so far did not recognise the interests of the upper riparian states regarding the Nile water. As a result, some Nile riparian countries have asserted their development ambitions on the river over the last two decades and pushed for a new agreement to enshrine equitable rights and harmonious use of the water. One such country is Ethiopia. As a result, Ethiopia has embarked on constructing the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD) in the Benishangul-Gumuz

region of Ethiopia on the Abbay River.

Construction of the Grand Renaissance Dam started in April 2011 and is central to Ethiopia's ambitions for economic prosperity. It is largely self-financed and will have a capacity of 74 billion Cubic meters when completed, enough to provide abundant cheap energy to power both national and regional developments. Currently, more than half of Ethiopia's 110 million people do not have access to electricity, but demand is increasing by 30 per cent annually.



Figure 8.1 The Under Construction of the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam,(source: countryhighlights.com).

Disputes between the downstream states of Egypt and Sudan and upstream Ethiopia escalated when the latter unilaterally commenced the Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam (GERD) construction on the Blue Nile in 2011. Soon upon the announcement of the beginning of its construction, the three riparian states embarked on difficult negotiations that stretched over a decade and ended in a political deadlock.



Activity 8.3

1. Mention the major tributaries of the Nile River.

2. Describe the key provisions of the agreements made in 1929 and 1959 regarding the usage of the Nile waters.

3. What is GERD?

4. What distinguishes the NBI from the agreements made for the usage of the Nile River?

8.2.2 Development Issues and Challenges of the Democratization Process in Ethiopia

Despite its proud history and vast natural resources, Ethiopia remains one of the poorest countries in the world. In 1992, immediately after assuming power, the new Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE) adopted a free-market economic model as the guiding principle- a clear departure from the socialist economic model pursued under the previous regime for over a decade.

Several reform measures were introduced that aimed to improve the conditions of the war-ravaged economy. Among these, the Agricultural-led Development of Industrialization (ALDI) strategy was adopted to try and industrialize the predominantly agrarian economy of the country. The rationale was that by improving the productivity of the agricultural sector, transformation to an industrialized economy could be achieved. The reasoning was that inducing a surplus in the agricultural

sector would stimulate consumerism and create the foundational demand for industrial growth.

The country's economy has grown steadily from the baseline of 0.5% per annum from 1981 to 1991 to 5.1% per annum from 1992 to 2004 to impressive levels of around 10.9% per annum from 2005 to 2015. These growth rates are some of the fastest, in the world, for a non-oil-producing country.

Ethiopia has also significantly improved its internal infrastructure and its ability to attract foreign investment. Two good examples of infrastructure development are the nation's road network expansions and the construction of the 'Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam. The road network has grown from 18,000Km in 1991 to over 120,000Km nowadays—a significant increase of 70% over 25 years.

Despite the steady economic growth in the 1990s, followed by rapid, sustained growth between 2004/5 to 2015, and a concurrent improvement in socio-economic conditions, the country remains one of the poorest in the world. About 25 million people, around a quarter of the population, still live below the poverty line (living on less than 1.25 dollars. Every year, before and after the economic boom of 2005, between 5 and 18 million Ethiopians have had to depend on food aid. Levels of food insecurity massively increased in 2015 when one of the country's worst droughts occurred.

Moreover, the development of the infrastructure and the economic growth registered are characterized by the lack of fair distribution among the regional states and the concentration of wealth among the few rich.

The FDRE constitution itself is still contested for its content and how it came about. It was seen more as a formalization of the EPRDF's political program than the supposed document of supreme importance that would mark a fresh political start based on lofty ideals. The period from the promulgation of the constitution to the present day has unfortunately been marred by recurrent political upheavals, particularly in the aftermath of certain political events such as elections.

The constitution, supposed to protect the rights of the citizens, was grossly violated by the government. These were outbreaks of ethnic-based clashes in different parts of the country instigated by groups affiliated with

the governing bodies and the imprisonments of leaders of the opposition and human rights activists. Though there was some attempt to allow a degree of freedom of expression, it was severely curtailed.

The path of the five regional and national elections held in 1995, 2000, 2005, 2010 and 2015 reveal the country's uncomfortable political road. Though the ruling party expressly declared its commitment to establishing multiparty democracy, preventing the appearance or existence of a strong opposition party. Those who survived were targets of harassment at times of election. As a result, the opposition largely boycotted the first two elections, thereby undermining the legitimacy of the political process and the EPRDF as a ruling party.

The EPRDF, therefore, won the first two elections with few serious challenges. The opposition forces regrouped and seriously participated in the third election (2005). The initial optimism surrounding the election, which most observers saw as a genuine multiparty exercise, was soon replaced by disappointment as the ruling EPRDF and the major opposition alliances, the Coalition for Unity and Democracy (CUD) and the Union of Ethiopian Democratic Forces (UEDF), declared themselves the winners before all the votes had even been counted.

However, the opposition did make significant gains in the country's urban areas and some regions (Oromia, Amhara and the Southern Nations and Nationalities), winning up to 173 out of the 547 seats.

In the capital, Addis Ababa, the opposition won all the Federal parliamentary seats and those of the city administration council. The controversy surrounding the election process sparked violent protests that claimed the lives of more than 200 protesters. Furthermore, members of the CUD coalition refused to take up their seats in parliament, and consequently, its leaders ended up in jail. Journalists and some civil society leaders were also imprisoned alongside CUD leaders.

**Activity 8.4.**

1. What is the Agricultural Led Development of Industrialization (ALDI)?

2. Describe some of the difficulties the FDRE faced during the democratization process.



Unit Summary

The coming to power of the EPRDF, the ethnic-nationalist coalition dominated by the TPLF, marked the downfall of the Derg regime and the conclusion of a civil war that mainly ravaged northern Ethiopia.

The Transitional Government of Ethiopia had an 87-member Council of Representatives, which drafted a National Charter that functioned as a transitional constitution. The Charter established 14 “self-governing regions” of “nations, nationalities, and peoples and laid the foundation for the Federal form of government.

The 1995 constitution established the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE), which is composed of nine regional states and two city councils. In addition, the constitution established a parliamentary system of government with the House of Peoples’ Representatives (HPR), whose members are elected for a term of five years and the House of Federation (HOF), which is a representative organ whose members are representatives of each “Nation, Nationality, and People”.

Ethiopia is a source of two of the three major tributaries of the Nile River, namely Abbay (Blue Nile) and Tekkeze (Atbara), contributing about 86 per cent of the Nile Waters. However, the most extensive use of the Nile water has been in Egypt from time immemorial to the present.

According to the 1929 and 1959 agreements, all the water of the Nile has been shared by two lower riparian countries, namely Egypt and Sudan. However, the agreements ignored the natural and legal rights of the remaining riparian states to use the Nile water.

However, in recent years the upper riparian counties in general and Ethiopia, in particular, have asserted their development ambitions on the river and pushed for a new agreement to enshrine equitable rights and harmonious use of the water.



Self-test Exercise 8.1 : Unit Review

Part I: True or false Items. Say "True" for correct statements and "False" for incorrect ones

1. According to the 1995 constitution, the two city administrations are Harar and Jimma.
2. The 1995 Agreement was the first Nile river agreement ever signed by Egypt and Sudan.
3. There are thirteen chapters in the FDRE constitution.
4. Negaso Gidada served as the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia's (FDRE) first president.
5. Following the 2005 elections in Ethiopia, opposition parties won roughly 173 of the 547 House of People's Representatives seats.

Part II: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

1. Which of the following political parties was not a part of the EPRDF coalition?
 - A. TPLF
 - B. EPDM
 - C. OLF
 - D. OPDO
2. Which country sponsored the May 1991 London Conference ?
 - A. Great Britain
 - B. USA
 - C. USSR
 - D. France
3. It was claimed that the 1991 London conference stopped before it even started because
 - A. The representative of the *Derg* was not ready to negotiate with the insurgents
 - B. The Insurgents entered Addis on the day of the launching of the conference
 - C. It was dictated by Isaias Afewerki of Eritrea
 - D. The EPRDF left as soon as the conference kicked off
4. Compared to the previous Ethiopian constitution, the 1995 version was different because
 - A. The 1995 constitution was the first written constitution in the history of the country
 - B. It was the first constitution to endorse the federal form of government
 - C. It was the first construction that endorsed the bicameral house of parliament
 - D. All of the above
5. The First president of the transitional Government of Ethiopia was:

- A. Negaso Gidada B. Meles Zenawi
 C. Mengistu Haile Mariam D. Girma Wolde
6. The largest regional state of the FDRE is:
 A. SNNPRS B. Afar Regional State
 C. Oromia Regional State D. Amhara Regional State

✓ Checklist

Put a tick mark (✓) in the boxes given to prove if you have understood the respective issues well.

1.	Transitional Government of Ethiopia	
2.	The 1995 Ethiopian constitution	
3.	The formation of FDRE	
4.	Hydro-politics	
5.	the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Front (EPRDF)	
6.	The May 1991 London Conference	
7.	The Transitional Charter of 1991	
8.	The House of Peoples' Representatives (HPR)	
9.	The House of Federation (HoF)	
10.	Ethno-national states of Ethiopia	
11.	The Nile three major tributaries of the Nile	
12.	The 1929 Nile Waters Agreement	
13.	The 1959 Nile Waters Agreement	

Dear learner, did you mark a [✓] If not, please look at the corresponding item to the left and go back and read about it.

UNT 9: INDIGENOUS KNOWLEDGE AND HERITAGES OF

ETHIOPIA

Unit Introduction

Dear learner, congratulations and welcome to the last unit of the course. This unit deals with indigenous knowledge and heritages in Ethiopia. Ethiopia has diverse cultural and natural heritages and tangible and intangible heritages. The intangible heritages, which include songs, recipes, languages, dances, and many other elements, attest to who we are and how we identify ourselves. They are important as historical buildings and archaeological sites of tangible heritages. Our heritage is our inheritance, what the past has passed to us, what we value in the present and what we choose to preserve for the future generation. This unit contains the following major lessons: indigenous knowledge and its role in sustainable development, characteristics of indigenous knowledge, specific and unique knowledge systems within a particular cultural group and region, the role of indigenous knowledge for overall development, heritages of Ethiopia, values of heritages, and types of heritages.

Unit Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, the learners will be able to:

- respect others through exposure to a way of life different from their own;
- differentiate tangible and intangible heritage;
- evaluate the effectiveness of indigenous conflict resolution systems in Ethiopia.

Unit Contents

Section 9.1 Indigenous Knowledge

9.1.1 The Role of Indigenous Knowledge for overall Development;

Characteristics of Indigenous Knowledge

9.1.2 Characteristics of Indigenous Knowledge

9.1.3 Some Specific and Unique Knowledge Systems in Ethiopia within a Particular Cultural Group and Regions

Section 9.2 Heritages of Ethiopia

9.2.1 Meaning and Values of Heritages

9.2.2 Types of Heritages

Unit Learning Strategies:

Dear learner, the detailed learning strategies mentioned at the beginning of unit one are also applicable here. You may use them here. Remember to attempt all the activities and exercises after reading the issues included in the unit. Try to tick the checklists included at the end of the unit.

The Required Study Time: _____ Periods.

Section 9.1. Indigenous Knowledge



Section Overview

Dear learner, welcome to the first section of the unit. In this section, you will explore the essence of indigenous knowledge, which is regarded as the sum of experience and knowledge for the given society on specific aspects which form the basis for decision-making. The major issues you will explore in the section are indigenous knowledge's role in overall development, indigenous knowledge's characteristics, and Some Specific and Unique Knowledge Systems in Ethiopia Among Particular Cultural Groups and Regions.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- identify the essence of indigenous knowledge;
- appreciate the role of indigenous knowledge in development.
- give concrete examples of the significance of indigenous knowledge to the overall development of the country;
- identify the characteristics of indigenous knowledge.
- identify indigenous conflict resolution methods used in their locality;
- appreciate the different roles elders play in their community.

Indigenous knowledge assists society in making judgments regarding activities that are compatible with their way of life. It is the knowledge that locals utilize to earn a living in a certain setting. It is often known as "local knowledge," and it is what indigenous people have passed down from generation to generation through oral tradition and practice. Indigenous knowledge shapes people's worldviews and guides their social, economic, political, and spiritual survival.



Indigenous knowledge can take the following forms: indigenous laws, rituals, local classification and quantification systems for plants, animals, soils, water, air, and weather; indigenous methods of counting and quantifying; learning systems-indigenous educational methods, indigenous agricultural farming and crop systems, indigenous medicine, pest management systems, and so on.

9.1.1 The Role of Indigenous Knowledge for overall Development; Characteristics of Indigenous Knowledge

Indigenous knowledge provides problem-solving strategies for local communities. It represents an important component of global knowledge on development issues. Learning from indigenous knowledge can improve understanding of local conditions. Indigenous people can provide valuable input about the local environment and how to manage natural resources effectively. Indigenous knowledge systems and technologies have been proven to be socially desired, economically viable, and sustainable, posing little danger to rural farmers and producers and, most importantly, conserving resources. Learning from indigenous knowledge can improve understanding of agriculture, healthcare, food security, education and natural resource management issues. Preserving indigenous knowledge contributes to cultural and political self-reliance.



Activity 9.1.

Give concrete instances of indigenous knowledge in your area (such as indigenous medicine or indigenous social institutions) and describe how these examples are used in your community.

9.1.2 Characteristics of Indigenous Knowledge

Indigenous knowledge is simple and practical. It links the survival of every human being to the wholeness of nature and its elements that support life. It provides concrete situations for communities regarding the environment and practical solutions to people's problems. This knowledge deals with simple but applied education, economics, politics, religion, sciences and technologies of indigenous societies. It provides a basic and rich ground for the development of modern society.

Indigenous knowledge developed over a long period. Its patterns are based on local knowledge systems and are expressed in local languages. In many cases, this knowledge has been passed from generation to generation orally. Some forms of indigenous knowledge are expressed through stories, legends, folklore, rituals, songs, and even laws.



Self-test Exercise 9.1: Write a short answer for the following question.

Describe shortly the characteristics of indigenous knowledge.

9.1.3 Some Specific and Unique Knowledge Systems in Ethiopia Among a Particular Cultural Groups and Regions

Indigenous knowledge is manifested in numerous ways. These include management strategies, decision-making procedures, dispute-resolution practices, indigenous laws, and rights. For example, in Ethiopia, indigenous conflict resolution is one of the most popular techniques of conflict settlement.

Local leaders, chiefs, religious leaders, healers, and elders lead the process of resolving problems using indigenous techniques. These authorities are respected for their extensive understanding of local customs, traditions, history, and contending parties' relationships. They have a wealth of conflict resolution expertise, and their ability to understand symbols of reconciliation and their oratory abilities and social capital as community leaders enable them to negotiate a settlement to the issue.

The indigenous dispute resolution mechanism is an informal way of resolving conflicts. Indigenous or informal dispute resolution mechanisms are old collections of techniques found in all communities. They resolve conflicts through arbitration and mediation. The main aim of this mechanism is to devise a solution based on society's recognized customs and morality. In addition, this mechanism helps to restore a good relationship among the conflicting parties.

Every corner of the country has age-old, culturally deep-rooted mechanisms of conflict resolution. These indigenous institutions in Ethiopia have their custom of settling conflicts. The following are examples of Ethiopia's indigenous conflict resolution mechanisms and knowledge systems.

Mada'a and Dagu of Afar People



The Afar are predominantly pastoral community who inhabit the northeastern part of Ethiopia.

- *The indigenous mechanism of conflict resolution among the Afar is known as Mada'a.*
- *Elders and clan leaders have been playing a pivotal role in conflict resolution in the context of indigenous law.*
- *It is an unwritten law that is transmitted orally from generation to generation. Elders of the Mada'a, not representing members in disputes, are selected from different clans.*
- *The decisions by the council of elders are effective based on the tradition of forgiveness, respect for elders, and the transfer of resources as compensation.*

Because of their predominantly pastoral way of life, they have an indigenous, unique information exchange system called Dagu. This indigenous communication network is an old system of information management, which involves passing and receiving information or news about what two or more individuals have seen or heard. It is a news medium that serves all members of society virtually equally, regardless of their social status. Through Dagu, they learn of any newcomers to their desert realm, of the conditions of water holes and grazing lands, of missing

camels and caravans. Moreover, it helps them learn about weddings and funerals, new alliances and betrayals, the latest battles fought, and the conditions of the trail ahead.



Figure 9.1 Dagu of Afar people

Jaarsuuma, Sinqe institution, Guma

In grade nine, you learned about the Gadaa system. Gadaa is the indigenous democratic system of governance of the Oromo. In the Gadaa system, the people are grouped and organised into five Gadaa classes that succeed each other every eight years in assuming economic, political, military and social responsibilities. The foundation of the Gadaa system is rooted in the informal or customary Oromo institutions of aadaa (custom or tradition), seera (laws), safuu (a moral category that prescribes what human actions and behaviours ought to be). It is the Oromo concept of Ethics) and heera (justice). These institutions form indigenous systems of knowledge and include the rules and regulations that determine access to natural resources. They are also conflict-resolution institutions uniquely placed to assist in tackling the interlinked problems of the environment, welfare, and conflict.

In most Ethiopian traditions, community elders are key decision-makers and conflict mediators. The other important informal institution of conflict resolution is the institution of araara (reconciliation). The process of

reconciliation between conflicting individuals or groups by a group of Jaarsaas is jaarsummaa. Individuals or groups involved in the conflict are more likely to accept guidance from these mediators than from other sources because elders' decision is highly respected and supported by society.



The term jaarsa is the Oromo version of elder, and jaarsummaa is the process of reconciliation between conflicting individuals or groups of jaarsaas (elders). The decision of the elders emphasizes the need for cooperation and a win-win solution instead of unconstructive competition among the disputants, resulting in a win-lose situation. The following Oromo proverb describes why a win-win is desired: "Akka Haroon hin gognee akka raachi hin dune" (for the lake not to dry, for the frogs not to die.)



Figure 9.2 Jaarsuumsaa of the Oromo people

Gumaa is the other widely practised indigenous way of resolving conflicts relating to homicide or murder. It refers to the blood money paid to the slain's family or the payment made to seriously injured individuals. It is vital to settle disputes, especially when serious cases like murder happen. The

gumaa system is capable of creating an environment conducive to justice through narrations of and reflections on past experiences related to the conflict.

The legitimacy of a system becomes credible through the nomination of mature elders, knowledgeable about the process and rich in their practical experiences. Compared to the formal justice systems, the indigenous conflict resolution system is also free from corruption and politicization.

The nominated elder examines whether the procedures followed align with the heera (customary law and justice procedure. In the gumaa system, decisions are made after closely examining data obtained from witnesses, and the conflicting parties express repentance. This mechanism also has its system of secretly investigating crimes committed against human life or property.



The instrument through which women's rights are duly respected among the Oromo is known as Siinqee (Siiqee). Siinqee (Siiqee) is a stick (Ulee) symbolizing a socially sanctioned set of rights exercised by women.

It is a special stick that a woman who gets legally married receives on her wedding day. It is also important to note that Siinqee (Siiqee) is not merely a term for a material symbol. It also refers to an institution, namely a women's organisation, that excludes men and has religious and political functions. Women use their Siinqee (Siiqee) in various religious, social, political and economic contexts to protect their property rights, assert control over sexuality and fertility, protect their social rights and maintain religious and moral authority.

Women in the Oromo society are considered symbols of mediation and peace-building and are respected by the community. As an institution of conflict resolution, Siinqee (Siiqee) helps to resolve conflicts between different social groups, like spouses, mother and son, the Oromo and other ethnic groups and so on.

Whenever a woman's right has been violated, the women ululate to notify each other. Upon hearing the sound, women respond by moving to the place carrying their Siinqee. Every woman is obliged to respond to the call.

Then, the women go to the Gada Council singing a song in which they announce the specific activities which led to the breach of their rights.

At the council, they are welcomed respectfully and invited to speak out about the wrongdoing. Afterwards, the person accused of wrongdoing was brought to justice, and the appropriate punitive measures would be taken against him.



Figure 9.3 *Sinqee*, the ritual stick of Oromo woman

Shimgelina

Among the Amhara people, the main indigenous conflict resolution mechanism is *Shimgelina*, which is comparable to the *Jarsuumma* of the Oromo people. In this indigenous conflict resolution mechanism, the disputing parties would appoint five *Shimageles* (elders) based on their choice. They are recognized as solution-makers since they have the power to make binding decisions and impose solutions on behalf of the parties. They can sanction social measures in case one of the parties fails to comply with the ruling or agreement. The *Shimageles* often follow up on agreements and strive to improve relationships in post-mediation sessions.



Figure 9.4 *Shimegilena*, cultural peace building process in Ethiopia

Shimegilena is preferred due to its accessibility, low cost, and trust. In most cases, a priest of the local church serves as chairman to make the system more acceptable to society. The disputants perform different activities as part of the ceremony celebrating the resolution of the conflict. These include exchanging assets, prayers and sacrificing to GOD and habitual activities such as jumping over the rifles, drinking and eating jointly, playing and dancing or consuming some drugs.



Activity 9.2.

1. What do the Afar people's Dagu, the Oromo people's Jaarsumma, and the Amahara people's Shimegilena mean?

2. Describe the function of the Singee institution in the Oromo people's indigenous system for resolving disputes.

The Sidama Luwa system is an age-related institution performing a ritual, cultural and political roles. It is administered by an age grade system where each grade rotates every eight years. There are five rotating age grades in the Luwa system: Darara, Fullassa, Hirobora, Wawassa and Mogissa.

The Luwa system has two important objectives. The first and most important one is the recruitment and training of able bodied men for the defence of the nation. The second objective is the development of potential elders who will have the authority to replace the current elders (Cimeeyye).

The cyclical feature of the luwa system means that all males progress from a youth status of providing service to senior positions of redistributing wealth and knowledge. The youth learn skills by attending council meetings where elders make decisions. Hence, elders directly influence the youth, who constitute the productive forces and the basis of wealth creation.

Other independent socio-economic institutions also reflected a unique and egalitarian culture of the Sidama society. Among such institutions, the most notable one is Seera.

The Sidama Seera system is divided into two: the first refers to the broad concept of Seera as a social constitution which governs the Sidama social life based on the Sidama moral code of halale (the ultimate truth). The Sidama moral code halale provides the basis for distinguishing “good” and “evil”, and in the broadest sense, the term refers to ‘the true way of life.’

In Kambata and Hadiya culture, the basis for political administration, social involvement, and dispute resolution processes is Seera. Seera refers to the code of behaviour that people follow and internalise. It governs the interactions of people, clans, and territorial groups. Some of the topics governed by the Seera are activities that bind all love affairs, marriage and family connections, peer group organisations, work and enjoyment parties, games and sports, hunting bands, and so on. Seera recommends how farmers interact with the environment, youth with the elderly, and women with men. Peace, correction, and reintegration are the goals of Seera governance. Seera administration is overseen by the village elders, who are often regarded as wise and patient and have wide-ranging knowledge of justice and peace



Activity 9.3.

Write a one-page essay on one of the local indigenous dispute resolution techniques in your local area.

Section 9.2. Heritages of Ethiopia



Section overview

Dear learner, congratulations! You have left only with this section to finish the module and the course. Here you will identify the different types of heritages of Ethiopia. Moreover, you will explore the heritages of Ethiopia registered by UNESCO.

Learning Competencies of the Section

At the end of this lesson, the learners will be able to:

- advocate for indigenous knowledge systems and national heritages;
- categorize heritages of the local area based on their types and forms
- identify the heritages of Ethiopia registered by UNESCO;
- communicate Ethiopian heritage centres to the world using IT.

9.2.1. Meaning and Values of Heritages

Heritage can be passed from generation to generation, something that can be conserved or inherited and has historical or cultural value. Heritage might be understood as a physical 'object': a piece of property, a building or a place that can be 'owned' and 'passed on' to someone else.

Besides these physical objects and places of heritage, a variety of heritage practices are preserved or passed down from generation to generation. Language, culture, popular song, literature, and dress, for example, are just as significant in helping us comprehend who we are as the physical artifacts and buildings that we are more accustomed to thinking of as 'heritage.'

The term 'heritage values' refers to the meanings and values that individuals or groups of people bestow on heritage (including buildings, archaeological sites, landscapes and intangible expressions of culture, such as traditions). There are many classifications of values, including historical, aesthetic, economic, social, scientific and an array of other types.

9.2.1.Types of Heritages

There are different types of Heritages. These include Natural, tangible, and intangible heritages.

A. Natural Heritage consists of

- i. Physical and biological formations or groups of such formations, which are of outstanding value from the aesthetic or scientific point of view.
- ii. geological and physiographical formations and precisely delineated areas, which constitute the habitat of threatened species of animals and plants of outstanding value from the point of view of science or conservation;
- iii. natural sites or precisely delineated natural areas of outstanding value from the point of view of science, conservation or natural beauty.

B. Intangible heritage: refers to those practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills, instruments, objects, and artefacts. These are manifested in the following domains:

- oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage;
- performing arts;
- social practices, rituals and festive events;
- knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe;
- indigenous handcrafts.

C. Tangible Heritage: Tangible Heritage refers to physical artifacts produced, maintained and transmitted from generation to generation. It includes artistic creations, buildings and historic places, monuments, artifacts, etc., which are considered worthy of preservation for the future. The heritages of Ethiopia registered by UNESCO include the following:

1. **The Stelae of Axum** in Tigray National Regional State, symbolizes the wealth and importance of the civilization of the ancient Aksumite kingdom. Due to its historical value, Axum and its archaeological sites

were included in the List of World Heritage Sites in 1980.

2. **The Rock-hewn Churches of Lalibela** are found in the Amhara National Regional state. The churches were carved out of a singed rock. It was registered by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site in 1978. All eleven churches represent a unique artistic achievement, in their execution, size and the variety and boldness of their form.
3. **Fasil Ghebbi (the Premise of King Fasiledes):** This heritage is found in Gonder town. As true evidence of an architectural beauty deeply marked by the country's ancient civilization, the Royal enclosure (Fasil Ghebbi) was registered by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site.
4. **The Simien Mountains National Park:** This Park is found in Amhara National Regional State North Gondar Administrative Zone. The Park is home to some extremely rare animals such as the Gelada baboon, the Simien fox and the Walia ibex. The Park is one of the first sites to be included in the list of World Heritage in 1978.
5. **The Lower Valley of Awash:** The Lower Valley of Awash is located 300 km northeast of Addis Ababa in Afar Regional State. This is a site of Paleo-anthropological research. The Lower Valley of Awash was included in the list of World Heritage sites in 1980.
6. **The Lower valley of Omo:** Located in South Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Regional State. The discovery of many human and animal fossils and stone tools in the valley has been of fundamental importance in the study of human evolution. It was listed as a World Heritage Site in 1980.
7. **Tiya:** It is found 90km South of Addis Ababa, in the Soddo Region of Ethiopia. The site contains 36 monuments, including 32 carved stelae covered with symbols. This archaeological site was listed as a World Heritage Site in 1980.
8. **Harar Jugol:** The fortified historic town of Harar is located in the eastern part of Ethiopia, 525 km from Addis Ababa. The wall (Jugol) was built during the time of Emir Nur Ibn Mujahid in the 16th century. In recognition of its cultural heritage, the Historic City of Harar (Jugol) was registered by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site in 2006.
9. **Konso cultural landscape:** Konso Cultural Landscape is an arid property of stone-walled terraces and fortified settlements in the Konso highlands

of Ethiopia, which was inscribed on the world heritage list in 2011.

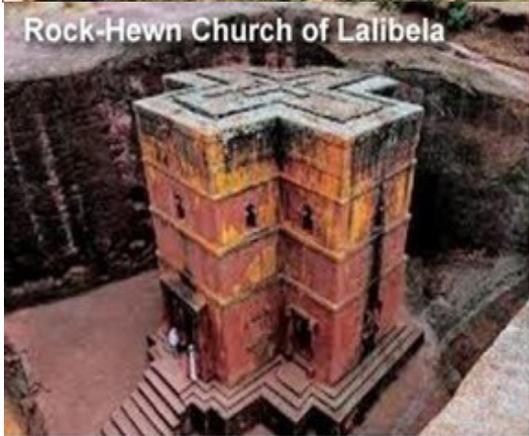
10. **Mesqel Demera ceremony (“the Finding of the True Cross”)**: Meskel, the commemoration feast of the finding of the True Holy Cross of Christ, was inscribed on the UNESCO Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity in 2013.
11. **Gadaa**: The *Gadda* system is an indigenous democratic socio-political system of the Oromo people. *Gadaa* was inscribed on the representative list of the intangible cultural heritage of humanity in 2016.
12. **Fichee-Chambalaalla**- is a New Year celebration and stands out as one of the most important holidays of the Sidama. *Fiche-Chambalaalla* was inscribed on the representative list of the intangible cultural heritage of humanity in 2015.
13. **Timket, Ethiopian Epiphany**: The festival of Timiket or Epiphany to commemorate the baptism of Jesus in the Jordan River is celebrated across Ethiopia on January 19th or 20th in the leap year. This festival is best known for its ritual reenactment of baptism. It has become the fourth for Ethiopia in the list of UNESCO intangible cultural heritage lists in 2019.



Konso Cultural Landscape



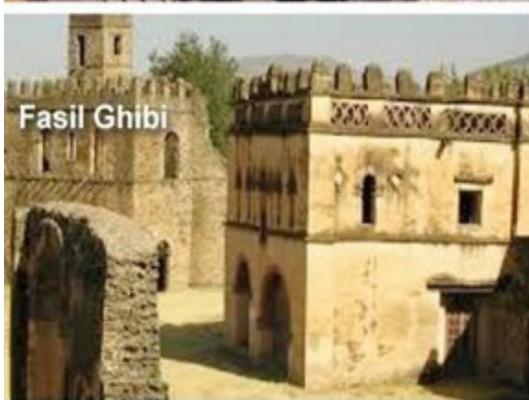
Simien Mountains National Park



Rock-Hewn Church of Lalibela



Obelisk of Axum



Fasil Ghibi



Tiya

Figure 9.5 Some tangible Heritages in Ethiopia

Festivals are classified under intangible heritages. Some of the most important cultural and religious festivals in Ethiopia include Ashenda, Ashendiye, Shadey or Solel. The festival known as Ashenda, Ashendiye, Shaday or Solel is the biggest and unique religious and cultural festival in Tigray and Amhara regional states that is solely for girls and young women. Religious belief has been a vital aspect of human existence. Man has always been searching for purpose and meaning, and thus, has birthed many different religions with their unique way of celebrating. One of these festivals is Irrecha. Irreecha (also called Irreessa) is the annual thanksgiving day of Oromo celebrated every year at the beginning of Birra (spring), the new season, near the river bank or water and tree. Irreechaa is celebrated every year in September at Bishoftu Hora Harsadii and other major Oromia cities.

Manuscripts

Ethiopia is exceptional in sub-Saharan Africa. It has a written tradition in the Gé'éz language. After the introduction of Christianity in the 4th century, Ethiopian manuscripts flourished due to the support the writers got from the state. Hence, Ethiopia has a considerable number of manuscripts. There were special schools for calligraphy in Gondar and Shewa. There was a school for bookbinding. The trainers were assigned to the royal court to record events. The writing materials have always been parchment from goatskin, ink-both black and red, from different plants and minerals. Pens are made from a few local sorts of reed or bamboo.



Figure 9.6 Manuscripts written in Ge'ez

Temples

Ethiopia has several temples which can be classified as tangible heritages. Some of these temples date back to the Pre-Christian era. The well-known ones are the temple of Yeha, the old cathedral of St. Mary of Zion at Aksum, the Rock-hewn Churches of Lalibela, monasteries and others. The Temple of Yeha is located in Yeha, northeast Adwa. This is a tower built in the Sabaean style and dated through comparison with ancient structures in South Arabia to around 700 BC.



Figure 9.7 Temple of Yeha

Mosques

Following the introduction and expansion of Islam in Ethiopia, many mosques were built in different parts of the country.



Figure 9.8 Mosque of Negash, Tigray and the Grand Anwar Mosque, Addis Ababa

Palaces

The well-known palaces in Ethiopia are the Palace of King Fasilidas, Grand palace of Menilek, Palace of Jimma Abba Jifar II, Palace of Ras Ali, the palace of Kumsa Moreda and others.



Figure 9.9 Palaces of Abba Jifar II of Jimma (left) and Kumsa Moreda of Nekemet (Right)

Caves, houses



Figure 9.10 Sof Omer caves

Sof Omar

It is one of the most remarkable and extensive underground caves in the world. The Sof Omar cave system was formed by the Weyb River, as it changed its course in the distant past and carved a new channel through limestone foothills.

Halala Keela (Halala kab) of Dawuro

The Dawuro wall was constructed on strategic defense positions, bordered by the Omo and Gojeb Rivers. The construction of these dry-stone walls might have begun in the second half of the the16th century and was completed probably in the second half of the 18th century during the reign of King **Halala**. The wall started from somewhere in the area where Gofa, South Omo Zone, Konta Special Woreda and Kafa Zone come in contact in the south and extends up to some places in Jimma Zone.



Figure 9.11 *Halala Keela (Halala Kab) of Dawuro*



Unit Summary

Indigenous knowledge helps society make decisions about activities acceptable to their ways of life. It is knowledge used by local people to make a living in a particular environment, inherited from earlier times via the oral tradition.

Indigenous knowledge is implemented in the practical life of society in various forms. These include management practices: decision-making processes, conflict management practices, indigenous laws, and rights.

Heritage includes everything people want to save, including material culture and nature. It is the full range of our inherited traditions, monuments, objects, and culture.

Our heritage includes those places with natural, indigenous or historical values that we have inherited and want to pass on to future generations. Heritage provides an important context for our perception of ourselves as Ethiopians and is part of the social glue that binds communities together and expresses identity.



Self-test Exercise 9.2 : Unit Review Questions

Part I: Multiple Choice. Choose the correct answer from the given alternatives.

- Which one of the following represents an intangible heritage?
 - Steal of Aksum
 - Palace of Jimma Abba Jifar II
 - Jugol of Harar
 - Fiche-Chamballala
- Which of the following statements on indigenous knowledge is incorrect?
 - transmitted orally from generation to generation
 - provides problem-solving strategies for local communities
 - generated within a community in location and culture
 - expressed in universal languages
- The one that most exemplifies how women protect their rights among the following is

A. Siinqee institution	B. Bayito
C. Dagu	D. Ashenda
- The Dagu of Afar's most significant role is
 - to settle conflicts among the community
 - to strengthen economic support and aid
 - to exchange information
 - to perform annual festivals
- Tangible heritages include all, except

A. buildings	B. handicrafts	C. paintings	D. songs
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- The Oromo people's indigenous democratic sociopolitical system is referred to as

A. <i>Sinqee</i>	B. <i>Irrecha</i>	C. <i>Gadda</i>	D. <i>Heera</i>
------------------	-------------------	-----------------	-----------------
- Which of the following has been added to UNESCO's representative list of the world's intangible cultural heritage?

A. Jugol of Harar	B. <i>Dagu</i>	C. <i>Tiya</i>	D. <i>Gadaa</i>
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✓ Checklist

Put a tick mark (✓) in the boxes given to prove if you have understood the respective issues well.

1.	Indigenous Knowledge	
2.	Heritages	
3.	Cultural Heritages	
4.	Natural heritages	
5.	Tangibele heritages	
6.	Intangible heritages	
7.	<i>Mada'a</i> of Afar	
8.	<i>Dagu</i> of Afar	
9.	<i>Gadaa</i> system	
10.	<i>Jaarsummaa</i> of the Oromo	
11.	<i>Gumaa</i>	
12.	<i>Siinqee</i> (<i>Siiqee</i>)	
13.	<i>Shingelina</i>	
14.	<i>Luwa</i> system	
15.	<i>Seera</i> system	
16.	World Heritage Sites in Ethiopia	

Dear learner, did you mark a [✓] If not, please look at the corresponding item to the left and go back and read about it.



ANSWER KEY FOR ACTIVITIES AND EXERCISES

Key for Unit Five

Feedback for Exercise 5.1

- The UN has four main purposes: These are to maintain international peace and security; to develop friendly relations among nations; to cooperate in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems in promoting respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; to protect Earth and Environment.
- The six organs of the UNO are the General Assembly, Secretary council, the Secretariat, The Economic and Social Council, Trusteeship Council, and the International Court of Justice.

Feedback for Exercise 5.2

Part I:

1. A 2. B 3. C 4. A 5. B 6. E

Feedback for Activity 5.1

- Negotiation, mediation, arbitration economic sanction, peace keeping force, military intervention etc.
-

1. Kurt Waldheim	2. Javier Perez de Cuellar	3. U Thant
4. Trygvie Lie	5. Boutros- Boutros Gali	6. Ban Ki Moon

Feedback for Activity 5.2

- USA and USSR
-

	USA	Soviet Union
Ideology	Capitalism, Western democracy	Communist, Marxism-Leninism
Governance	Multi-party system	Mono-Party rule (One)
Property ownership	Private ownership	Public (state) ownership
Economic system	Free trade	Command economy

Feedback for Activity 5.3

The methodologies employed by the superpowers to implement their political, economic and military goals were proxy war, propaganda, foreign aid, military bloc, ideology, espionage, Arms race, sport.

Feedback for Exercise 5.3

1. C 2. B 3. B 4. B 5. D 6. D

Feedback for Exercise 5.4

1. Political goal of the marshal plan was to stop the expansion of communism. Its economic motives was to create a market in Europe for American manufactured goods.
2. Huge budget for military; slow down the growth of other sectors of the economy, intensive fear and suspension between the two powers.

Feedback for Exercise 5.5**Part I:**

1. False 2. True 3. False 4. False 5. True

Part II:

1. D 2. A 3. C 4. E 5. B

Part III:

1. J.F. Kennedy-"Safe Village Policy"
Johnson- Bombing (Airstrike)
R. Nixon's "Vietnamization "
2. The USA was afraid that communism would spread to South Vietnam and then the rest of Asia.

Feedback for Exercise 5.6

1. Josip Broz Tito of Yugoslavia, Gamal Abdel Nasser of Egypt, Jawaharlal Nehru of India, Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, and Sukarno of Indonesia.
2. To struggle against colonialism, racism and all forms of oppression in a peaceful way. To advocate peaceful way of resolving conflicts, to keep away the newly independent countries of Asia and Africa from the superpower rivalry and to protect and preserve their newly acquired independence.

Feedback for Activity 5.4

1. In 1915, with the hope of securing support against the Ottoman Empire, the British promised Palestine for the Arabs. But, in 1917 the British supported the establishment of a Jewish homeland in Palestine in what was known as the Balfour Declaration.
2. Both Zionism and Arab Nationalism had opposite stand on the question of Palestine. Zionism, a Jewish nationalist movement wanted to create a Jewish homeland, whereas Arab nationalism opposes any claim of Jewish people on Palestine.

Feedback for Activity 5.5

1. Gorbachev's Policies led to the weakening of centralized communist power in the Soviet Union and led to the loosening Soviet control over Eastern Europe and a greater ability for Eastern European nations to openly resist and criticize Soviet rule.
2. The economy of the Soviet Union was seriously affected due to huge budget allotment for the arms race and the army in Eastern Europe. The Soviet Union's strict policies over its satellite countries and its citizens at home were ultimately making the once-powerful world force weaker and were preventing diplomatic relations with many other countries. He wanted to replace the old and bureaucratic communist party leader by new and young one.

Feedback for Exercise 5.7: Unit Review Questions

Part I: Fill in the blank Item

1. The Launch of Sputnik I
2. Molotov Plan
3. Greece
4. Boutros Boutros Gali and Kofi Anan
5. The Security Council

Part II: Matching

1. C 2. A 3. E 4. B 5. D

Part III: Multiple Choice

1. D 2. C 3. B 4. A 5. B 6. A 7. B

Key for Unit Six

Feedback for Activity 6.1

- A. Yes, I agree. Because the agreement limited the country's sovereignty. They had extensive control over Ethiopia's finance, administration and territorial integrity.
- B. The second Anglo-Ethiopian treaty of 1944, because the British went some way to restore Ethiopia's sovereignty rights. This time, the British promised to restore the Ogaden to Ethiopia and allowed Ethiopia to use the Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway. The privilege enjoyed by the British minister over the other diplomatic representatives in Ethiopia was also lifted. Moreover, the British agreed to train the Ethiopian Military force.

Feedback for Exercise 6.1

Part I :

1. False 2. True 3. False

Part II:

1. B 2. A

Feedback for Exercise 6.2

- A. The Point Four Agreement- is an agreement signed between Ethiopia and the USA on May 15, 1952. Accordingly, the U.S assisted Ethiopia with locust control, agricultural and public health education, public administration training and awarding of scholarships to Ethiopian students.
- B. The decline of the importance of the Kagnaw station and growing opposition, especially among students, against American Imperialism.

Feedback for Activity 6.2

1. Dear student, draw an administrative map of Ethiopia which indicates the fourteen provinces (governorate generals) during the imperial regime.
2. The first written constitution in the history of the country was written in 1931 and revised in 1955 within the same regime. The main purpose of the 1931 constitution was to concentrate power in the hands of the emperor by undermining the power of the regional rulers. The emperor also wanted to show the outside world that Ethiopia had a modern government with a new constitution. The revised 1955

constitution provide a formal basis for his efforts at centralization. The promulgation of the revised constitution of 1955 was necessitated by the federation of Eritrea which had an elected parliament and a more modern administration. Although the 1955 revised Constitution incorporated the human rights idea better than the previous Constitution of 1931, it remained to have paper value as the regime continued to seriously abuse them.

Feedback for Exercise 6.3

Part I:

1. E 2. D 3. B 4. C 5. A

Part II:

Women play an active role in activities such as clearing and preparation of farm land, weeding, harvesting, and preparing the threshing groundsheet

Feedback for Exercise 6.4

Part I:

1. B 2. B 3. A 4. B 5. D

Part II:

- By redrawing the internal territorial boundaries of Ethiopia, the Emperor destroyed the indigenous power base of the nobility; strengthened centralization; twelve *taqlay gezats* (governments-generals), each subdivided into sub-provinces (*awrajas*), districts (*weredas*), and sub-districts (*mikitil weredas*) formed.
- The imperial regime attempted to introduce an agro-industrial economy; and established the National Economic Council to coordinate the state's development plans. But, many projects failed chiefly because of a shortage of qualified personnel, funds and equipment.

Feedback for Activity 6.3

1. Increase of taxation, land eviction and maladministration
2. The student, peasant and elite groups in Ethiopia played an important role in opposing the corruption and injustices of the Haile Selassie regime; fought against the land policy of the imperial regime and demanded land for the tiller.

Feedback for Activity 6.4

In his speech, Tilahun Gizaw (one of the prominent leaders of the Ethiopian

students' movement) exposed the feudal tyranny and call for the change of the regime.

Feedback for Activity 6.5

- A.** The causes of drought are either natural or manmade or both. Studies have revealed that the primary cause is the fluctuation of the general atmospheric circulation. As a consequence of such fluctuations, the rain-producing components of Ethiopia have been weakened or dislocated during drought years. Human interferences such as deforestation, overgrazing and over-cultivation enhance the severity and prolongation of drought recurrences. Among the most affected areas are parts of the Somali and Afar regions; lowland areas of Oromia and SNNP regions; Wello and Tigray.
- B.** Malnutrition, disease , death , wars and instability etc.

Feedback for Activity 6.8

A. The desire of Said Bare government to establish "Greater Somalia".

Feedback for Exercise 6.5

Internal factors: opposition from various political groups, failure of the programs of villagization and resettlement, loss of economic and military support from the Eastern bloc; corruption and maladministration..

Feedback for Exercise 6.6: Unit Review Questions

Part I: True/false item

1. False 2. False 3. True 4. False 5. True

Part II: Fill in the blank space

1. Girmame Neway
2. Land to the Tiller
3. "Ethiopia Tikdem"
4. USA and Soviet Union
5. Bale and Gojjam

Part III: Multiple choice items

1. C 2. C 3. D. 4. C 5. A

Part IV: Short answers

1. Increase of taxation, land alienation and maladministration.
2. Opposition from various political groups, failure of the programs of villagization and resettlement, loss of economic and military support from the Eastern bloc, corruption and maladministration.

Key for Unit Seven

Feedback for Activity 7.1

1. **Morocco and Tunisia**
2. **Libya**
3. **Algeria**
4. The Neo-Destour party was to Tunisia as **FLN** to Algeria.

Feedback for Activity 7.2

1. The National Council of Nigerian and Cameroon (NCNC) was based in Igbo land, the Yoruba Action Group (AG) in Yoruba territory and the Northern People's Congress (NPC) in Fulbe-Hausa in the Eastern part of Nigeria.
2. Unlike Ghana, where the parties had nationwide support, in Nigeria, the parties were essentially divided along the region and ethnic lines.

Feedback for Activity 7.3

1. **Guinea Conakry**
2. **Dahomey**
3. **French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa**

Feedback for Activity 7.4

1. **Angola and Mozambique**
2. Portugal from the very beginning considered its colonies not as colonies but rather as overseas provinces of Portugal. Hence, the Portuguese maintained the policy of keeping their empire intact through any and every means.

Feedback for Activity 7.5

1. **Due to the presence of white settlers.**
2. **The British trust territory of Tanganyika**
3. Milton Obote was to Uganda as **Julius Nyerere** was to Tanganyika.

Feedback for Activity 7.6

1. **Katanga**
2. **Patrice Lumumba and Joseph Kasavubu**
3. Because they thought Lumumba was against their interest and allied with USSR ,their arch-rival during the cold war.

Feedback for Activity 7.7

Germany was forced to relinquish its colonies after WWI .

Feedback for Activity 7.8

1. The Apartheid Government Police fired on a peaceful and unarmed demonstrator at Sharpeville and killed 72 people and wounded some 186 including, women and children.
2. The South African freedom fighter who was imprisoned at Robben Island for 27 years. Later he became the first president of post-Apartheid South Africa.
3. **1994.**

Feedback for Activity 7.9

1. The OAU was founded with the intention that the organization would proceed, incrementally, with unification until the eventual goal of a Union of African States was realized.
 - The OAU was the manifestation of the pan-African vision for an Africa that was united, free and in control of its own destiny and this was solemnized in the OAU Charter
2. The OAU had a mixed record. Its greatest success was in relation to decolonization. It played a pivotal role in eradicating colonialism and white minority rule in Africa. Overall, the failures of the OAU outweighed its successes. Arguably, its major failing was its inability to bring peace, prosperity, security, and stability to Africa. Its powers were too weak and its influence inadequate to deal with the internal and external conflicts, poor governance, human rights abuses, poverty, and underdevelopment from which much of Africa suffered. The OAU was also considered incapable of meeting the challenges of globalization.

Feedback for Review Question for lesson 7.1

1. Kwame Nkrumah played an irreplaceable role in the liberation of Africa from European colonial domination. First, he was among the organisers of the fifth Pan-African Conference held in Manchester, England, in 1945, which for the first time unequivocally demanded Africans' independence from European colonial domination. Second, he founded a political party known as the Convention People's Party (CPP) which played a leading role in the process of decolonization of the Gold Coast.

In the history of Pan-Africanism as a movement of liberation, the period from 1950 to 1965 can be called the age of Kwame Nkrumah.

By words, action and example, Nkrumah mobilized African leaders of both liberation movements and independent states for Pan- Africanist causes. He organised a number of Pan-African congresses immediately after Ghana's independence. As it was pointed out, the first of these conferences was the First Conference of Independent African States, held in Accra, the capital of his newly-independent state of Ghana, in April 1958, which was attended by Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Liberia, Libya, Morocco, Sudan and Tunisia, as well as by many of the former delegates of the Fifth Pan-African Congress. The conference established the major themes of post-independence pan-Africanism and arguably laid the basis for the Organization of African Unity (OAU). Similarly Kwame Nkrumah organised the First All African People's Conference in Accra from 8-13 December 1958.

As indicated above, the pace-setter of this period was Kwame Nkrumah. He also played a pivotal role in the formation of the short-lived and loose regional organization of Union of African States sometimes called the Ghana–Guinea–Mali Union formed in 1958 linking the West African nations of Ghana and Guinea as the Union of Independent African States. Mali joined in 1960. It disbanded in 1963.

2. **Algeria, South Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), Angola, Mozambique, Southwest Africa (Namibia) etc.**
3. Draw a chart which contains the following organs of the OAU:
 - ☞ The Assembly of the Heads of State and Government;
 - ☞ The Council of Ministers and
 - ☞ The General Secretariat
4. The Casablanca Group favoured a strong political union along the lines of Nkrumah's the United States of Africa. The group consisted of the militant pan-Africanist, socialist and non-aligned leaders of Africa, who believed in centralized continental economic planning and development, in a continental defence and security system, and in cultural restoration. The Monrovia Group favoured a loose confederation of independent sovereign African states that would promote voluntary participation and cooperation in cultural exchanges and economic interaction.
5. The OAU had a mixed record. Its greatest success was in relation

to decolonization. It played a pivotal role in eradicating colonialism and white minority rule in Africa. Overall, the failures of the OAU outweighed its successes. Arguably, its major failing was its inability to bring peace, prosperity, security, and stability to Africa. Its powers were too weak and its influence inadequate to deal with the internal and external conflicts, poor governance, human rights abuses, poverty, and underdevelopment from which much of Africa suffered. The OAU was also considered incapable of meeting the challenges of globalization.

Feedback for Activity 7.10

- Pinpoint at least two principal factors that adversely affected Africans' development in the 1980s and 1990s. Drought and debt.

Feedback for Activity 7.11

1. Poverty, ethnic conflicts, military coup d'état and debt could be among the challenges the newly independent African states faced. Think over it and rank it.

2.

- Rapid Population growth,
- wars and instabilities,
- recurrent drought etc.

3.

- Ethnic conflict, namely conflict between the Hutu majority and Tutsi minority was the major cause of the genocide.
- The lesson that the world community in general and African nations, in particular, should learn from the genocide is that negotiation and round table discussion should be the most important means of solving or mitigating potential conflicts.

4.

- Africa's democratic wave of the 1990s and 2000s has been termed "second independence".

Feedback for Review Questions

Unit 7: Part I: Multiple Choice: Answer for Review Questions

1. C 2. A 3. C 4. A 5. A 6. C 7. D

Key for Unit Eight

Feedback for Activity 8.1

1. Despite the participation of various political and ethnic groups in the TGE, violent clashes occurred throughout many parts of Ethiopia. It is said that this instability had resulted from the dominance of the EPRDF and its allies in the TGE. As a result, in June 1992, the OLF withdrew from the government. In March 1993, the TGE expelled members of the Southern Ethiopia Peoples' Democratic Coalition. Despite these developments, President Meles pledged to oversee the formation of multiparty democracy.
2. EPRDF, EPLF, OLF etc.

Feedback for Activity 8.2

1. Article 39 because it perhaps makes Ethiopia the only country in the world which at least in theory, espouses the right of ethno-national communities to self-determination including secession.
2.
 1. Afar;
 2. Amhara;
 3. Benishangul-Gumuz;
 4. Gambella;
 5. Harari;
 6. Oromia;
 7. Somalia;
 8. Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples' State (SNNPRS); and
 9. Tigray.

Feedback to Activity 8.3

1. Blue Nile, White Nile and Tekkeze.
The agreements reserved the whole waters of the Nile to the lower riparian countries of Egypt and to some extent Sudan
2. Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam.
3. It was the first an all-inclusive basin-wide institution established to provide a forum for consultation and coordination among the Basin States for the sustainable management and development of the shared Nile Basin water and related resources for win-win benefits.

Feedback for Activity 8.4

1. It was a policy adapted to improve the productivity of the agricultural sector of the country to facilitate a transformation to an industrialized economy.
2. The most important problem was a recurrent political upheaval, particularly in the aftermath of certain political events such as election.

Feedback for Unit Review Questions

Unit 8: Answer For Review Questions

Part I : 1. False	2. False	3. False	4. True	5. True	
Part II: 1. C	2. B	3. B	4. B	5. B	6.C

Key for Unit Nine

Feedback for Activity 9.1

1. Dear learner, please give examples of indigenous knowledge such as indigenous medicines, indigenous education, indigenous conflict resolution system, craftsskill, songs, traditional laws games, visual art etc.

Feedback for Exercise 9.1

This knowledge :

- Provides practical solutions to the problems of the people.
- It deals with simple but applied education, economics, politics, religion, sciences and technologies of indigenous societies.
- Developed over long periods whose patterns are based upon local knowledge systems has been orally passed for generations from person to person.
- Based on experience, acquired from observations over time.
- Most useful for local-scale decision-making.

Feedback for Activity 9.2

1. They play a significant role in conflict management.
2. In Oromo society women are considered as peace-makers involved in conflict resolution to avoid escalating the conflict. They tend to avoid conflict and bring sustainable peace more than men. In their presence, the conflict has a minimal chance to escalate. They are generally considered as peace builders and keen to resolve conflict than igniting. Women are more passionate to take care of others.

As an institution of conflict resolution, Siinqee (Siiqee) helps to resolve conflicts between different social groups, like between spouses, mother and son, the Oromo and other ethnic groups and so on.

Feedback for Activity 9.3

1. Dear student, write a short essay of not more than a page on the indigenous conflict resolution methods in their localities.



WRITTEN ASSIGNMENT

Dear learner, please be informed that at the end of a tutorial session, the tutor will give you an assignment which you are supposed to do. Follow the instructions carefully and do it accordingly. Do not forget to submit it on time.

GLOSSARY

Abolition: the ending of slavery.

Absolute monarch: supreme ruler (King, queen, emperor or empress) with unlimited power.

Absolutism: a form of government under which the ruler has unlimited, or absolute power.

Aggressive: ready and willing to fight, violent.

Alliance: close relationship between two or more nations for a common purpose or mutual advantage.

Allied: joined in alliance by compact or treaty.

Anarchy: the absence of any form of government.

Apartheid: south African policy of strict racial separation.

Appeasement: policy of yielding to the demand of the aggressor in the hope of preserving peace.

Aristocracy: form of government that is headed by a privileged ruling class holding hereditary titles (Kings and queens, princes and princesses).

Armament: a military or naval force, weapons, arms.

Armistice: an agreement for the cessation of active hostilities between two or more belligerents

Artefacts: objects, such as tools and weapons.

Artisan: a skilled worker skilled in a particular craft.

Autocracy: a form of government in which a person holds absolute power
Anarchy- a state of lawlessness and disorder.

Autocratic: characteristic of an absolute ruler or absolute rule; having absolute sovereignty.

Autonomy: freedom from external restraint, self-government.

Blitzkrieg: the German word for "lightening war".

Blockade: the shutting off of an enemy port or region to prevent goods from coming in or going out.

Bolsheviks : members of a highly disciplined Marxist party founded in 1903, and seized power in October 1917.

Bourgeoisie: the term used to describe the city dwelling middle class (the capitalist class), who own most of the wealth in a capitalist system.

- Boycott:** withdraw from commercial or social relations with (a country, organization, or person) as a punishment or protest.
- Capitalism:** is an economic system featuring the private ownership of business wealth and free trade markets.
- Caravans:** groups of people banding together for safety while journeying through dangerous or hostile regions.
- Central Powers:** in World War I the alliance of Germany and Austria-Hungary and other nations allied with them in opposing the Allies.
- Century:** a period of 100 years.
- Chancellor:** the person who is head of state (in several countries).
- Chronological:** relating to or arranged according to the order of time.
- Civilization:** an advanced society with complex technical skills, highly developed group living, division of labour, and advanced intellectual achievements.
- Clergy:** the entire class of religious officials.
- Coalition:** a temporary alliance between two or more political parties or groups.
- Cold war:** conflict between communist and non-communist nations after WWII that was waged by political and economic means rather than with weapons.
- Colony:** an area in which a foreign nation gained total control.
- Colonialism:** the policy of establishing and maintaining colonies.
- Commercial capitalism:** early phase of capitalism in which capital was used mainly to buy, sell and exchange goods.
- Communism:** a system and belief based on the writings of Karl Marx. It advocates an economic and political system based on public ownership of the means of production.
- Confederation:** when a group of people or nations form an alliance, allowing each member to govern itself but agreeing to work together for common causes.
- Conservatism:** a political or religious orientation that favours tradition and oppose radical changes.
- Constitution:** a document outlining the fundamental laws and principles that govern a nation.

Constitutional Monarchy: form of government with a king or queen whose powers are less than absolute and are defined in written constitution (also called limited constitutional monarchy).

Condominium: a region ruled by two nations as partners.

Containment: the United States policy, adopted in the late 1940s, aimed to stop the expansion of communism.

Coup d'état: it is an illegal seizure of power by a political faction, rebel group, military, or a dictator.

Demarcation of boundary: the process of deciding on or marking the border between two areas of land.

Dejjazmach: a "commander of the gate", a politico-military title below Ras.

Delimitation: a line that indicates a boundary.

Diarchy: dual rule.

Dictator: a ruler with complete power.

Dynasty: family of rulers in which the right to rule is passed from one generation to the next.

Economic sanctions: commercial and financial penalties applied by one or more countries against a targeted self-governing state, group, or individual.

Elite: a group of persons who by virtue of position or education exercise much power or influence

Empire: a form of government that unites different territories and peoples under one ruler.

Encroachment: any entry into an area not previously occupied.

Enlightenment: intellectual or philosophical movement in Europe during the 1700s that was characterized by the scientific attitude, rationalism, and belief in natural law.

Entente: a friendly understanding or informal alliance between states or factions.

Era: a period marked by distinctive character.

Explorer: one who travels across the sea and /or oceans to discover new lands.

Export: refers to a product or service produced in one country but sold to a buyer abroad.

- Factory:** building in which workers and machines are brought together to produce goods.
- Fascism:** dictatorial system of government in which the state is supreme and individuals are loyal to it.
- Federal system:** a system of government is one that divides the powers of government between the national (federal) government and state and local governments.
- Federation:** an organization made up of smaller groups, parties, or states.
- Fitawrari:** a “commander of the vanguard”, a title below dejjazmach.
- Glasnost:** a Russian word meaning “openness”, used by Mikael Gorbachev.
- Great Power:** a state powerful enough to influence events throughout the world.
- Gabbar:**tribute-paying peasant.
- Gasha:**a unit of measurement; equivalent to 40 hectares.
- Gibr:** agrarian tribute, invariably paid in kind, tax.
- Grazmach:** a “commander of the left”.
- Guerrilla warfare:** military technique that uses raids by small bands of soldiers, called guerrillas.
- Hegemony:** influence or control over another country, a group of people, etc.
- Hierarchy:** a series of ordered groupings within a system.
- Holocaust:** the systematic destruction of Jews by the Nazis.
- Imperialism:** the practice of establishing colonies in order to control raw materials and markets. Empire building, the gaining of colonies.
- Import:** a commodity, article, or service brought in from abroad for sale.
- Incorporate:** to include as part of something else.
- Industrial capitalism:** period of capitalism in which capital was used chiefly for producing and manufacturing goods.
- Industrial Revolution:** name given to the wide spread social and economic changes that occurred after machines and factories replaced manual labour.
- Inflation:** an economic situation characterized by a rise in the general level of prices.

Iron curtain: term, first used in 1946 by Prime Minister Winston Churchill of Great Britain, to describe the dividing line in Europe between East and West.

Junkers: Aristocratic landowners in Prussia.

Kaiser: title of the ruler of the German Empire.

Kingdom: a government or country headed by a king or queen; also known as a monarchy

Legislative: one of the three great branches of government, that makes laws.

Liberalism: political and economic movement in Europe in the 1800's that had as its aim the protection of individual rights and freedom.

Mandate: area taken in trust by the League of Nations after WWI, to be administered by a League member.

Manufacturing: the act of making something (a product) from raw materials.

Manufacture: the process of making products, especially with machines in factories.

Migration: the movement of groups of people from place to place.

Monarchy: a government headed by a king or queen, autocracy governed by a ruler who usually inherits authority.

Monopol: complete control of a commodity, a service, or a market.

Nation: a people bounded by strong common bonds such as tradition, history, religion, ethnicity, and language; sometimes used as synonym for the state.

Nationalism: feeling of patriotism and loyalty to one's country.

Neo-colonialism: the use of economic and other means of exerting influence over countries that are no longer colonies.

Nobility: refers to a privileged class of people-often receiving hereditary titles-also called the aristocracy.

Non-aligned: not linked with the two rival power blocs(the East-West rivalries).

Patriotism: love of country and willingness to sacrifice for it.

Plantation: is a large agricultural property dedicated to planting a few crops on a large scale.

Propaganda: information that is spread to promote some cause.

Radicals: those who seek extreme, far reaching changes in existing conditions.

Reactionary: backward-looking, opposed to change.

Referendum: the act of referring a proposed law or constitutional amendment to the voters.

Revolution: a violent attempt to change the structure of a country, government, and society.

Republic: a form of government whose head of state is freely and democratically elected by the people, as opposed to a dictatorship or monarchy.

Resistance: the action of opposing something that you disapprove of or disagree with.

Risorgimento: name given to the nationalist movement in Italy during the 1800's.

Rural: living in or characteristic of farming or country life.

Satellites: communist countries of Eastern Europe subordinate to the Soviet Union.

Segregation: the act of keeping apart.

Socialism: Political and economic system under which the means of production are owned publicly and operated for the welfare of all.

Sovereignty: Supreme power.

Soviet: council, committee. Since 1905 in Russia, commonly associated with revolutionary purposes.

Sphere of influence: a region in which one nation has special economic and political privileges.

Superpower: a nation possessing military and economic power far greater than those of most other nations.

The Ems telegram: a communication between the Prussian King William and Bismarck over a diplomatic issue .

Totalitarianism: a form of government in which the ruler is unrestricted.

Unification: the bringing together of two or more parts so they become a single unit.

Veto: a vote that blocks a decision.

War Indemnity: is protection against loss or harm- it is most often used in insurance.

Zionism: a movement that sought to resettle Jews in Palestine.

Zollverein: customs union set up among most of the German states in the 1800's.

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