

LMCMUN 2024



**BERLIN CONFERENCE
STUDY GUIDE**

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EXECUTIVE BOARD'S ADDRESS

Delegates,

Welcome to the Berlin Conference, 1884. I can assure you that this one-of-a-kind committee will take you on a ride like never before through the intricacies of colonialism and its impact on the continent of Africa. It is your prerogative to navigate these tumultuous waters to bring land, money and profit to your state.

The history of Africa is defined by imperialistic ambitions of European powers, and we place you in a time in history when these very imperialistic motives were overflowing with nations vying to expand their colonial empires. A committee poised at a time filled with crises and uncertainty, it presents a unique opportunity to European powers and native African tribes. As delegates you must seize the day through negotiation and cooperation or deception and treachery, the choice is up to you.

The agenda showcases the quintessential doubt in minds of European powers at that point, their colonial aspirations were mired by opposition not just from native African groups but also other European powers. The Berlin Conference aims to resolve and streamline the process while also sorting out numerous territorial disputes whether it be surrounding the controversial 'Pink Map' or the historic Anglo-French rivalry.

This revisionist form of the Berlin Conference is particularly multi-dimensional as the committee will also feature representation from a number of African groups. This provides a unique opportunity to these free African groups to utilise this stage as a stage of collaboration and opposition to imperialist motives or to cooperate with European powers to gain greater political control and the boons of the industrial revolution.

The continent of Africa is best represented as a chess board where strategies and military acumen is as important as consideration for the economic implications of decisions taken. It is a tall order for the players on this enormous chess board to not get lost by the sheer enormity of it and the multifaceted factors that have to go into every small decision. However, that is exactly what you delegates must do, as you must invest yourself in small disputes while keeping a close eye on your ambitions in totality.

Preparation and forward thinking are key to navigating such a committee and with that spirit you must keep in mind that the **deadline for submission of position papers is 11th May, 2024. The freeze date of the committee is 15th November, 1884.**

We eagerly await your arrival and look forward to three exhilarating days in which we dive into the depths of the Scramble for Africa.

The Executive Board,
The Berlin Conference, 1884,
La Martiniere Calcutta Model United Nations, 2024,
berlinlmcmun@gmail.com.

LETTER FROM THE DESK OF THE CHANCELLOR OF GERMANY

WELCOME TO BERLIN

Dear Respected Heads of State and Foreign Ministers of all Invited Nations,

It is with great honour and privilege that I extend this cordial invitation to you to attend the forthcoming summit, which promises to be a groundbreaking event in the annals of international diplomacy. As we convene in Berlin, the epicentre of our deliberations, we are poised to embark upon a journey into uncharted waters, seeking to address the pressing issue of colonial acquisition in Africa.

The current state of affairs in Africa, marked by disjointed colonial acquisitions and an underutilization of its vast economic resources, has hindered the prospects of trade and development on the continent. Furthermore, the escalating tensions among European powers over their respective colonial ambitions in Africa pose a significant threat to regional stability and global prosperity.

As residents of Berlin, my fellow Germans and I recognize the significance this historic city holds in the principles our great nation is built upon. This conference is of similar importance as it shall shape the future trajectory of European engagements in Africa. It is incumbent upon us to navigate these colonial aspirations with utmost caution and foresight, mindful of the profound impact they will have on the lives of millions of people.

Therefore, I implore you to join us in this noble endeavour, where we will strive to strike a delicate balance between pursuing our economic interests and upholding the sanctity of human life and dignity. Together, let us seize this historic opportunity to forge a path towards a more equitable and sustainable future for all.

With warm regards,
Otto von Bismarck,
Chancellor of Imperial Germany, the 2nd Reich.

ABOUT BERLIN CONFERENCE

The Berlin Conference (1884-1885), too known contemporarily as the West Africa Conference or the Congo Conference, was a significant occasion in quickening the colonial extension of European powers into Africa. Amid the period known as Unused Colonialism by western students of history, different European countries' want for riches and control with the expansion/start of their domains driven to the 'scramble' to colonise the African landmass in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century.

Prior to the conference, European discretion treated African inborn individuals in the same way as they treated Unused World locals, shaping exchange relations with tribal chiefs. This can be seen in cases such as the Portuguese exchanging with the Kingdom of the Congo. With the exemption of the exchanging posts along the coasts, the landmass was basically overlooked. This changed as a result of Lord Leopold of Belgium's want for individual wonderfulness and wealth and by the mid-19th century, Africa was considered ready for investigation, exchange, and settlement.

European countries, including Germany, France, and Great Britain, started to look to Africa in the 1870s and early 1880s for both a possible market for the commodities these factories produced and natural resources for their expanding industrial sectors. Consequently, these governments started sending scouts to the continent to obtain treaties from indigenous peoples or their representatives in an effort to protect their commercial interests in Africa. For the same purpose, King Leopold II of Belgium employed operatives to stake claims to large parts of central African territory in an effort to gather more personal fortune. German Chancellor Otto von Bismarck, who was not particularly interested in Africa, felt obliged to lay claim to land in Africa in order to safeguard Germany's commercial interests.

The international conference was opened by the chancellor of the newly-created German Empire at his official residence in Berlin. It had delegates from the United States and the Ottoman Empire in addition to those from every nation in Europe, with the exception of Switzerland. The conference contributed to ushering in a period of heightened colonial activity by European powers.

According to some, the Berlin Conference of 1884–85 was responsible for "the old carve-up of Africa", while others argue that it is responsible for "the partition of Africa". The General Act was the conference's product, signed and ratified by all 14 of the participating countries with the US being the lone exception. This Act is said to have formalised the "Scramble for Africa". Among its principal characteristics were the abolition of the overland slave trade and the concept of "effective occupation," as well as the establishment of a free trade regime spanning the middle of Africa.

The Berlin Conference to be simulated at La Martiniere Model United Nations 2024 will feature amended membership. There will be two types of invited nations, European colonial powers and African kingdoms or groups. An invitation has been extended to representatives from these groups under the initiative of Otto von Bismarck, the Chancellor of Germany responsible for organising the Berlin Conference. These kingdoms or groups will function as Observer States. The invited nations and parties under the various categories are as follows:

Colonial Powers

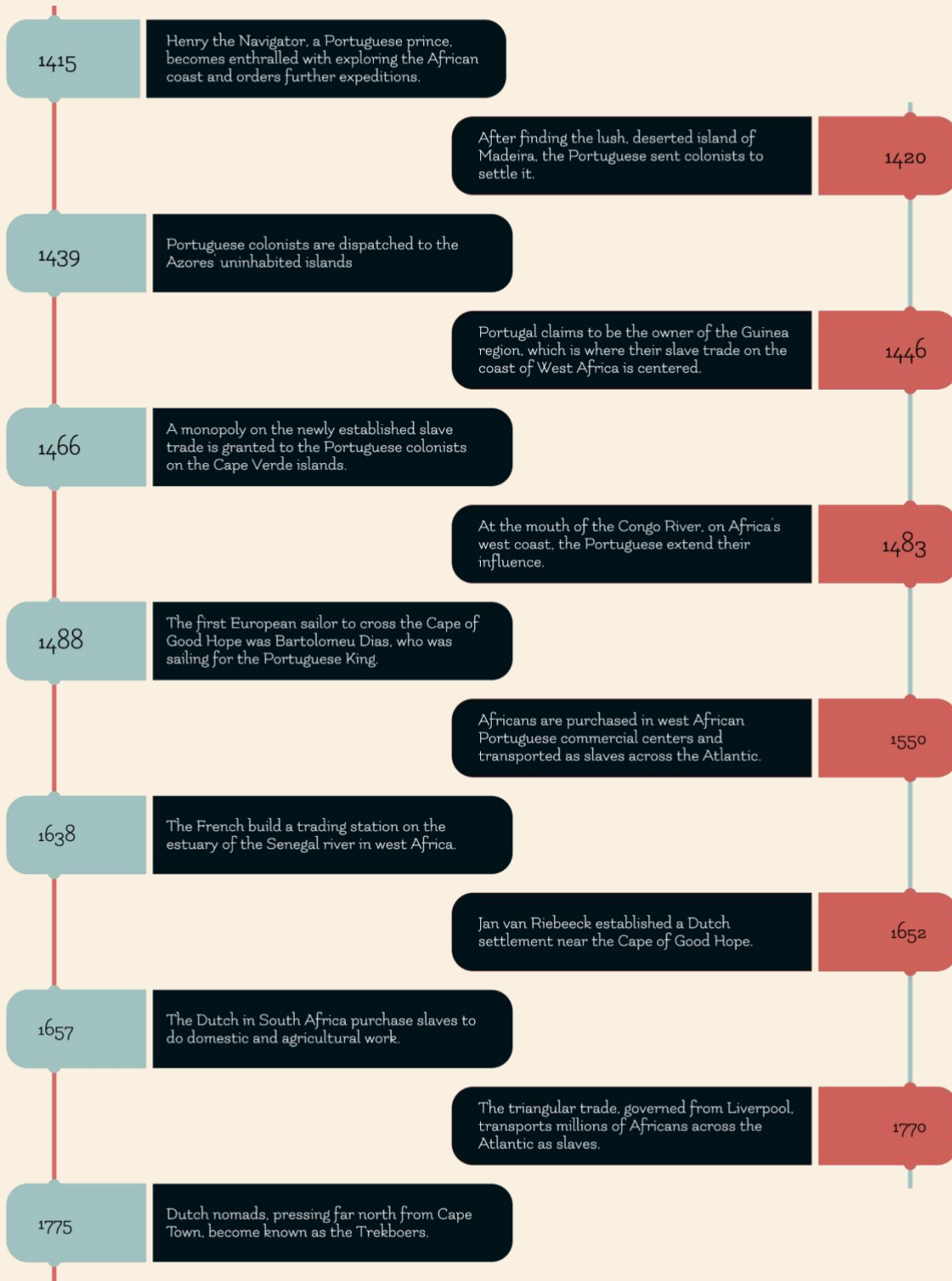
1. United Kingdom
2. Germany
3. Austria-Hungary
4. Spain
5. Denmark
6. Belgium
7. United States of America
8. France
9. Italy
10. Netherlands
11. Portugal
12. Russia
13. Sweden-Norway
14. Turkey (Ottoman Empire)

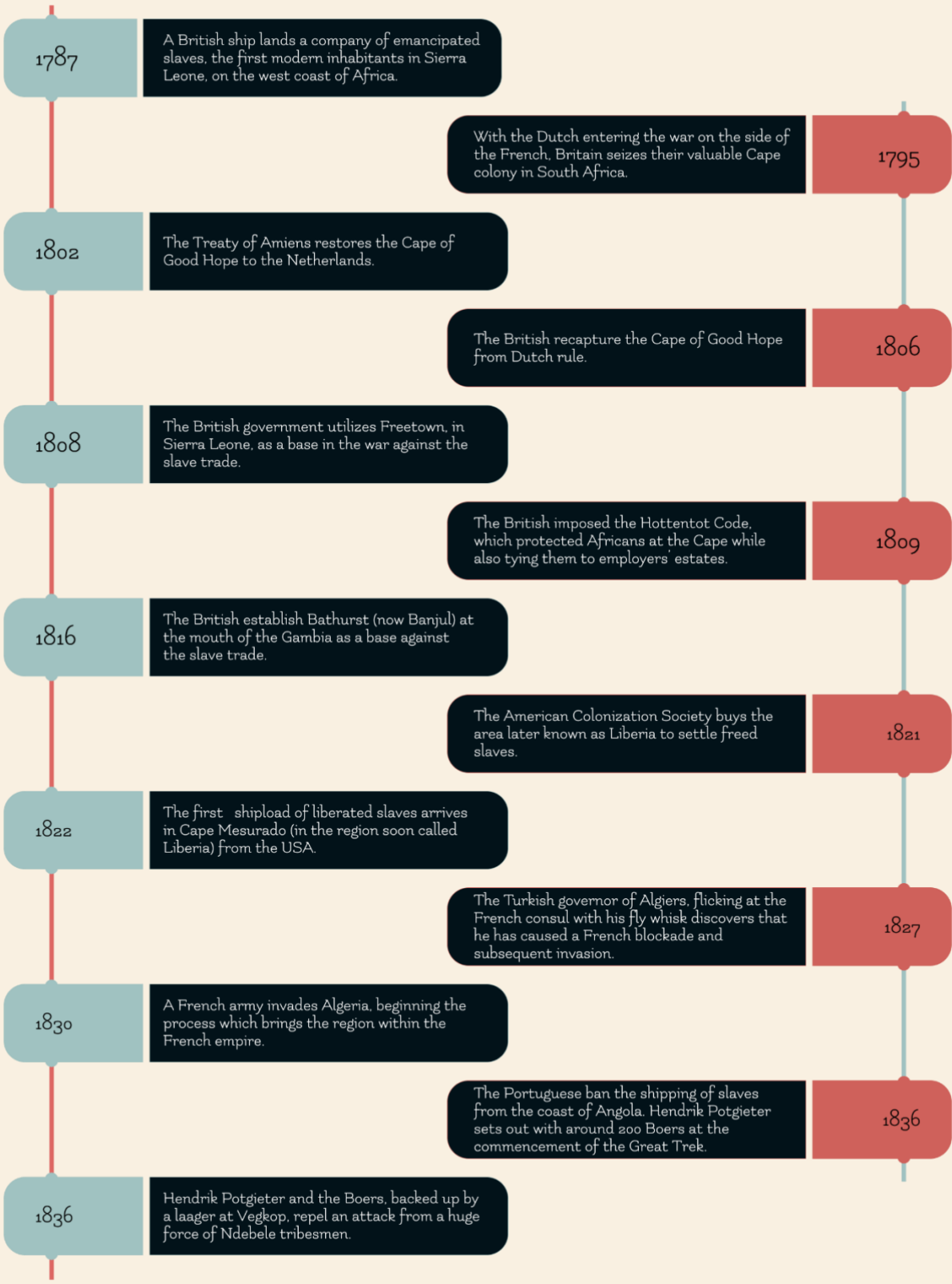
African Kingdoms

1. Zulu Kingdom
2. Ashanti Kingdom
3. Kingdom of Buganda
4. Sokoto Caliphate
5. Ndebele Kingdom
6. Swazi Kingdom
7. Kanem-Bornu Empire
8. Oyo Empire
9. Tuareg Confederation
10. Maasai Confederation

For the General Act of the Berlin Conference to be passed, the Colonial Powers must unanimously adopt it. The African Kingdoms will play a role in the committee proceedings and may influence the contents of the General Act; however, they are not subject to opposing its adoption by the Conference.

TIMELINE OF EVENTS





1837

Following a victory at Vegkop, Boers slaughter the people of a dozen Ndebele villages in stealthy morning attacks. Piet Retief becomes the new leader of the Great Trek.

Potgieter defeats the Ndebele at the Marico River, driving them north of the Limpopo. Piet Retief and Dingaan, the Zulu leader, strike a temporary agreement on a Boer settlement in southern Natal.

1837

1838

During a ceremony to celebrate their treaty with Dingaan, Piet Retief and his Boer comrades are overpowered and killed.

Dingaan's warriors massacre Boer families in a series of dawn raids near the Bloukrans River. The river Nkome becomes known as the Blood River after hundreds of Zulu perish attacking Andries Pretorius and the Boers.

1838

1839

Abd-el-Kader proclaims a holy war against the French in Algeria and begins a military campaign that will last for eight years. Andries Pretorius sets up the Boer republic of Natalia.

Britain sends four naval ships up the river Niger to make anti-slavery treaties with local kings.

1841

1843

The British take over the existing Boer republic and declare Natal a British protectorate.

Pretorius takes the remaining Boer family out of Natal and across the Drakensberg to the highveld. Liberia achieves independence and worldwide recognition as a republic.

1847

1848

Harry Smith annexes for Britain, the land between the Orange and Vaal rivers, calling it the Orange River Sovereignty.

The British government buys the Danish fortresses on the Gold Coast, including Christiansborg castle in Accra.

1850

1857

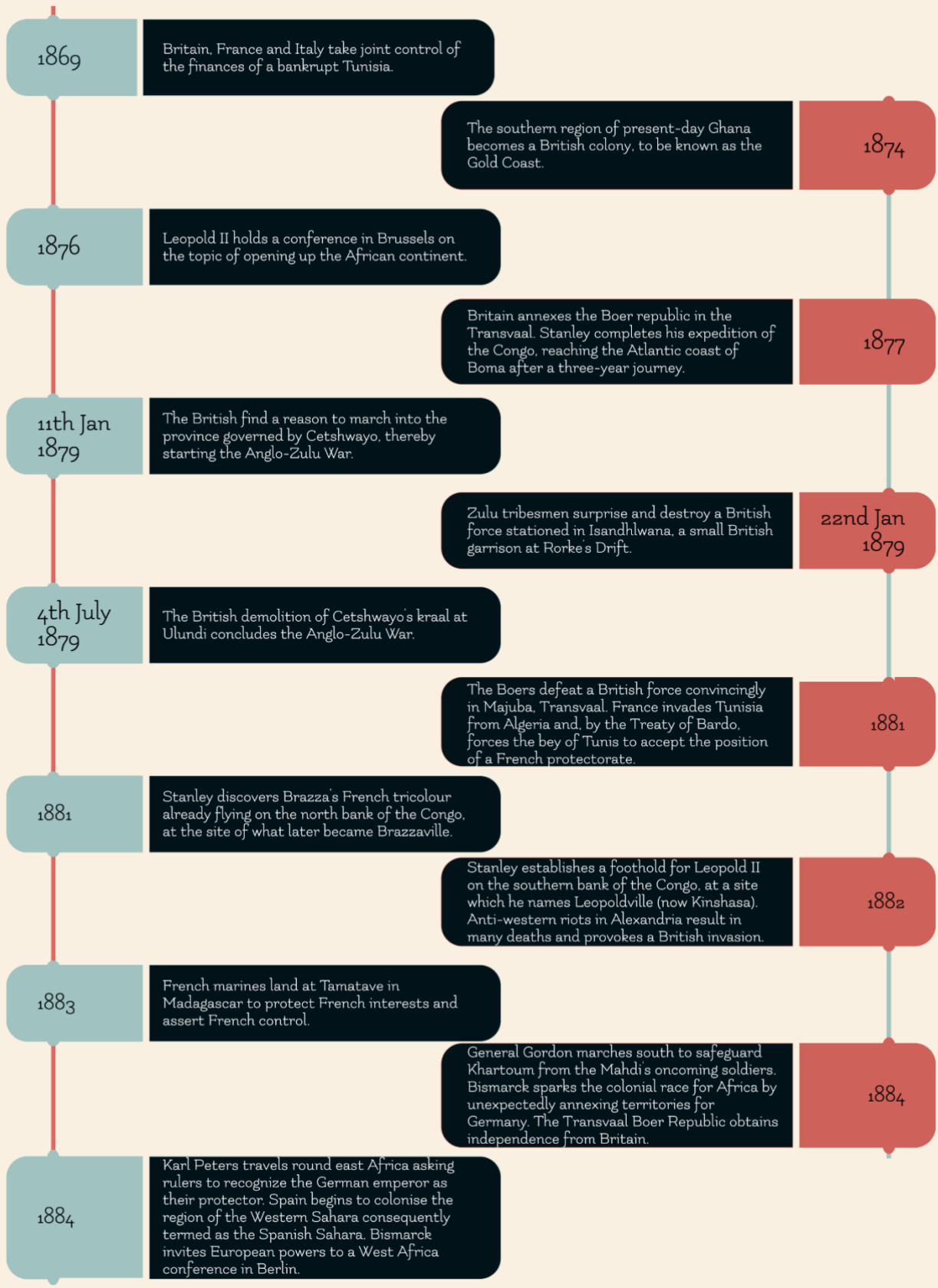
The Boers of the southern Transvaal declare independence as the South African Republic.

Lagos, on the coast of Nigeria, is annexed as a British colony when the royal family proves incapable or unwilling to end the slave trade.

1861

1868

Britain annexed Basutoland (now Lesotho), the kingdom of the Sotho chieftain Moshoeshe.



TREATIES SIGNED BEFORE THE BERLIN CONFERENCE

Ever since the first European settlers landed, it has ushered in a period of rapid growth of these colonies and settlements culminating in the Berlin Conference. Throughout this period numerous treaties were signed which served as the stepping stones for total imperial dominance by European settlers. These treaties created the legal foundation for European colonisation in Africa by granting rights to trade, territory conquest, and diplomatic recognition. Some of these are as follows:

1. The Treaty of Butre (1656) - The Dutch and the Ahanta people of modern-day Ghana signed the Treaty of Butre in 1656. It gave the Dutch authorization to erect a fort at Butre in order to conduct trade.
2. The Treaty of Fes (1767) – This was a diplomatic agreement between Morocco and Great Britain that allowed British traders to conduct business in Morocco and created a British consulate there.
3. The Treaty of Versailles (1783) - This pact, which established French rule over Senegal, was signed by France and a number of local leaders.
4. The Freetown Treaty (1787) - This permitted the creation of a community for freed African slaves in Sierra Leone. It was signed by the British and local rulers.
5. The Treaty of Vienna (1815) - Although unrelated to Africa, the Vienna Treaty had a big influence on the policy of the colonial powers. After the Napoleonic Wars, it redrew Europe’s borders and had an indirect impact on the spread of colonialism in Africa.
6. Te Tiriti o Waitangi (1840) - Te Tiriti o Waitangi was a historic pact between Great Britain and a number of New Zealand Māori tribes of North Island. It purported to protect Māori rights and was the immediate basis of the British annexation of New Zealand.
7. The Treaty of Lagos (1861) - The British and the Oba of Lagos in modern-day Nigeria signed the treaty. It allowed the British to open a consulate and carry on business in Lagos.
8. The Treaty of Bardo (1881) – It established Tunisia as a French protectorate and opened the door for further French participation in North Africa. It was signed by France and the Bey of Tunis who was then in power.

CRITICAL REGIONS AND GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES

While the apparent reason of the Berlin Conference of 1884–1885 was to control colonial competition and avoid war in Africa, the ravenous starvation of European powers for the continent's copious normal assets was without a doubt the driving constrains behind the procedures. Africa's wealthy assets and changed scenes drew the consideration of colonial powers looking for to grow their economies and build up their amazingness worldwide.

West Africa was one of the most sought-after zones at the Berlin Conference, since to its riches of normal assets, which included timber, ivory, and gold. For occasion, the coastal zones of present-day Ghana were wealthy in gold saves, which had long drawn European dealers indeed some time recently official colonization endeavours.

Valuable timber and other materials made European nations need to take control of these zones indeed more. Utilizing the assets of West Africa to back their mechanical economies, countries like France and Britain forcefully expanded their nearness in the continent.

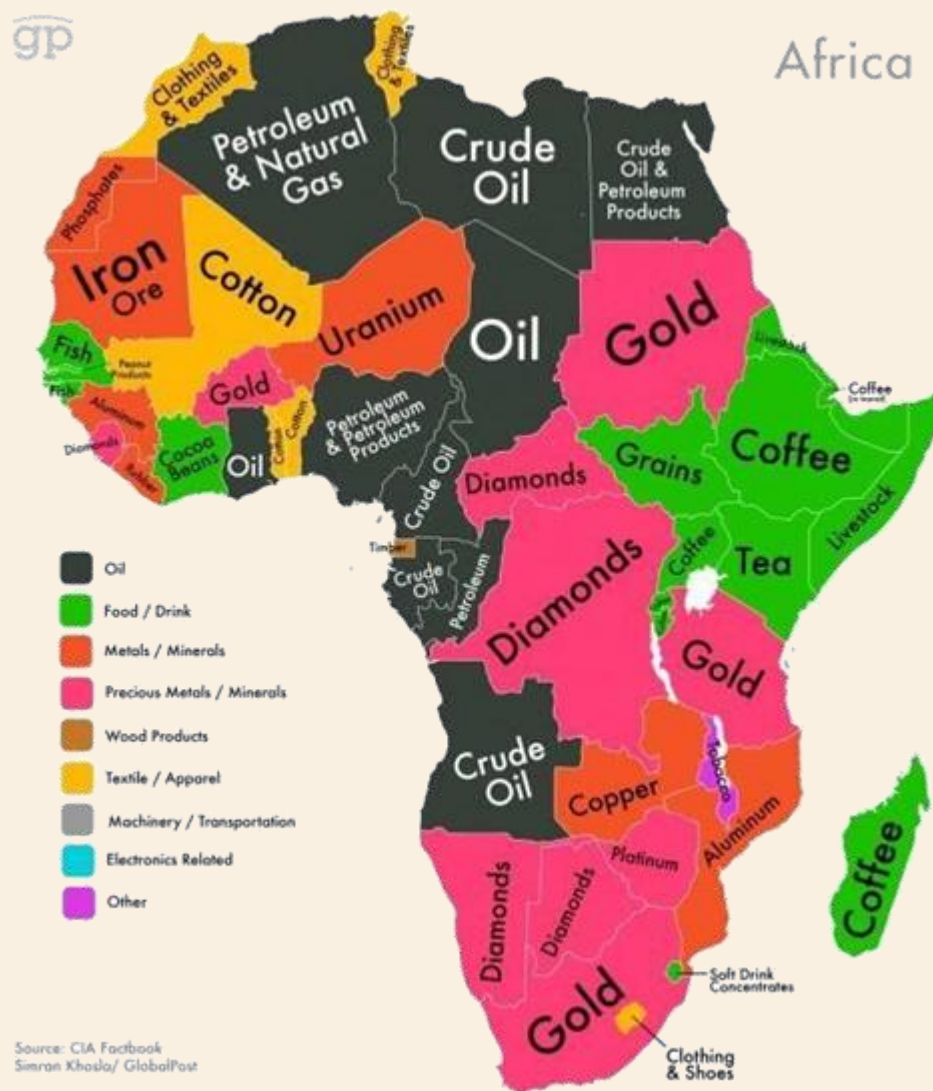


Figure 1 Map of Africa displaying distribution of Natural Resources

Due to its gigantic characteristic differences, the Congo Bowl in Central Africa got to be another centre of colonial battle. One of the world's most prominent waterways, the Congo, helped in transportation and made the region's abundant assets simpler to reach. Acting against the wishes of his government, Lord Leopold II of Belgium took control of the Congo Free State, claiming to be doing so for helpful purposes but truly to take advantage of the colossal mineral, elastic, and ivory saves there.

As one moved eastbound, European interest was provoked by the Horn of Africa's one-of-a-kind collection of profitable assets. Ethiopia was looked for after for creating coffee, which got to be into a considerable send out great for European markets since to its lavish good countries. European countries like Italy, Britain, and France competed for control over zones in modern-day Eritrea, Djibouti, and Somalia since the Ruddy Ocean coast was deliberately critical for exchange routes.

There was too a plenitude of normal assets in Southern Africa, particularly in the frame of minerals. When precious stones were found in Kimberley, South Africa, in the late 1800s, it caused a frantic surge of miners looking for wealth, which at last come about in the British building up control over the region. Moreover, the revelation of gold in the Witwatersrand Bowl supported the development of towns like Johannesburg and cemented South Africa's position as a productive colonial colony.

The rich locales along the stream backed civilizations for centuries, whereas the Nile Bowl advance north contained awesome agrarian potential. Due to its profitable area at the assembly point of the Centre East and Africa, Egypt was the centre of colonial contention between European countries competing for control of the Suez Canal and get to exchange courses to Asia.

For the utilisation of these resources, knowledge of the geographical features of Africa is of great importance as this impacts the viability and profitability of settlements. Africa is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, the Red Sea, the Indian Ocean and the Atlantic Ocean. It is divided almost equally into half by the Equator.

Africa has eight major physical regions: the Sahara, the Sahel, the savanna, the Swahili Coast, the Ethiopian Highlands, the rainforest, the African Great Lakes, and southern Africa. The Sahara is the world's largest hot desert, making up about 25 percent of the continent. It has a number of distinct physical features, including ergs, regs, hamadas, and oases. Ergs are sand dunes that stretch for hundreds of kilometres at great heights. Ergs contain a large amount of salt and covers most of northern Africa. Hamadas are elevated plateaus of rock and stone which include the Atlas Mountains, which stretch from southwestern Morocco to northeastern Tunisia, the Tibesti Mountains and the Ahaggar Mountains.

The Sahel is a narrow band of semi-arid land that forms a transition zone between the Sahara to the north and the savannas to the south. It is made up of flat, barren plains stretching across Africa. The Sahel is home to the fertile delta of the Niger, one of Africa's longest rivers. The savannas cover almost half of Africa, these grasslands make up most of central Africa, beginning south of Sahara and the Sahel and ending north of the continent's southern tip.

The Swahili Coast stretches along the Eastern coast of Africa along the Indian Ocean. The nearby coral reefs and barrier islands protect the coast from severe weather. The Ethiopian Highlands are a result of magma deposition forming a broad dome of ancient rock. This dome

was later split, creating the Great Rift Valley system. This valley cuts through the Ethiopian Highlands from the southwest to the northeast. The Ethiopian Highlands are home to 80 percent of Africa's tallest mountains.



Figure 2 Map of Africa displaying prominent geographical features

In conclusion, European nations' aspiration to take advantage of Africa's inexhaustible common wealth for their possessions served as the impulse for the Berlin Conference of 1884–1885. All over the landmass, from the gold-rich locales of West Africa to the jewel mines of Southern Africa and the elastic ranches of the Congo, there was something important that drew the consideration of colonizers. The aftermath from this race for Africa is still felt now, affecting the continent's social structure, political scene, and finance.

CULTURAL DIVERSITY OF AFRICA

Africa is a continent renowned for its rich tapestry of cultures, languages, and traditions. From the vibrant rhythms of West African music to the intricate artistry of East African textiles, the diversity found within Africa's borders is both vast and captivating. With over 3,000 distinct ethnic groups and languages spoken, Africa stands as a testament to the beauty of human expression and the resilience of its people.

LANGUAGES

Africa was (and still is) home to a number of languages, with estimates ranging from 1,500 to 2,000 distinct linguistic groups. These languages belonged to several major language families, including Afro-Asiatic, Niger-Congo, Nilo-Saharan, and Khoisan. Linguistic diversity was an important part of Africa's culture, with many communities maintaining their own languages for communication and trade.

Most languages natively spoken in Africa belong to one of the two large language families that dominate the continent: Afroasiatic, or Niger–Congo. Another hundred belong to smaller families such as Ubangian, Nilotic, Saharan, and the various families previously grouped under the umbrella term Khoisan. In addition, the languages of Africa include several unclassified languages and sign languages.

The earliest Afroasiatic languages are associated with the Capsian culture, the Saharan languages are linked with the Khartoum Mesolithic/Neolithic cultures. Niger-Congo languages are correlated with the west and central African hoe-based farming traditions and the Khoisan languages are matched with the south and southeastern Wilton industries.

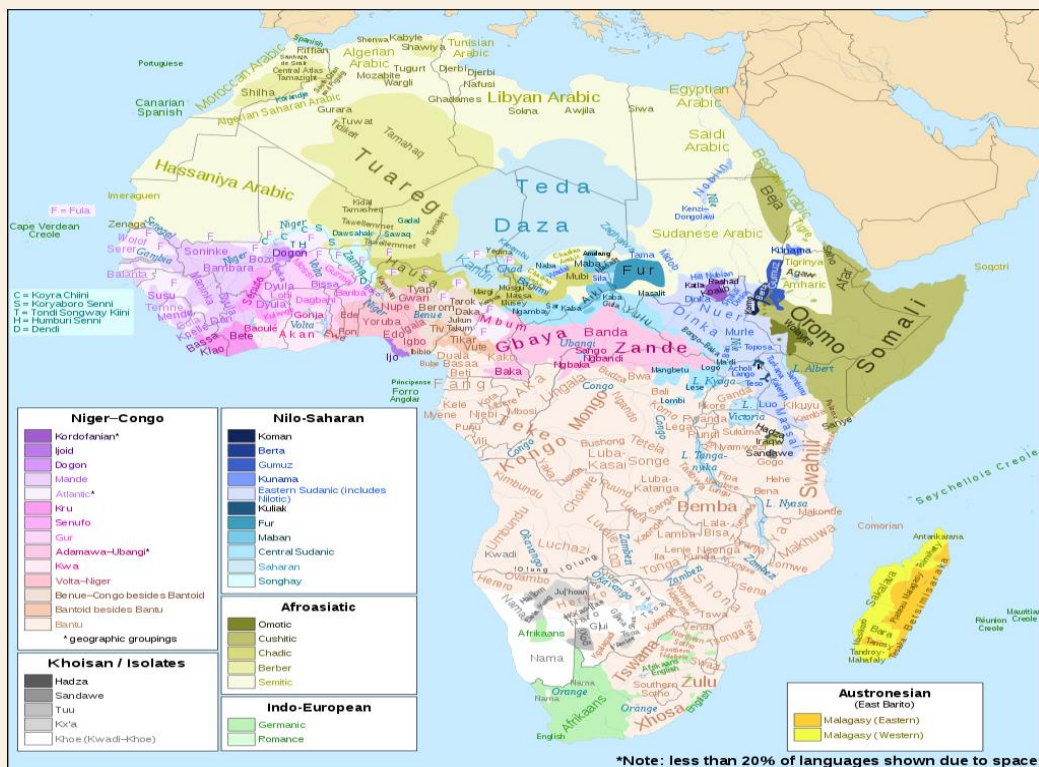


Figure 3 Map representing the lingual diversity of Africa

RELIGION

Traditional African religions are deeply rooted in highly complex animistic beliefs, forming the core of spiritual practices across the continent. Comparable to other traditional or nature-based religions like Japanese Shinto or European paganism, these beliefs worship of tutelary deities, reverence for nature, ancestor veneration, and a belief in an afterlife. While some religions adopt a pantheistic worldview with a supreme creator alongside other deities and spirits, others adhere to a purely polytheistic system with a multitude of gods and supernatural beings. Traditional African religions also incorporate elements of totemism, shamanism, and the veneration of relics.

Central to these religions is the rich oral tradition through which cultural identity and religious principles are passed down from one generation to the next. The community, family, and environment play crucial roles in shaping individuals' spiritual lives, with guidance sought from ancestral spirits. Spiritual leaders and priests are integral to the survival of these traditions, offering healing, divination, and counselling services deeply rooted in ancestral and natural wisdom.

Ancestor worship, belief in a spirit world, and the existence of supernatural beings are fundamental tenets of traditional African religions. Deceased humans and animals are believed to continue to exist in the spirit world, influencing or interacting with the physical realm. While forms of polytheism were widespread before the introduction of major world religions, such as Islam, Christianity, and Judaism, traditional African religions exhibit a diverse array of high gods, ancestral spirits, and territorial deities.

SPIRITS

Followers of traditional African religions pray to various spirits as well as to their ancestors. This includes also nature, elementary and animal spirits. The difference between powerful spirits and gods is often minimal. Most African societies believe in several “high gods” and a large number of lower gods and spirits. There are also some religions with a single supreme being (Chukwu, Nyame, Olodumare, Ngai, Roog, etc.). Some recognize a dual god and goddess such as Mawu-Lisa.

Traditional African religions generally believe in an afterlife, one or more Spirit worlds, and Ancestor worship is an important basic concept in mostly all African religions. Some African religions adopted different views through the influence of Islam or even Hinduism.

SUPERSTITION AND RITUALS

There are more similarities than differences in all traditional African religions, although Jacob Olupona has written that it is difficult to truly generalize them because of the sheer amount of differences and variations between the traditions. The deities and spirits are honoured through libation or sacrifice (of animals, vegetables, cooked food, flowers, semi-precious stones and precious metals). The will of the gods or spirits is sought by the believer also through consultation of divinities or divination. Traditional African religions embrace natural phenomena – ebb and tide, waxing and waning moon, rain and drought – and the rhythmic pattern of agriculture. According to Gottlieb and Mbiti: The environment and nature are infused in every aspect of traditional African religions and culture. This is largely because cosmology and beliefs are intricately intertwined with the natural phenomena and

environment. All aspects of weather, thunder, lightning, rain, day, moon, sun, stars, and so on may become amenable to control through the cosmology of African people. Natural phenomena are responsible for providing people with their daily needs.

For example, in the Serer religion, one of the most sacred stars in the cosmos is called Yoonir (the Star of Sirius). With a long farming tradition, the Serer high priests and priestesses (Saltigue) deliver yearly sermons at the Xooy Ceremony (divination ceremony) in Fatick before Yoonir's phase in order to predict winter months and enable farmers to start planting. Traditional healers are common in most areas, and their practices include a religious element to varying degrees.

GENDER DYNAMICS

- **Labour and Economic Roles** - Colonial economies often disrupted traditional gender roles. While men typically engaged in activities like agriculture, hunting, and trade, colonial demands for labour sometimes forced women into new roles, such as wage labour in European-owned plantations or mines.
- **Education and Access to Power** - Colonial education systems often favoured boys over girls, providing them with greater access to formal education and opportunities for advancement. This unequal access to education perpetuated gender disparities in access to power and decision-making.
For example, European legal systems often excluded women from property ownership or inheritance rights, and women were typically marginalized from political participation.
- **Health and Social Services** - Colonial administrations often provided limited access to healthcare and social services, with women and girls disproportionately affected. This lack of access to healthcare and education perpetuated gender inequalities in areas such as maternal health and child mortality.
- **Cultural Norms and Values** - European colonial powers sometimes imposed their own cultural norms and values regarding gender onto African societies, which could clash with existing indigenous norms. This could lead to tensions and changes in traditional gender roles and relationships.

Colonizers historically utilized religious and cultural differences among indigenous peoples to further their own colonial agendas in several ways:

- **Divide and Rule** - Colonizers often exploited existing religious or cultural divisions within indigenous populations to create discord and weaken resistance. By supporting certain groups over others, they fostered rivalries and conflicts that diverted attention from their own oppressive actions.
- **Imposition of Dominant Culture** - Colonizers imposed their own religion and culture as superior to indigenous beliefs and practices. They used religious conversion and cultural assimilation as tools of control, undermining local traditions and identities in favour of those aligned with colonial powers.
- **Legal Discrimination** - Colonizers enacted laws that favoured certain religious or cultural groups over others, institutionalizing discrimination and exacerbating existing

tensions. This legal framework often reinforced the dominance of the colonizers' culture and religion while marginalizing indigenous customs and beliefs.

- Creation of Hierarchies - Colonizers created hierarchical structures based on religious or cultural affiliations, granting privileges to those who aligned with colonial norms while subjugating those who resisted or adhered to different traditions. This stratification reinforced colonial power dynamics and perpetuated social inequalities.
- Manipulation of Religious Institutions - Colonizers co-opted religious institutions to serve their interests, appointing compliant clergy or using missionaries to spread colonial ideology and undermine indigenous spiritual leaders. By controlling religious narratives, colonizers could influence cultural perceptions and behaviours to align with colonial objectives.
- Exploitation of Cultural Resources - Colonizers exploited indigenous cultural resources, such as art, artifacts, and traditional knowledge, for economic gain or as symbols of conquest. They often appropriated cultural heritage without acknowledgment or compensation, further eroding indigenous autonomy and identity.
- Forced Cultural Assimilation - Colonizers implemented policies aimed at eradicating indigenous languages, traditions, and practices, forcing assimilation into colonial culture and religion. Indigenous peoples were often subjected to boarding schools, religious indoctrination, and other forms of cultural suppression aimed at severing ties to their heritage.

Some of the notable rivalries during that time among native tribes include:

- Ashanti-Fante Rivalry (Ghana) - The Ashanti Empire and the Fante Confederacy, both located in present-day Ghana, were engaged in longstanding conflicts over control of trade routes and territory along the Gold Coast. The rivalry intensified during the expansion of European colonial influence in the region.
- Zulu-Xhosa Rivalry (South Africa) - The Zulu Kingdom and the Xhosa people, situated in what is now South Africa, had a history of territorial disputes and occasional warfare. The rivalry between the two groups was exacerbated by European colonization efforts and the encroachment of European settlers into their traditional lands.
- Hausa-Fulani Conflict (Nigeria) - The Hausa city-states and the Fulani pastoralists in Northern Nigeria had a complex relationship marked by both cooperation and conflict. The Fulani led several jihads in the 19th century aimed at establishing Islamic rule over the Hausa states, leading to periods of intense rivalry and political instability.
- Oromo-Amhara Conflict (Ethiopia) - In Ethiopia, the Oromo people and the Amhara ethnic group historically had rivalries over land, resources, and political power. The Oromo, who were primarily pastoralists and farmers, clashed with the Amhara-dominated Ethiopian Empire, particularly during periods of expansion and centralization of power.
- Yoruba-Igbo Conflict (Nigeria) - The Yoruba and Igbo ethnic groups in Nigeria had occasional conflicts over territory and political dominance, particularly in the context

of the pre-colonial city-states and kingdoms in the region. These rivalries persisted into the colonial era and contributed to tensions within the Nigerian colonial state.

- Dinka-Nuer Rivalry (South Sudan) - The Dinka and Nuer ethnic groups in South Sudan have a history of inter-tribal conflict, often related to competition for grazing land and cattle raiding. These rivalries have persisted into modern times and have been exacerbated by political instability and the Sudanese civil wars.

ECONOMIC ASPECTS

The Sahara is a defining feature of Africa, the largest desert in the world. The Sahara's sheer size and magnitude act as a major obstacle for communication, trade, and exchange of ideas. However, there is evidence of Roman expeditions and explorations who were able to move across the desert and into the interior of Africa to secure sources of gold, salt, and spices. For centuries, Arabs also maintained trade relations with the vast empires of West Africa, such as the Ghana and Mali Empires, establishing trade routes that secured gold, ivory, and slaves. The Portuguese began expeditions down the west coast of Africa in the 15th century, and history tells us of the profound effect that followed. During the 1480s, the explorer Diego Cao was the first to establish contact with the Kongo Kingdom, situated south of the Congo River. The Kongo kingdom was eager to make use of Portuguese teachers, craftsmen, and Catholic missionaries who were allowed to work among their people. The Portuguese traded guns, cloth, and other European luxuries for slaves, who were captured by the Kongo in wars against rival kingdoms. By the 17th century, Portugal and other European powers began to settle on the coast of Africa. Europeans would buy slaves in Africa, transport them to the Americas, and exchange them for valuable goods like sugar, coffee, and tobacco, which were then sold at premium prices in Europe. Arguably, between the 16th and 18th centuries, over 12 million Africans were enslaved and transported in harsh conditions to work on plantations in the Americas.

SETTLEMENTS

South of Africa, the first European settlement was established by the Dutch East India Company, where merchants used the location as a waypoint for ongoing voyages to the Dutch East Indies. They came into contact with the Khoikhoi, a nomadic indigenous population of southwestern Africa comprised of hundreds of clans. Over time, the settlement known as the Cape of Good Hope grew in size, resulting in the Khoikhoi losing land and cattle to the Dutch, who adopted the name Boer, meaning farmer. Due to a shortage of labour, the Dutch imported slaves from Mozambique, Madagascar, and many Indonesian islands. The Cape of Good Hope came under the control of the British during the Napoleonic Wars. The abolition of slavery ended slavery in the Cape in 1834. In 1835, the Boers embarked on the Great Trek as the abolition of the slave trade resulted in financial catastrophe. As a result, Dutch citizens known as Voortrekkers moved further inland into Africa. They formed the Free Orange State and Transvaal, which were recognized by the British. In the north, France launched a war of conquest against Algeria in 1830, which would last until 1847. Meanwhile, in the United States, there was a movement to settle freeborn blacks and freed slaves and transport them to Africa. Most whites and later a small minority of blacks believed that blacks would be better off in Africa. The American Colonization Society began transporting them to the closest point in Africa to establish a colony in 1822. By 1847, the settlers issued a declaration of independence and established the independent republic of Liberia. The construction of the Suez Canal in 1869 verified its importance as a route for trade with India and China. In 1882, Egypt was occupied by British forces during the Anglo-Egyptian War, subsequently revealing the potential riches that Africa offered.

EXPLORATION

Several European explorers explored the continent. Perhaps one of the most famous was David Livingstone, a Scottish missionary who attempted to convert the natives he encountered to Christianity and strove to find the source of the Nile. Henry Morton Stanley was famous for his exploration of Central Africa. He worked for King Leopold II of Belgium and helped map out the Congo region. So why were there no major explorations into the interior of Africa before this? Well, there were limited seaworthy rivers, tropical diseases, hostile natives, and weapons were not as advanced as they were in the 19th century.

The geography of North Africa has been reasonably well-known since classical antiquity in Greco-Roman geography. The exploration of Sub-Saharan Africa begins with the Age of Discovery in the 15th century, pioneered by posts along the coast during active colonization of the New World. Exploration of the interior of Africa was thus mostly left to the Arab slave traders, who in tandem with the Muslim conquest of the Sudan established far-reaching networks and supported the economy of a number of Sahelian kingdoms during the 15th to 18th centuries.

Portuguese explorer Prince Henry, known as the Navigator, was the first European to methodically explore Africa and the oceanic route to the Indies. From his residence in the Algarve region of southern Portugal, he directed successive expeditions to circumnavigate Africa and reach India. In 1420, Henry sent an expedition to secure the uninhabited but strategic island of Madeira. In 1425, he tried to secure the Canary Islands as well, but these were already under firm Castilian control. In 1431, another Portuguese expedition reached and annexed the Azores.

Portuguese presence in Africa soon interfered with existing Arab trade interests. By 1583, the Portuguese established themselves in Zanzibar and on the Swahili coast. The Kingdom of Congo was converted to Christianity in 1495, its king taking the name of João I. The Portuguese also established trade interests in the Kingdom of Mutapa in the 16th century, and in 1629 placed a puppet ruler on the throne.

Beginning in the 17th century, the Netherlands began exploring and colonizing Africa. While the Dutch were waging a long war of independence against Spain, Portugal united with Spain from 1580 to 1640. As a result, the growing colonial ambitions of the Netherlands were mostly directed against Portugal. For this purpose, two Dutch companies were founded: the West Indies Company, with power over all the Atlantic Ocean, and the East Indies Company, with power over the Indian Ocean.

Almost at the same time as the Dutch, other European powers attempted to create their own outposts for the African slave trade. As early as 1530, English merchant adventurers started trading in West Africa, coming into conflict with Portuguese troops. In 1581, Francis Drake reached the Cape of Good Hope. In 1663, the English built Fort James in Gambia. One year later, another English colonial expedition attempted to settle southern Madagascar, resulting in the death of most of the colonists. The English forts on the West African coast were eventually taken by the Dutch.

In 1626, the French Compagnie de l'Occident was created. This company expelled the Dutch from Senegal, making it the first French domain in Africa. France also set sights on Madagascar; the island used since 1527 as a stop in travels to India.

Overall, European exploration of Africa in the 17th and 18th centuries was very limited. Instead, they focused on the slave trade, which only required coastal bases and items to trade. The real exploration of the African interior would start well into the 19th century. During the 19th century, most European powers experienced dramatic productivity growth triggered by industrialization. European countries produced goods and were consequently searching for new markets. Interest turned towards the acquisition of land to grow agricultural products for European markets. Europeans moved into the interior of Africa to extract raw materials such as rubber, palm oil, gold, copper, and diamonds. These natural resources made Africa a vital resource for the European economy.

CONFLICTS AND RESISTANCE

Understandably, Europe held the technological advantage. Bands of just a few hundred men and barely a handful of machine guns proceeded to overwhelm and obliterate thousands of Africans. The machine gun was revolutionary, firing rapid shots at an unparalleled speed. The effectiveness of the weapon was obvious in Sudan, where a British force armed with roughly 20 machine guns and a small number of cannons overpowered Sudanese forces and effectively opened the door for colonization. But the Europeans, in their quest to carve up the continent, would encounter resistance. By the early 1880s, Abyssinia, or modern-day Ethiopia, was in danger of invasion by the British, French, and Italians. The Abyssinian Emperor decided to exploit European rivalries after mining concessions to France in return for weapons. Italy grew nervous of the growing French interests in the country and offered the emperor Italian weapons. Throughout the 1880s, Abyssinia grew stronger, securing more modern weapons from the British and Russians.

Early European expeditions concentrated on colonizing previously uninhabited islands such as the Cape Verde Islands and São Tomé Island, or establishing coastal forts as a base for trade and supporting the Cape Route between Europe and Asia. These forts often developed areas of influence along coastal strips, but with the exception of the Senegal River, the vast interior of Africa was little known to Europeans until the late 19th century.

Even as late as the 1870s, European states still controlled only 10 percent of the African continent, with territories concentrated near the coast. The most important holdings were Angola and Mozambique, held by Portugal; the Cape Colony, held by the United Kingdom; and Algeria, held by France.

Technological advancement facilitated overseas expansionism. Industrialization brought about rapid advancements in transportation and communication, especially in the forms of steam navigation, railways, and telegraphs. Medical advances also were important, especially medicines for tropical diseases. The development of quinine, an effective treatment for malaria, enabled vast expanses of the tropics to be accessed by Europeans.

Trade disputes central to the Berlin Conference :

- Congo Basin - The Congo Basin was a major point of contention, primarily between Belgium and France. King Leopold II of Belgium sought control over the Congo Basin for economic exploitation, while France aimed to expand its colonial territory.
- West Africa - West Africa witnessed disputes primarily between France, the United Kingdom, and Germany. These European powers vied for control over various regions rich in resources such as gold, ivory, and rubber.
- East Africa - Germany and the United Kingdom clashed over their interests in East Africa, particularly in areas like present-day Tanzania and Kenya. The disputes revolved around access to ports, trade routes, and strategic locations along the East African coast.
- Southwest Africa (Namibia) - Germany's expansion into Southwest Africa collided with British interests in the region. Namibia, with its valuable resources and strategic coastal locations, became a focal point of contention.
- Egypt and the Nile Basin - Egypt's strategic location and control over the Nile Basin attracted the interests of both the United Kingdom and France. The British sought to safeguard their access to India via the Suez Canal, while the French aimed to expand their influence in the region.

POLITICAL SITUATION OF AFRICA

The Berlin Conference is best described as an act of formalisation of the Scramble for Africa. This British coined the term in 1884, and it has since been used to describe the twenty-plus years when the various European powers explored, divided, conquered and began to exploit virtually the entire African continent. The major European powers did not immediately realise the benefit of conquering the colonies in Africa thus causing a major scramble and competition between the European nations for acquiring more colonies in economically backward countries of Africa. The outcome of the conference was the General Act of the Berlin Conference.

While tropical Africa was not a large zone of investment, other overseas regions were. The vast interior between Egypt and the gold and diamond-rich Southern Africa had strategic value in securing the flow of overseas trade. Britain was under political pressure to build up lucrative markets in India, Malaya, Australia and New Zealand. Thus, it wanted to secure the key waterway between East and West – the Suez Canal, completed in 1869.

In 1876, the Belgian king Leopold the second announced his intention to fund an exploration of the rich Congo region in Africa and sent Henry Morton Stanley to the Area. From 1879 to 1884, Stanley ventured to the Congo as an envoy on behalf of king Léopold with the secret mission to organise what would become known as the Congo Free State, a mercantile enterprise in the Congo. The French intelligence had discovered Leopold's plans, and France was quickly engaged in its own colonial exploration. The French naval officer Pierre de Brazza was dispatched to central Africa, who entered western Congo basin, and raised the French flag over the newly founded Brazzaville in 1881. In addition to this, Portugal too had a long-standing history with this area through its trade and treaties formed with the Kongo Empire which in turn became a proxy state of Portugal. The state of Portugal formed a treaty with the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland to block off the Congo society's access to the Atlantic.

In 1879, the French began construction of a railway east of Dakar with the hopes of tapping into potentially massive Sahel markets. That year, France joined Great Britain in seizing financial control of Egypt.

By the early 1880s, European interest in Africa had risen substantially. Stanley's charting of the Congo River Basin (1874-77) eliminated the last portion of terra incognita off European maps of the continent, revealing the rough territories under British, Portuguese, French, and Belgian administration. The powers raced to expand these imprecise boundaries as far as they could while also eliminating any local minor rulers who may pose a threat to European competitive diplomacy.

France sought to conquer Tunisia, one of the last remaining Barbary Pirate republics, under the guise of another Islamic terror and piracy episode. Pierre de Brazza's claims were swiftly strengthened, with the French seizing control of what is now the Republic of the Congo in 1881 and Guinea in 1884. This, in turn, led Italy to join the Triple Alliance, upsetting Germany's Otto van Bismarck's carefully planned relations with Italy and pushing Germany to participate. In 1882, Britain recognized the strategic extent of Portuguese power on the coasts, but also saw France's expansion eastward over Central Africa toward Ethiopia, the

Nile, and the Suez Canal, threatening its crucial trade route through Egypt and threatening the Indian empire.

In 1854–1856, French diplomat Ferdinand de Lesseps secured numerous concessions from Isma'il Pasha, the Khedive of Egypt and Sudan, in order to build the Suez Canal. Although the number of labourers is estimated at 30,000 by some sources, 120,000 workers are thought to have perished over the ten years of construction due to cholera, exhaustion, and malnourishment. Khedive Isma'il borrowed substantial amounts of money at exorbitant interest rates from British and French bankers just prior to its completion in 1869. He had run into financial trouble by 1875 and had to sell his block of Suez Canal shares. Under Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, Britain seized the shares in an attempt to give his nation real authority over the administration of this vital waterway. Isma'il abdicated as Egyptian king in 1879, putting his eldest son Tewfik Pasha in charge after Britain and France jointly took financial control of Egypt after Isma'il rejected Egypt's foreign debt. Foreign intervention was not favourable for the ruling classes in Sudan and Egypt.

Germany, after its unification became ambitious and proclaimed South West Africa, the Cameroons, and Togoland to be under its protection and control in 1884. In an effort to grow larger and establish itself as a major force after unification, Italy annexed portions of Eritrea in 1870 and the year of 1882.

The emergence of Mahdist troops in northern Sudan was sparked by economic crises brought on by European actions against the slave trade in the 1870s. Tewfik's rule in Sudan was ended in 1881 when Muhammad Ahmad led the Mahdist uprising in Sudan. Tewfik faced an even more dangerous uprising in the form of the Urabi (The Urabi revolution took place in Khedivate of Egypt from 1879-1882, led by Colonel Ahmed Urabi and sought to dispose the Khedive, Tewfik Pasha, virtually removing British and French influence from the region) insurrection in the same year from his Egyptian troops. When Tewfik requested direct military support from the British in 1882, Egypt came under British rule. A combined Egyptian and British military force joined the Mahdist War. Additionally, Emin Pasha commanded an apparent relief expedition against Mahdist forces in the Egyptian province of Equatoria, which is located in South Sudan. In Sudan, the Mahdist forces were ultimately vanquished by the British-Egyptian force in 1898. After that, Britain took control of Sudan, namely Anglo Egyptian Sudan.

Denmark kept four forts and other trading posts along the Gold Coast of West Africa, particularly in the region that is now Ghana. Three trading stations were constructed: Frederiksberg, Kpompo; Fort Christiansburg, which was acquired from Sweden in 1661 and located close to Accra; and Fort Frederiksborg. The forts were Fort Augusta Borg (1787), Fort Fredensborg (1734), Fort Kongenstein (1783), and Fort Prinzenstein (1784), several of which are now in ruins. Near Frederiksborg, plantations were set up, but they didn't succeed. Fort Christiansburg developed became the hub of the slave trade to the Danish West Indies and the centre of Danish supremacy in West Africa. All commercial stations were abandoned in 1807 as a result of the Ashanti's suppression of Denmark's African economic partners. In 1850, Denmark sold its forts to Great Britain.

Bloodstains and accounts of the suffering endured by thousands of kidnapped slaves who were later sold into marketplaces in Europe and America contaminate the history of Dutch colonialism. The Dutch began colonizing

numerous African nations in the 17th century, including Senegal, Ghana, Angola, Namibia, and the Ivory Coast. Before the English and French arrived to plunder the continent, the Dutch had created colonial possessions in Africa. Eventually, they lost power and ceded these lands to the French and the then-British Empire in the eighteenth century.

In lieu of freedom within the United States, the American Colonization Society (ACS) was established in 1817 with the purpose of sending free African-Americans to Africa. The group founded a colony in 1822 on Africa's west coast, which in 1847 gained independence and became the country of Liberia. The group had sent out almost 13,000 emigrants by 1867. Abolitionists began viciously attacking society in the 1830s, attempting to paint colonization as the plot of slaveholders. Additionally, financial backing for colonization had decreased following the Civil War, when many Black people desired to relocate to Liberia.

Due to Leopold's gamble and the ensuing European race for colonies, which broke Bismarck's meticulously constructed balance of power in European politics, Germany felt forced to intervene and began organizing its own African expeditions, which alarmed both British and French officials. King Leopold II managed to persuade France and Germany that shared trade in Africa would benefit all three nations, hoping to quickly defuse the escalating tension. Otto von Bismarck, the German Chancellor, invited representatives of Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, the United Kingdom, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden-Norway (union until 1905), the Ottoman Empire, and the United States to participate in an international conference with assistance from the British and at the initiative of Portugal in Berlin to work out a common policy for colonisation and trade in Africa and the drawing of colonial state boundaries in the official partition of Africa. The Berlin Conference spanned almost four months of deliberations, from 15 November 1884 to 26 February 1885. By the end of the Conference the European powers had neatly divided Africa up amongst themselves, drawing the boundaries of Africa much as we know them today.

VENTURES UNDERTAKEN BY EUROPEAN POWERS

- The Portuguese administration proposed a concept known as the "Pink Map" or the "Rose-Coloured Map" in which the colonies of Angola and Mozambique were joined by co-opting the intervening territory (which later became Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Malawi). Except for Britain, all of the countries present at the conference supported Portugal's intentions. Just over five years later, in 1890, the British government issued an ultimatum demanding that the Portuguese withdraw from the disputed territory.
- A line stretching from Say in Niger to Maroua on Lake Chad's northern coast established who owned which area. France would own territory to the north of the line, while Britain would own area to the south. The British would control the Nile basin, while the French would control the Lake Chad basin. The border between French-controlled Ouaddaï and British-controlled Darfur in Sudan would be located between 11th and 15th degrees north latitude. In reality, a 200-kilometer-wide no man's land was established between the 21st and 23rd meridian east.
- The land to the north of a line formed by the intersection of the 14th meridian east and Miltou was declared as French, while the area to the south was German, later known as German Cameroon.
- The European race for colonies made Germany start launching expeditions of its own, which frightened both British and French statesmen. Hoping to quickly soothe the

brewing conflict, Belgian King Leopold II convinced France and Germany that common trade in Africa was in the best interests of all three countries.

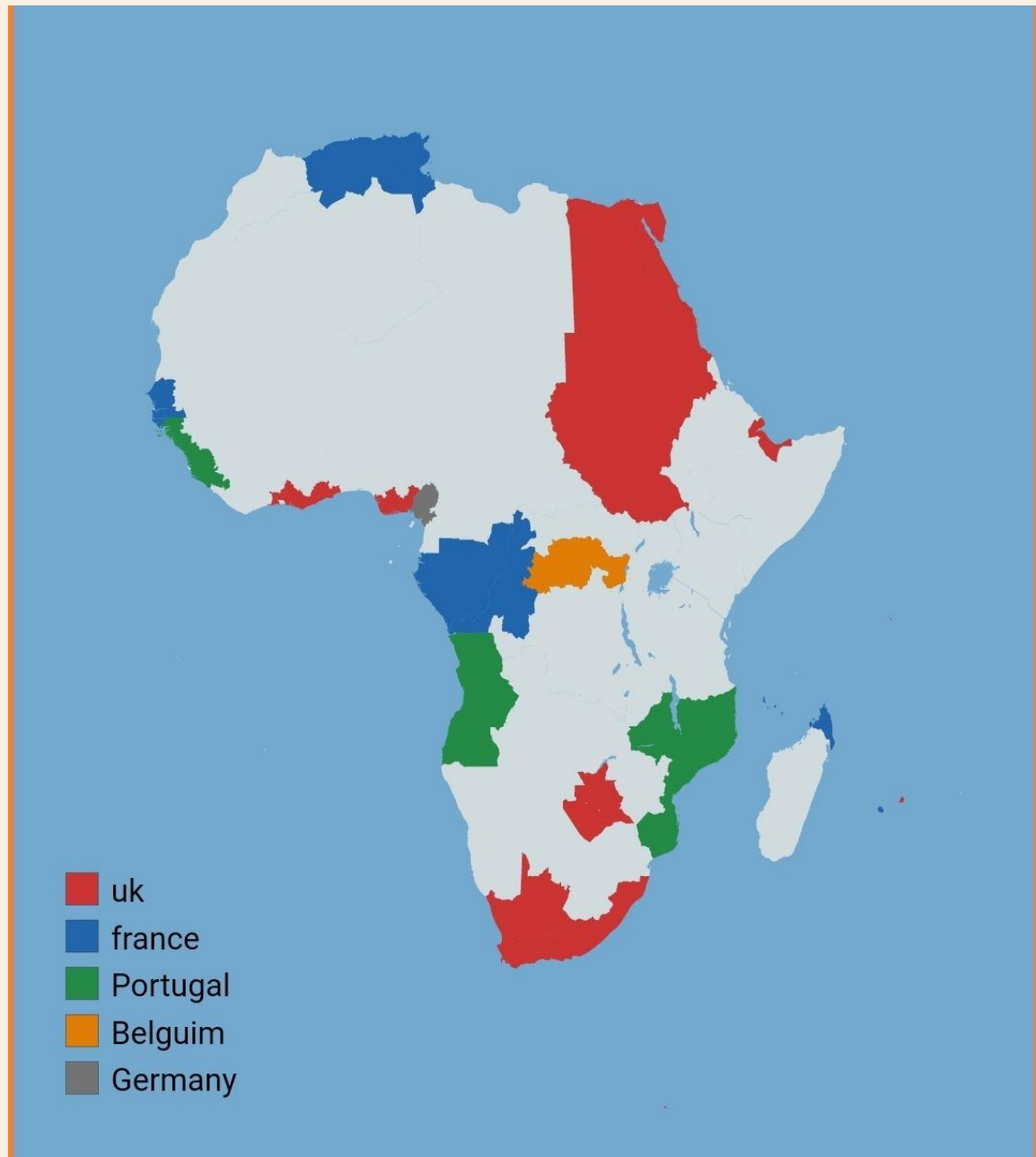


Figure 4 Map of Africa showing colonial possessions prior to the Berlin Conference

POLITICAL SITUATION WITHIN THE CONTINENT

The Ashanti Empire engaged in multiple conflicts with other kingdoms and less structured tribes like the Fante. In the first two of the four Anglo-Ashanti Wars, the Ashanti defeated the invasions of the British Empire, resulting in the death of Sir Charles MacCarthy, the general of the British army. Ashanti's abundance in gold led to a thriving trade with neighbouring African states. Slaves were also trafficked by the Ashanti. The traffic in slaves was concentrated in the north at this time. The army was a useful weapon for capturing prisoners. There were five Anglo-Ashanti wars between the Ashanti Empire and Great Britain and its allies between 1824 and 1899. In several of these conflicts, the British were defeated or

forced to negotiate truces; in the last war, they burned Kumasi and made official the occupation of the Ashanti empire in 1900. The Ashanti people's attempts to gain control of Ghana's coastal regions were the primary cause of the conflicts.

After visiting Buganda in 1875, journalist and adventurer Henry Morton Stanley estimated the number of Buganda troops. Stanley reported seeing a flotilla of war canoes with 3,000 soldiers. Stanley arrived in Lubaga, the capital of Buganda, to find a neatly laid out town encircling the king's palace, perched atop a prominent hill. After being colonized by the British, Buganda became a protectorate of the UK in 1884.

The Sokoto state grew from 1808 until the middle of the 1830s, progressively annexing important portions of Yorubaland as well as the plains to the west. It grew to be one of the biggest states in Africa, encompassing most of northern Nigeria and southern Niger and extending from what is now Burkina Faso to Cameroon. Several areas of modern-day Niger, especially those that border Nigeria, were taken over by the Sokoto Caliphate. For example, one important Caliphate centre in this area was the town of Birnin Konni. One of the most potent kingdoms in West Africa in the eighteenth century was the Oyo Empire, which is situated in what is now southwest Nigeria. But by the early 19th century, pressure from foreign foes, internal strife, and succession issues had brought the Oyo Empire to an end. In contrast, the Sokoto Caliphate was expanding. Ilorin, a Yoruba vassal state in the Oyo Empire's north, served as the principal conduit for the Sokoto Caliphate's interactions with the Oyo Empire. The Sokoto Caliphate supported the Ilorin when they launched a string of raids against the Oyo Empire. By the middle of the 19th century, the Oyo Empire had finally fallen due to internal strife and these attacks.

Mswati, (king of Eswatini or Swaziland) invaded and subdued the Swazis in the 1850s, severely limited the size of the Swazi Kingdom. Through his conquests and acts of shelter, Mswati was able to bring more people into his realm and significantly lessen the Emakhandzambili's influence. The Swazis started to refer to these latter arrivals as Emafikamuva. Settlements like Malinda, Kunudwini, and Lotiti, as well as the Black and White Umbelosi rivers, are indicated.

British and Dutch colonization of southern Africa in the late 19th and early 20th centuries had a profound impact on the autonomy and lifestyle of the Swazi people. The British government acknowledged Swazi independence in 1881 by signing a convention, even though the Scramble for Africa was happening at the same time. This independence was also recognised in the London convention of 1884.

During and after the Anglo-Zulu War, the little kingdom of Zulu rose to international prominence, not least for being the first to defeat the British at the Battle of Isandlwana in 1879. Even the British, who tended to despise Africans as inferior, developed a reputation for the Zulu for their bravery and fighting prowess. Upon dividing Africa among themselves, the European powers annexed any territory they so desired, either by imposing treaties of protection backed by superior military force or by taking ownership of the land without consulting the Africans who had previously held it. People who refused to sign these treaties, like the Obo of Benin and the Sultan of Sokoto, were subjugated quite fast. In the eighteenth century, only Ethiopia managed to successfully resist colonial occupation.

In the 17th and 18th centuries, Bornu developed into a hub for Islamic scholarship. As Sufism spread throughout the Sahel, Borno sultans used their religious charm to gain political authority. The Kanuri language and Islam were extensively embraced, and the economy was driven by slave raids. At this point in the Fulani War, people from the west who were entering Bornu were able to achieve significant gains. Kanem-Bornu was evidently a declining empire by the early 19th century, when Fulani troops overthrew Ngazargamu in 1808. Usman dan Fodio spearheaded the Fulani advance and declared a holy war, or jihad, against the local Muslims who were not religious. In the end, his campaign had an impact on Kanem-Bornu and sparked a movement toward Islamic orthodoxy. The final mai, Mai Ibrahim, was killed in a civil war that was started in 1846 by the last mai in collusion with the Ouaddai Empire. That was the moment when Umar, the son of Kanemi, assumed the throne as Shehu, ending one of the longest dynastic reigns in recorded history. By that time, the Wadai Empire had taken control of the east and north, while Hausaland was taken over by the Sokoto Caliphate. The Tuareg defeated a French expedition under the command of Paul Flatters in 1881 after they rebelled against the French colonial conquest of their homelands in the Central Sahara in the late 1800s. Tuareg broadswords ultimately proved to be insufficient against the more sophisticated weaponry used by French forces. The governance of the Tuareg people by the French colonists was primarily focused on upholding the preexisting social system. The French concluded that the adoption of measures that weakened the power of traditional chiefs was a major contributing factor to Tuareg rebellions. The French wanted to establish a protectorate that would ideally be led by a single chieftain. Because they believed that the noble caste, on which their policies depended, could not survive without slaves, the French authorities did little or nothing to ameliorate the condition of the servile segment of Tuareg society.

At its biggest, the Maasai realm stretched from Mount Marsabit in the north to Dodoma in the south, encompassing nearly the whole Great Rift Valley and surrounding areas, in the middle of the 19th century. During this period, cattle were raised as far east as the Tanga coast in Tanganyika (now mainland Tanzania) by the Maasai and the greater Nilotic group of which they were a member. In addition to using spears and shields, raiders were most feared for their ability to throw clubs, or orinka, which could be precisely hurled up to 70 paces, or approximately 100 meters. A group of eight hundred Maasai warriors were reported to be on the move in what is now Kenya in 1852. The Mombasa coast was under threat from the Maasai in 1857. Outsiders seeking for individuals to enslave avoided the Maasai because they opposed slavery and never supported human trafficking. This caused certain conflicting ideals between the Maasai and other African tribes.

Africa is undergoing political instability. It is at this critical juncture that you must navigate the intricacies of acquiring more colonies, forming alliances and growing the economy of your region. Delegates, what we have provided to you is just a mere framework. It is your responsibility now to determine the fate of the African continent and face all obstacles in this “Scramble for Africa”.



Figure 5 Map of Africa showing territories of African polities

IMPORTANT PLAYERS

COLONIAL POWERS

The United Kingdom

The United Kingdom played a huge role in colonialism in Africa. The main objectives of Britain were to exploit the resources of Africa and then send the wealth back to the UK and to counter France's growing influence in the region.

Objectives

1. Counter Portugal for project "Pink Map".
2. Get control of Lake Chad and counter France.
3. Influence of metal and spice trade in Africa.
4. Trade through Africa to India.

Military

The British Army was one of the largest and strongest armies of that time and consisted of soldiers from all its colonies like India and had a massive resource advantage. The Royal British Navy was the strongest in the world and helped Britain conquer and maintain all its colonies. This time the British army was characterized by a transition from traditional and medieval warfare to a more modern approach to warfare. The British Army was extremely large and had key strategic locations almost all around the world, and newer and technologically advanced weapons were used. The structure of the army was divided into regiments, battalions and brigades. Cavalry started to play a very important part in the attack plan of Britain.

Political Situation

The Prime Minister of Britain during this time was William Ewart Gladstone, a liberal politician. The main political situation at this moment was the issue of Ireland inside the United Kingdom and there were constant Irish rebels conducting assassinations, protests, etc. Another big failure during this time was the massacre occurring in Khartoum which resulted in the death of thousands of British soldiers. This was also a time of worker protests for labour rights.

Economy

The British Empire had vast resources from the exploitation which it had committed from its colonies for a long time. London was the banking & financial capital of the world & saw several big businesses & banks flourish during these times. This time also saw rapid urbanization and the development of new infrastructure & technological advancements. They got extreme amounts of wealth in the form of natural resources like spices, metals, and jewellery from their colonies. London was also seen as a popular tourist spot.

Germany

Germany participated in the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885. At the time, Germany was a relatively new player in the colonial game compared to its European counterparts like Britain and France. Chancellor Otto von Bismarck saw colonial expansion as a means to enhance Germany's prestige.

Objectives

1. Secure its own share of colonial possessions in Africa
2. To enhance her prestige, access to resources and potential markets for industrial goods
3. Assert their nation's colonial ambitions and ensure the recognition and protection of its territorial and economic interests

Military

During the Berlin Conference, Germany possessed a formidable military force that had been rapidly modernised under the leadership of Otto von Bismarck. The German military, or the Imperial Army (Deutsches Heer), was organised and disciplined, equipped with advanced weaponry and tactics. The unification of Germany in 1871 consolidated various regional armies into a unified force under the command of the Prussian Kaiser (Emperor). By the late 19th century, Germany's military prowess was respected internationally, contributing to its diplomatic leverage in colonial negotiations.

Political Situation

Germany was led by Chancellor Otto von Bismarck, who pursued a policy of Realpolitik aimed at strengthening and consolidating the newly unified German Empire. Bismarck's domestic policies, such as the Kulturkampf (struggle for civilisation) against the Catholic Church and the implementation of social welfare reforms, aimed to maintain internal stability and secure the loyalty of various social classes.

Economy

Germany was undergoing rapid industrialisation, fuelled by technological advancements, infrastructure development, and the expansion of its railway network. The rise of heavy industries like steel, coal, and manufacturing transformed Germany into a major economic power in Europe. This economic growth created a demand for new markets and resources, driving Germany's interest in colonial expansion.

Austria-Hungary

Austria-Hungary was a dual monarchy which participated in the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885. It sought to influence the decisions regarding the partitioning of Africa to ensure that its territorial integrity and spheres of influence in the Balkans were respected.

Objectives

1. To protect its interests in Eastern Europe and the Balkan.
2. To secure its position as a major European power.

3. To maintain stability in the region and counterbalance the influence of other European powers, particularly Russia, in the Balkans.
4. To expand its economic interests in Africa through diplomatic negotiations during the conference.

Military

During the late 19th century, Austria-Hungary possessed one of the largest and most diverse military forces in Europe. The Austro-Hungarian Armed Forces, consisting of the Imperial and Royal Army and Navy, were significant both in terms of manpower and equipment. The military was structured along complex lines due to the dual nature of the monarchy, with separate Austrian and Hungarian components under a common command. Austria-Hungary's military capabilities included modernised infantry, cavalry, artillery, and a growing navy, although it faced challenges such as ethnic diversity, linguistic differences, and logistical complexities.

Political Situation

Austria-Hungary was a dual monarchy governed by the Habsburg Emperor Franz Joseph I. The empire consisted of two distinct entities: the Austrian Empire and the Kingdom of Hungary, each with its own government and parliament. The political landscape was characterized by ethnic diversity and tensions between various nationalities within the empire, including Germans, Hungarians, Czechs, Poles, Ukrainians, Croats, and others. The central government in Vienna struggled to maintain unity among these ethnicities.

Economy

Austria-Hungary was undergoing a period of industrialisation and economic growth, particularly in urban centres such as Vienna, Budapest, and Prague. The empire possessed significant natural resources, including coal, iron ore, and agricultural land, which fuelled industrial development and exports. However, the economy faced challenges such as outdated infrastructure, limited access to raw materials, and disparities between industrialised regions and rural areas. The government promoted economic modernisation through investments in infrastructure, education, and industry, but progress was uneven across different parts of the empire.

Spain

Spain was also one of the participants of the Berlin Conference. At the time, Spain's colonial empire had dwindled significantly compared to its heyday in the 16th and 17th centuries, with most of its American colonies gaining independence in the early 19th century. However, Spain still maintained territories in Africa, particularly in North Africa (such as Spanish Morocco) and the Gulf of Guinea region.

Objectives

1. To protect its remaining colonial possessions.
2. To secure recognition of its territorial claims in Africa.
3. To safeguard its colonial interests, expand its influence in Africa.

4. To secure access to valuable resources such as minerals and markets for trade.

Military

During the Berlin Conference, Spain possessed a moderately sized military force, but its capabilities were limited compared to the major European powers. The Spanish Armed Forces, consisting of the Spanish Army or Ejército de Tierra, Navy or Armada, and Air Force or Ejército del Aire, were primarily focused on defending Spain's mainland territories and its colonial holdings. Spain's military suffered from underfunding and outdated equipment, reflecting the country's economic challenges and internal instability during the late 19th century.

Political Situation

Spain was undergoing a period of transition and instability during the late 19th century. The country had experienced significant political upheaval, including the loss of its American colonies and multiple changes in government. Spain's political landscape was characterized by a struggle between conservatives and liberals, as well as regional tensions between the central government and various regions seeking greater autonomy. The monarchy, led by King Alfonso XII during the Berlin Conference, sought to stabilise the country and revitalise Spain's international standing.

Economy

Spain faced numerous challenges, including a sluggish economy, widespread poverty, and limited industrialisation compared to other European powers. The country relied heavily on agriculture, particularly in regions like Andalusia and Catalonia, but struggled to modernise its economy and attract foreign investment. Spain's colonial possessions in Africa provided some economic opportunities, such as trade in commodities like cocoa and minerals, but were also costly to maintain and administer.

Denmark

At the time of the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 in which Denmark took part, it possessed colonies in the Caribbean and Africa, but its most significant colonial possession was Greenland, and it was very important for the country to maintain its sovereignty over Greenland.

Objectives

1. To protect its colonial interests, particularly in Greenland.
2. To ensure its sovereignty over Greenland was recognized and respected amidst the colonial scramble for African territories.
3. To secure favourable trade agreements and diplomatic relations with other colonial powers to safeguard its economic and strategic interests.

Military

During the Berlin Conference, Denmark maintained a relatively modest military force compared to the major European powers. The Danish military, known as the Royal Danish

Army (Kongelige Danske Hær), consisted of a small standing army supplemented by reserve forces. Denmark's military capabilities were primarily geared towards defending its homeland and maintaining control over its colonial possessions rather than projecting power abroad. While not as formidable as the militaries of larger nations, Denmark's navy, in particular, played a crucial role in protecting its maritime interests and supporting its colonial ventures.

Political Situation

Denmark was a constitutional monarchy governed by a parliamentary system. The country had undergone significant political reforms in the 19th century, including the establishment of a constitutional monarchy in 1849. At the time of the Berlin Conference, Denmark was led by King Christian IX and a liberal-conservative government. The government pursued policies aimed at modernizing the economy, promoting trade, and enhancing Denmark's international standing.

Economy

Denmark was experiencing steady growth driven by agricultural exports, maritime trade, and industrialisation. The country's economy was characterised by a strong agricultural sector, particularly in dairy farming and grain production. Additionally, Denmark's strategic location at the crossroads of the Baltic and North Seas facilitated trade and maritime commerce. The government actively promoted economic development through infrastructure projects, trade agreements, and investments in education and technology.

Belgium

The king of Belgium played a massive role in the colonisation of Africa. He too wanted to establish a large Imperial Empire like other European powers and had massive economic plans for Africa.

Objectives

1. Recognition of Congo as a part of Belgium.
2. Control the trade of minerals and metals through Africa.
3. Get control of strategic trade route locations in Africa.

Military

Belgium's Army had 2 divisions the Gendarmerie which was the paramilitary force and the Civic Guard which was the reserve force. The major force of the army was infantrymen and cavalry helped mobilize the army. Belgium focused on defensive strategies and were masterful in creating good fortifications. The army was plagued by a shortage of resources.

Political Situation

Belgium had gained independence from the Netherlands in 1830 after a period of unrest and revolution. Following independence, Belgium established itself as a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system. However, the country faced challenges related to linguistic and cultural divisions between the Dutch-speaking Flemish population in the north and the French-speaking Walloon population in the south. Belgium pursued a policy of neutrality,

aiming to avoid entanglement in the conflicts between its more powerful neighbours, such as France, Germany, and the United Kingdom. This neutrality allowed Belgium to maintain stability and focus on economic development.

Economy

Belgium experienced rapid industrialization during the 19th century, particularly in the regions of Wallonia (the southern, French-speaking part) which was rich in coal and iron ore. This industrialisation led to the growth of cities such as Liège, Charleroi, and Mons. Belgium became one of the first countries in continental Europe to undergo industrialisation, with industries such as coal mining, steel production, textiles, and engineering driving economic growth. The Belgian economy also benefited from its strategic location in Europe, serving as a hub for trade and commerce. The port city of Antwerp played a crucial role in facilitating international trade, particularly with its access to the North Sea.

The United States of America

The United States participated in the Berlin Conference, but with some reservations, as it was not a European colonial power and had minimal territorial interests in Africa at that time. However, the USA closely monitored the proceedings of the conference and its outcomes, as they would impact global trade routes, diplomatic relations, and potential future opportunities for American interests in Africa.

Objectives

1. To ensure freedom of navigation in international waters.
2. To protect its economic interests, particularly in expanding markets.
3. To enhance its access to resources.

Military

During the late 19th century, the United States had a growing military force, but it was still relatively small compared to the major European powers. The US Army and Navy underwent significant modernisation and expansion following the Civil War, but their capabilities were mainly geared towards defending the nation's borders, maintaining domestic order, and protecting American interests in the Western Hemisphere. The US military lacked the global reach and power projection capabilities of European colonial powers during the Berlin Conference.

Political Situation

The USA was experiencing a period of rapid industrialization, urbanization, and westward expansion during the late 19th century. The country was governed by President Chester A. Arthur during the Berlin Conference, following the assassination of President James A. Garfield in 1881. The political landscape was characterized by economic growth, social change, and debates over issues such as immigration, labour rights, and expansionism.

Economy

The USA was emerging as a major industrial and economic power on the world stage. The country's economy was driven by industrial production, agriculture, and expanding trade networks. The completion of transcontinental railroads, the development of telegraph and steamship technologies, and the growth of industries such as steel, oil, and manufacturing fuelled economic expansion and prosperity. The USA was becoming increasingly interconnected with global markets, seeking access to raw materials and new trading partners around the world.

France

Another very important factor in the rapid colonialism of Africa was the rivalry between Britain and France. The main motive was to counter British influence and France was currently under the leadership of and had vast colonial possessions in Asia. The major event that happened recently was the Sino-French War which started in April.

Objectives

1. Control over the Congo Basin for Ivory and rubber trade.
2. Facilitating trade along the Congo and Nile rivers.
3. Colonial Expansion into West Africa and Algeria.

Military

The main form of warfare used was land warfare and severe resources were spent on the development of artillery. The main focus of the country was the Sino-France war which resulted in a great quantity of resources being spent there. Furthermore, Japan requested French guidance to modernise Japanese troops. France also started paying great attention to the Navy to counter the British. The siege of Tuyen Quang had recently started against the Chinese army. Overall, the French Army was one of the strongest armies in the world at that time.

Political Situation

France has faced constant disturbances since the start of the 3rd French Empire with the Catholic Church on the scope of the Church's power and the country had recently been fighting a war in Asia which was draining a lot of their resources. The main problem was that the French were divided into different political factions and there was continuous infighting among them. The factions were Republicans, Monarchists, and Socialists. There was also a growing rise in labour rights.

Economy

The economy of France during this time had faced stagnation and there was a lack of economic growth. This was due to the French economy being in a constant war economy due to the numerous wars France was involved in. They lost several of these wars which caused a great blow to the economy of the empire. Furthermore, there were growing protests for better working conditions and the economy depended on natural resources from its colonies.

Italy

Italy had a small colonial empire at the time, participating in the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885.

Objectives

1. Recognition of its territories of Eritrea and some parts of Libya.
2. Expansion into territories of Somalia.
3. Access to trade routes around the Red Sea and Cape of Good Horn.

Military

The Italian army was lesser in strength compared to other European powers and a large portion relied on artillery and cannons. Rapid technological advancements were made during these times and modern warfare tactics were adopted. There were constant tries to establish Italy as a superior military power but these failed.

Political Situation

A few years ago, Italy had finally finished the reunification process and the government formed a monarchy. This transitional phase was looked at as a time of immense economic and social instability with the emergence of several political parties with differing ideologies. This point in time also saw the rise of gangsters and the Italian mafia. The political rivalry was primarily between the Liberals and the Conservatives.

Economy

The country's economy was transitioning from primarily agrarian to increasingly industrialised, and acquiring colonies in Africa was seen as a means to access new markets for Italian industrial goods and to acquire valuable natural resources. Italy's participation in the conference reflected its economic ambitions and desire to compete with other European powers for colonial dominance. However, Italy's colonial ventures faced economic challenges, including limited territorial gains compared to other nations and difficulties in extracting resources efficiently.

Netherlands

The Netherlands, unlike other European powers, focused on trade at the Berlin Conference. They wanted to keep existing markets open (especially with Indonesia) and avoid conflicts that might disrupt their African business.

Objectives

1. Expand and strengthen control over colonial possessions, particularly the Dutch East Indies.
2. Ensure continued access to valuable resources such as spices, tea, coffee, and rubber. Consolidate political control and economic exploitation of territories under Dutch rule.
3. Maintain status as a colonial power amidst global competition for territories and resources.

Military

The Dutch had one of the best navy's and could command their naval forces extremely well and had advanced naval technology. The Dutch military was mainly trained for defence due to their geographical situation which makes them prone to attacks. Their army was smaller than other powers like Britain.

Political Situation

Overall, the country was stable and led by King William III but like every other European power there was a debate between Liberals and Conservatives. This was the time when the Dutch had colonial possessions in Indonesia and wanted to expand its empire into Africa.

Economy

The Dutch economy experienced significant growth driven by industrialization and trade expansion. The country's strategic location facilitated robust international commerce, particularly in shipping, textiles, and colonial goods. Industrialization spurred the development of manufacturing sectors such as shipbuilding, metallurgy, and chemicals. Agriculture remained vital, with innovations in farming techniques contributing to increased productivity. The Dutch East Indies (modern-day Indonesia) served as a valuable colonial possession, providing resources and market opportunities. The Dutch prioritized their existing economic ties in Africa. Their trade networks, particularly with their colony of Indonesia, relied heavily on African resources. The conference's focus on regulating trade offered the Netherlands an opportunity to secure continued access to these markets.

Portugal

Portugal also took part in the Berlin Conference. While not a major player in the conference, Portugal sought to protect its existing colonies and expand its economic influence through colonial expansion.

Objectives

1. Secure recognition of Portugal's existing African colonies like Angola and Mozambique.
2. Expand their territorial control by claiming the resource-rich Congo basin.
3. Connect their west and east African holdings through control of the Congo River.
4. Legitimise their colonial claims on the international stage.

Military

Portugal had several colonial possessions in Africa but the majority of their resources was spent in maintaining the security of these territories. They had to regularly suppress local revolts in these regions and face conflicts with the indigenous people. They had a shortage of military might and resources compared to other European powers such as Britain or France.

Political Situation

The Regeneration Party was in power in Portugal and its leader was Fontes Pereira de Melo. Most of the power rested with the King and there was unrest because of the economic

stagnation and poor economic growth further the workers were protesting about the lack of workers' rights and the country had limited resources and faced economic challenges.

Economy

Portugal's economy faced challenges stemming from its reliance on traditional agriculture and declining colonial power. The country struggled with financial instability exacerbated by mounting public debt and limited industrial development. Portuguese industries lagged behind those of other European nations, hampering economic diversification. Colonial possessions, notably in Africa and Asia, provided resources but yielded limited economic benefits due to inefficient administration and competition from other colonial powers. Economic reforms aimed to modernize infrastructure and stimulate industry, but progress was slow. Portugal was primarily concerned with safeguarding its colonial interests, particularly in Africa and Brazil.

Russia

Russia participated in the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 with the primary objective of protecting its interests in Eastern Europe and the Balkans, rather than pursuing colonial ambitions in Africa. Russia sought to maintain stability in the region and to counterbalance the power of its European rivals. At the time of the Conference, Russia did not have significant territorial claims in Africa.

Objectives

1. To protect its interests in Eastern Europe and the Balkans.
2. To consolidate its control over territories in Eastern Europe, including Poland, Ukraine, and the Baltic states, and expand its influence in the Balkans.
3. To secure access to warm-water ports in the Mediterranean and Black Seas.
4. To ensure that the outcomes of the Conference did not threaten its strategic position in Europe.

Military

Russia possessed one of the largest and most powerful military forces in the world. The Russian Armed Forces, consisting of the Imperial Russian Army, Navy, and later the Imperial Russian Air Service, was formidable and heavily centralised under the autocratic rule of Tsar Alexander III. The Russian military was characterised by its vast size, large reserves, and traditional reliance on infantry formations. However, it faced challenges such as technological backwardness, inadequate infrastructure, and organizational inefficiencies compared to Western European powers.

Political Situation

Russia was an autocratic monarchy ruled by the Romanov dynasty, with Tsar Alexander III ascending to the throne in 1881 following the assassination of his father, Alexander II. The reign of Alexander III was marked by a conservative and repressive regime that sought to maintain control over the vast and diverse Russian Empire. The tsar implemented policies of

Russification to suppress national minorities and centralize power, while also pursuing industrialisation and modernisation efforts to strengthen the economy and military.

Economy

Russia was undergoing a period of rapid industrialisation and urbanisation, albeit lagging behind Western European countries. The government promoted state-led industrialisation projects, expansion of the railway network, and investment in heavy industries such as coal, steel, and textiles. However, Russia's economy remained heavily dependent on agriculture, with the majority of the population living in rural areas and working as peasants on large estates owned by the nobility.

Sweden-Norway

Sweden-Norway, as a union of two separate kingdoms under one monarch, took part in the Berlin Conference. The union maintained diplomatic relations with major European powers and closely followed the outcomes of the conference, particularly regarding issues related to international trade and maritime navigation.

Objectives

1. To protect its economic interests and promote neutrality.
2. To maintain stability in the Baltic region.
3. To secure favourable trade agreements, access to international markets, and peaceful relations with neighbouring countries.

Military

Sweden-Norway maintained separate military forces for each kingdom, although they were united under a common monarch. The Swedish Armed Forces and the Norwegian Armed Forces were relatively small compared to the major European powers, but they were well-trained and equipped for defensive purposes. Both Sweden and Norway focused on maintaining neutrality and a strong national defence, with limited military engagements outside their respective borders.

Political Situation

Sweden-Norway was governed by a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary system. The union was formed in 1814 following the Napoleonic Wars, with Sweden and Norway united under the Swedish monarch. However, each kingdom retained its parliament and government, leading to some degree of autonomy and self-governance. The political landscape was characterised by debates over issues such as national identity, autonomy, and foreign policy alignment.

Economy

Sweden-Norway experienced significant industrialisation and economic growth during the late 19th century. Both kingdoms were known for their natural resources, including timber, iron ore, and hydroelectric power, which fuelled industrial development and exports. The union promoted free trade and economic liberalisation, leading to the emergence of a

prosperous middle class and the expansion of urban centres such as Stockholm and Christiania (modern-day Oslo).

Turkey (Ottoman Empire)

The mighty Ottoman Empire was a power to be reckoned with. They were known for their strength and military tactics.

Objectives

1. They were leaders of the Muslim world so needed to protect Muslims in Africa.
2. Stop European powers from establishing colonial possessions in Africa.
3. Control over Trade routes especially the Suez Canal.

Military

The Ottomans were known for their fast guerilla warfare in which a small cavalry used to keep attacking at a few intervals and caused several of their opponents ' soldiers dead. These were called Bashi-Bazouks. The Army was only a fraction of the size it once was and did not have the military strength that it once possessed. They were adapted and experts in guerilla warfare due to Turkey's geography.

Political Situation

The Ottoman Empire was in decline, it had fought massive wars and been defeated which caused a lot of questions and doubts in the Ottoman Court. Further, there was also poor economic growth and there were financial strains with the Ottoman Army and other European powers were challenging their territories in the Balkans.

Economy

The Ottoman Empire was experiencing economic decline known as the "Sick Man of Europe" syndrome. The Empire, once a major economic power, faced challenges such as corruption, inefficiency, and mounting debt. While not a participant in the conference, the Ottoman Empire's economic struggles influenced the partitioning of territories in Africa, as European powers sought to exploit weakened Ottoman control over its North African territories.

AFRICAN POLITICS

The Zulu Kingdom

A period of rapid extension and solidification was experienced by the Zulu Realm during the mid-19th century when it was ruled by Shaka Zulu. Shaka established a powerful military force renowned for its ruthless warriors and cunning tactics by bringing various families and regions under his political upheavals and conquests. This culminated in the Old English Zulu Battle of 1879, a great conflict that demonstrated the military prowess of the Zulus as well as the ascendancy of the English in the service. An important turning point in the history of European colonization in southern Africa was reached when the Zulu Realm was lost and its previous expansion by the English sphere. These events prepared the Zulu Realm to collaborate on the wider transnational developments that led to the Berlin Conference of 1884-1885 wherein European powers consolidated and divided their African pilgrimage claims.

Military

The Zulu Kingdoms military was primarily well organized effective and displayed highly developed tactics and armaments. An organization with a hierarchical chain of command and a group of senior service advisors known as indunas who helped with cooperation and strategic planning were led by a monarch such as King Shaka Zulu or later King Cetshwayo kaMpande. The military organization in the area was composed of impi or paratroopers who were divided into companies and brigades. Soldiers advanced according to age groups. For impi paratroopers training emphasized weapon proficiency physical fitness and teamwork. Zulu dogfaces were rewarded for bravery and acknowledged for their fierce obedience to commands discipline devotion and observance of behaviour standards. In addition to traditional weapons like shields and the iklwa stabbing spear Zulu dogfaces also used European firearms that they had acquired via trade or conflict. The service demonstrated its capacity to initiate offensive operations utilizing swift unforeseen assaults and collaboration among airborne soldiers. Ambush strategies counteroffensives and fortifications were examples of defensive tactics.

Political Situation and Structure

In order to resolve internal political issues and succession conflicts the Zulu Kingdom entered into partnerships and agreements with European traders as well as neighbouring African kingdoms. In an effort to preserve Zulu independence resistance movements and military action were sparked by the European incursion which also raised tensions. The political organisation of the Zulus is rather fascinating. The Zulu have a monarch who commands respect over a large number of people who live under the immediate authority of their AMAKHOSI ('chiefs'). AMAKHOSI pay respect to the king through attending the House of Traditional Leaders and mobilize support for any festivities organized by the king. The 'chiefs' have sub-divisions (IZIGODI) within the chiefdoms, which are looked after by headmen (IZINDUNA).

Economy

Before the mid-nineteenth century, the Zulu depended entirely upon horticulture and raising livestock. Their staple crop was maize, while cattle, goats and fowls were their most cherished livestock. A dual economy of subsistent horticulture and market economy was characteristic of the late nineteenth century. The Zulu people's main economic activities have traditionally been horticulture and tending to cattle and goats. The hoe is their main industrial implement. The grinding stone was also an important element in the house. However, its significance is fading. Historically, they also engaged in hunting as well. That is why they make IZAGILA (knobkerries or assegais) and IMIKHONTO (spears) of tremendous variety and artistic sophistication. Both of these were also used in warfare. Sticks and knobkerries were also used in combat competitions organized as part of ceremonial dances. Women made a range of pottery goods.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Ukhahlamba** - Known widely as the Drakensberg Mountains, this area forms a natural hedge between KwaZulu Natal and Lesotho. The rugged terrain and high peaks made it delicate for European settlers to access and establish endless agreements.
- **Thukela River Valley** - The Thukela River flows from the Drakensberg Mountains to the Indian Ocean. The vale formed by the Thukela River served as an important agrarian region for the Zulu Kingdom, known for its rich soils and irrigation systems. It was a crucial area for sludge civilisation and supported significant populations.
- **Phongolo Basin** - Located in northeastern KwaZulu Natal, the Phongolo Basin is a low-lying area with a network of gutters and washes. It was another important agrarian region for the Zulu people, with a focus on crop civilization and fishing in the gutters and lakes.
- **Natal Midlands** - This region is characterized by its rolling hills, champaigns, and timbers. It was home to different wildlife and handed coffers for stalking and gathering, as well as some agrarian conditioning. The Natal Midlands were less densely peopled compared to other corridors of the Zulu Kingdom but were still important for the overall frugality and ecology of the region.



Figure 6 Map showing Zulu Territory circa 1884

The Ashanti Kingdom

As the Ashanti Kingdom expanded uniting the Akan lands and establishing a centralized monarchy, it was led by King Osei Tutu I who had visionary leadership. The group became the dominant force in the area during this time and the 18th and early 19th centuries were characterized as a Golden Age of content trade and artistic development. With the aid of the military Lord Opoku, Osei Tutu I's successor, expanded the territory adding new residences and instituting tribute systems while reserving territories during this Golden Age of Ashanti.

Military

Commanders in Chief or Asanthe had their decisions carried out by the Okyame, a military council composed of experienced generals. This council guaranteed competent leadership and offered strategy recommendations. The Asafo companies a community formed by clans and led by captains made up the resting units of the Ashanti army. Rigid training was coupled with fighting shooting and political aspirations as legionnaires rose through the ranks according to an age-based system. Absolute authority was held by the Asantehene who held prominent positions in politics religion and the armed forces and whose opinions shaped laws policies and social interactions. Important political advisors like the Council of State and the Council of Elders provided counsel to the Asantehene. The Ashanti Empire managed native relations with other governments and tribes diplomatically by forming alliances and engaging in trade inside its boundaries. Ashanti lords used political scheming to consolidate their position of authority, mend divisions and promote peace. They combined their political and economic clout through wars of expansion, integrated newly acquired lands, expanded their number of dwellings and cemented their dominance through tribute systems. Social schemes like forced labour, annexation and commercial monopolies tested Ashanti autonomy and artistic integrity and gave rise to political opponents and opposition movements. Military engagements especially the Anglo Ashanti Wars were sparked by territorial conflicts and social motivations that demonstrated the Ashanti's military might and alliances to defend sovereignty. The north saw an increase in demand to draw territorial boundaries and ethnic alliances during the turmoil in Europe. Tensions over labour practices and property ownership resulted from European attempts to gain access to the agricultural fund both abroad and in the Volta River Basin.

Political Situation and Structure

Throughout the later years of the Ashanti Empire, there were also disputes with European powers particularly the Dutch which resulted in wars between the Ashanti and the Dutch over control of trade and the Gold Coast. Trade regulations caused the First Anglo Ashanti War (1824-1831) Second Anglo Ashanti War (1863-1864) and Third Anglo Ashanti War (1873-1874) to break out.

The Ashanti state was a centralized state made up of a hierarchy of heads starting from the "Abusua Panyin" who was head of a family or lineage. The family was the basic political unit in the empire. The family or lineage followed the village organization which was headed by the Odikro. All villages were then grouped together to form divisions headed by a divisional head called Ohene. The various divisions were politically grouped to form a state which was headed by an Omanhene or Amanhene. Finally, all Ashanti states formed the Ashanti Empire with the Asantehene as their king. The Ashanti government was built upon a sophisticated

bureaucracy in Kumasi, with separate ministries to handle the state's affairs. Of particular note was Ashanti's Foreign Office based in Kumasi; despite its small size, it allowed the state to pursue complex negotiations with foreign powers. The Office was divided into departments to handle relations separately with the British, French, Dutch, and Arabs.

Economy

The Economy of the Ashanti Empire was largely a pre-industrial and agrarian economy. The Ashanti established different procedures for mobilizing state revenue and utilizing public finance. Ashanti trade extended upon two main trade routes; one at the North and the other at the South. The Northern trade route was dominated by the trade in Kola nuts and at the South, the Ashanti engaged in the Atlantic Slave Trade. The Ashanti originally farmed in subsistence until agriculture became extensive during the 19th century. The collection of revenue was decentralized. All Paramount Chiefs and Sub-Chiefs possessed a local treasury in their jurisdiction which was managed under the auspices of the Sanaahene, the Royal Treasurer. It was the local treasury that the chiefs contained their revenue into. Death dues were paid by the family of the deceased. It was common for the Ashanti government to settle war captives with craft skills in such villages. The village of Bonwire was specialized in cloth-weaving. Ntonso was specialized in cloth-dyeing, Pankrono in pottery, Ahwiaa in wood working, Breman and Adum in goldsmithing and metalworking. All these villages and settlement were located 15 miles of Kumasi. Blacksmiths, joinery and pottery makers were located throughout the empire. Individuals along with children partook in gold panning and shaft mining while slaves formed the major labour force on gold mines.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Central Ashanti Region** - This region was the heartland of the Ashanti Empire, with its capital at Kumasi. It was the most densely peopled and politically significant area, where the Asantehene and the Ashanti quality held sway. Europeans, particularly the British, were limited to littoral trading posts and did not access deeply into the central regions of Ashanti home.
- **Northern Ashanti Region** - The northern corridor of the Ashanti Empire, including areas around the Black Volta River, were not directly settled by Europeans. These regions were characterized by savannah and woodland geographies, and they were important for trade routes and agrarian product. The Ashanti maintained control over these areas and defied European encroachment.
- **Eastern Ashanti Region** - Areas to the east of the central Ashanti region, similar as the Akwapim Togo ranges and the Volta Basin, were also part of the Ashanti Empire. These areas were agriculturally productive and contributed to the wealth and power of the conglomerate.
- **Western Ashanti Region** - The western corridor of the Ashanti Empire, including areas around the Pra River and the Akan Lowlands, were not directly settled by Europeans. These areas were important for trade, particularly in gold, which was a major source of wealth for both the Ashanti Empire and European dealers along the seacoast.
- **Southern Ashanti Region** - The southern regions of the Ashanti Empire, including areas around the Gulf of Guinea, remained largely under Ashanti control.

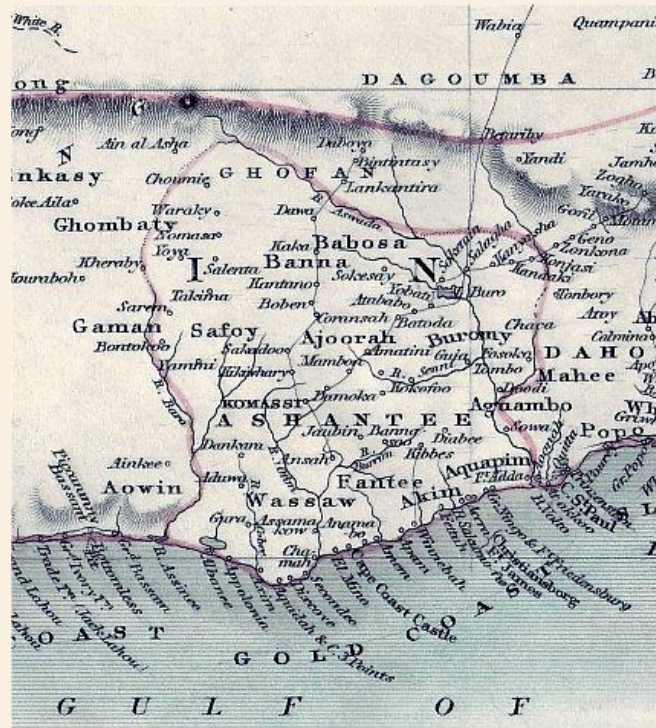


Figure 7 Map showing Ashanti Territory

The Kingdom of Buganda

Situated in contemporary Uganda, the Kingdom of Buganda boasts a multifaceted past shaped by political, artistic, and social factors. Buganda, which was founded in the fourteenth century, became a centralized region ruled by a powerful monarchy. Its growth was driven by the alliance's military might and lucrative resources derived from trade and husbandry. Due to Buganda's struggles with Islam and Christianity, Arab traders, Swahili coastal relations, and more recently European missionaries altered religious and social norms. Political instability occasionally resulted from internal power struggles and racial disputes which harmed Buganda's unity and relations with the outside world. By granting legitimacy to social claims in Africa, the Berlin Conference had a direct impact on Buganda through increased European presence, profitable exploitation, and artistic metamorphoses. Under the leadership of Kabaka Mwanga II, Buganda managed to maintain its independence from colonizers while adapting to modernization efforts and political manoeuvres.

Military

The history and relationships of the Kingdom of Buganda with its neighbours and outside powers were significantly influenced by its military configuration. Important officials such as the Katikkiro (high minister), Ndugwa (commander-in-chief), and Amagombolola (indigenous commanders) were part of Buganda's military leadership, which was commanded by the Kabaka (king). These leaders were in charge of recruiting, educating, and using the Blacks, which formed a disciplined and well-organized force. The Abajulizi (common dogfaces) and Abasamize (royal guards) were the self-proclaimed soldiers who made up Buganda's armed forces. These soldiers, reflecting the social structure of Buganda, were arranged into paratroopers based on indigenous divisions and clan confederations. They received training in conventional fighting techniques such as throwing shafts, archery, fighting hands-on, and

pushes appropriate for flashy battle scenes. In addition, Buganda warriors carried a variety of customary weapons including throwing shanks brands curvatures and arrows pikestaffs and securities. In order to increase their military power and political adaptability they also incorporated European weapons that they had acquired through trade such as muskets and rifles.

Buganda's service engaged in protective and offensive conquests to cover Buganda home, expand influence, and assert dominance over bordering chiefdoms and fiefdoms. This military conduct included border details, surveillance operations, ambushes, sieges, and pitched battles against external pitfalls and rival coalitions. Buganda's alliances with neighbouring countries like Bunyoro and Toro were significant, impacting indigenous power dynamics and politic relations. These alliances aimed to secure trade routes, coffers, and strategic advantages while inhibiting implicit pitfalls and maintaining Buganda's territorial integrity.

Political Situation and Structure

The Kingdom of Buganda's political situation in relation to European colonization was multifaceted. Buganda leaders negotiated covenants and protectorate agreements with European powers, especially the British Empire, standardizing political relations and social influence. Buganda strategically formed alliances with bordering fiefdoms similar as Bunyoro and Toro, as well as with European powers like the British. These alliances were pivotal in impacting Buganda's internal politics and political strategies. Buganda's external alliances were frequently political pushes aimed at strengthening its position and securing against external pitfalls, thereby shaping the area's political geography and indigenous relations. In terms of territorial annexation by European powers, Buganda saw the establishment of littoral trading posts and castles along the East African seacoast by European powers, particularly the British. These posts, similar as Fort Jesus, Fort William (Mombasa), and Fort Jesus (Lamu), eased trade and nonmilitary control, impacting Buganda's trade routes and maritime conditioning. likewise, European annexation sweets targeted strategic homes within Buganda, including crucial trade routes along Lake Victoria and the Nile River.

Buganda was an absolute monarchy. Under the Kabaka, there were three types of chiefs: bakungu (administrative) chiefs, who were appointed directly by the Kabaka; traditional bataka chieftains; and batongole chiefs, who served as representatives of the Kabaka, charged with "maintaining internal security, supervising royal estates and military duties".

Economy

The economy of the Kingdom of Buganda in central Uganda before colonization was primarily agricultural. The kingdom also traded ivory, slaves, and animal hides with the east coast of Africa. The kingdom used a variety of currencies, including barkcloth, beads, and ivory discs. In the early 19th century, coastal traders introduced cowrie shells. The kingdom had a strong bureaucracy and hierarchical governance structure, with the king at the top and the village chief at the bottom. The chief collected tribute from his subjects, provided tribute to the Kabaka, distributed resources, and maintained order.

Regions free of colonial control

The Sokoto Caliphate

The Sokoto Caliphate, was formed in 1804 by Usman dan Fodio, had a strong military association vital to its expansion and governance. Under dan Fodio's leadership, the Caliphate's followers, known as Fulani jihadists or Fulani Warlords, launched successful military conquests that expanded the Caliphate's homes across northern Nigeria, including crucial metropolises like Kano and Katsina. This subjection helped consolidate political and religious authority under the Caliphate's rule.

Culturally and intellectually, the Sokoto Caliphate was a centre of Islamic literacy and cultural achievements. Scholars produced workshop on theology, justice, history, and literature, while artistic exchanges amended the caliphate's heritage.

Military

The military structure of the Sokoto Caliphate was largely systematized and centralized, with the Sultan (Caliph) serving as the supreme commander. Under him were Emirs, responsible for leading natives in their separate regions, along with appointed commanders and officers. The caliphate's military forces comprised cavalry, army, and ordnance units, supported by professed hunters and spearmen. Reclamation drew from African ethnic groups like the Hausa, Fulani, Tuareg, and others, reflecting the caliphate's different composition and alliances. Training concentrated on horsemanship, archery, swordsmanship, and tactics suitable for desert warfare and guerilla engagements. Discipline and fidelity were executed through strict canons of conduct and religious training. Munitions ranged from traditional brands, pikestaves, and curvatures to arms acquired through trade and warfare, including European muskets and rifles. This integration enhanced the caliphate's military capabilities and strategic inflexibility. Strategic alliances were pivotal, with the caliphate forging relations with bordering Muslim countries, Fulani pastoralists, and African ethnic groups. This bolstered its military strength and influence across West Africa.

Political Situation and Structure

The Sokoto state was largely organized around a number of largely independent emirates pledging allegiance to the Sultan of Sokoto. Emirs were appointed by the sultan; they travelled yearly to pledge allegiance and deliver taxes in the form of crops, cowry shells, and slaves. When a sultan died or retired from the office, an appointment council made up of the emirs would select a replacement. The caliphate absorbed many of the structures of governments of their Hausa predecessors which they had conquered. It ruled under Islamic law with powers falling to the emirates which made up the caliphate. There were multiple crises that arose during the 19th century between the Sokoto Sultanate and many of the subservient emirates: notably, the Adamawa Emirate and the Kano Emirate.

Economy

They had significant trade over the trans-Saharan routes. After the Fulani War, all land in the empire was declared waqf or owned by the entire community. However, the Sultan allocated land to individuals or families, as could an emir. Such land could be inherited by family members but could not be sold. Exchange was based largely on slaves, cowries or gold. Major crops produced included cotton, indigo, kola and shea nuts, grain, rice, tobacco, and onion. Slavery remained a large part of the economy, although its operation had changed with

the end of the Atlantic slave trade. Slaves were gained through raiding and via markets as had operated earlier in West Africa. The founder of the Caliphate allowed slavery only for non-Muslims; slavery was viewed as a process to bring such peoples into the Muslim community. At least half of the Caliphate's population was enslaved in the 19th century.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Northern Nigeria** - The core homes of the Sokoto Caliphate, located in what's now northern Nigeria, remained largely independent from European colonization. These areas were under the direct administration of the caliphate's autocrats and weren't directly enthralled by European powers.
- **Sokoto City** - The capital of the Sokoto Caliphate, Sokoto City, was a major political and artistic centre. It remained under the control of the caliphate's leadership and was not taken over by European social forces.
- **Katsina** - Another important megacity within the Sokoto Caliphate, Katsina, retained its independence from European colonization. It was a significant trading mecca and political centre within the caliphate.
- **Kano** - While corridor of the region around Kano had come under circular influence or control of European powers through trade and tactfulness, the megacity of Kano itself remained part of the Sokoto Caliphate and was not directly settled.

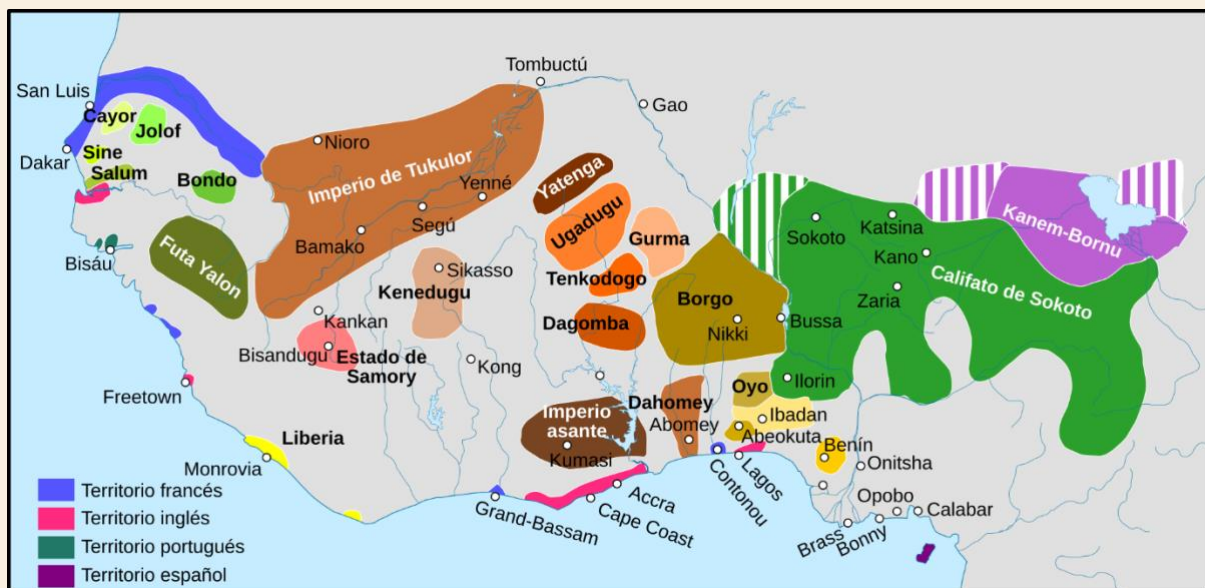


Figure 9 Map showing the various Emirates under the Sokoto Caliphate circa 1875

Ndebele Kingdom

In the late 1830s, Mzilikazi Khumalo, led a group of Nguni and other ethnic groups from present-day South Africa into the Rozvi Empire of the Bakalanga. Many of the Bakalanga people were incorporated to create a large state called Ndebele Kingdom. Mzilikazi, a former general under Shaka, organised this ethnically diverse nation into a militaristic system of regimental towns and established his capital at Bulawayo ("the place of killing"). Mzilikazi was a statesman of considerable stature, able to weld the many conquered tribes into a strong, centralised kingdom.

Military

The Ndebele Kingdom boasted a well-organized military structure led by King Mzilikazi and later King Lobengula. Their military comprised of paratroopers known as impi, commanded by appointed leaders and supported by chastened soldiers. Soldiers passed rigorous training in combat chops, artillery, and strategic pushes, upholding strict discipline and fidelity to the king. They applied traditional munitions like pikestaffs, securities, and clubs, rounded by European arms acquired through trade, enhancing their military capabilities. Ndebele military tactics were characterized by innovative strategies similar as guard conformations, ambushes, and bordering pushes, acclimatised to terrain and adversary strengths. These tactics, coupled with aggressive engagements, contributed to the area's success in military conquests, including conflicts with rival fiefdoms and bordering communities.

Political Situation and Structure

In 1852, the Boer government in the Transvaal made a treaty with Mzilikazi. Gold was discovered in northern Ndebele in 1867. The area, settled by the Zezuru people, remnants of the Mwenemutapa kingdom, while the European powers increasingly became interested in the region. Mzilikazi died on 9 September 1868, near Bulawayo. His son, Lobengula, succeeded him as king. After Mzilikazi died in September 1868, the succession of Lobengula was not accepted by Mangwane (one of Mzilikazi's older sons) and some of the izinduna (chiefs), and he succeeded to the throne only in 1870 after a period of serious civil war. Lobengula faced a rebellion in June 1870, and in 1872 he repelled an invasion by Mangwane and a pretender backed by the British authorities in the colony of Natal.

Economy

The precolonial Ndebele were a cattle-centred society, but they also kept goats. The most important crops, even today, are maize, sorghum, pumpkins, and at least three types of domesticated green vegetables (umroho). Since precolonial times, Ndebele are believed to have obtained all pottery from trading with Sotho-speaking neighbours. The Tshabangu clan reportedly introduced the Ndebele to blacksmithing. Ndebele formed part of the wider pre-nineteenth century trade industry on the African east coast and had been introduced to consumer goods such as tobacco, cloth, and glass beads. Land was tribal property; portions were allocated to individual families by the chief and headmen as custodians, under a system called ukulotjha, with the one-time payment of a fee that also implied allegiance to the political ruler of the area. Grazing land was entirely communal.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Matabeleland North and West** - These regions were primarily inhabited by the Ndebele people and were part of the core home of the Mthwakazi Kingdom. European penetration into these areas was limited, and the Ndebele maintained significant control over their land and coffers.
- **Matobo Hills** - This area is famed for its stunning geography and gemstone conformations. The Matobo Hills were a sacred area for the Ndebele, and they fiercely defended this home against European encroachment.
- **Gwanda Region** - Situated in southern Matabeleland, the inhabitants of the Gwanda region were the Ndebele people. The rugged terrain and the presence of the Ndebele

service made it challenging for European settlers to establish a strong base in this area.

- **Tuli Block** - While not directly part of Matabeleland, the Tuli Block in present-day Botswana borders Matabeleland to the south. This region was inhabited by African ethnic groups, including the Tswana people, and was not completely settled by Europeans. The Tuli Block served as a buffer zone between the Ndebele and the expanding British and Boer agreements.
- **Hwange Region** - Although not a political reality during that time, the Hwange area was inhabited by wildlife and some indigenous communities. It was not a target for European colonization due to its meagre population and lack of resources.

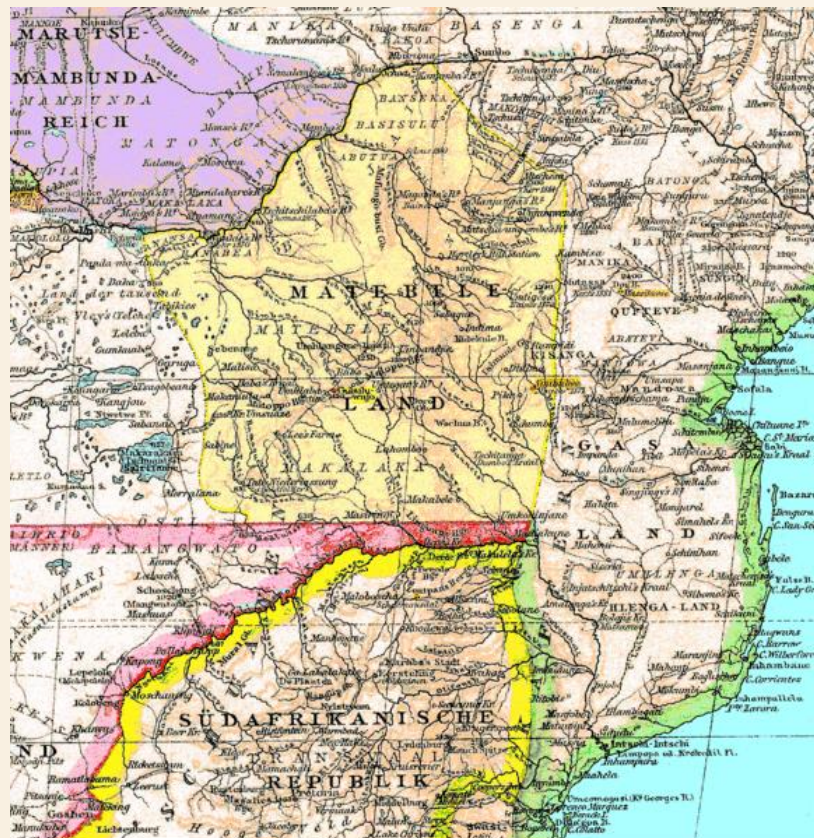


Figure 10 Map showing the region of Matabeleland

The Swazi Kingdom

The Swazi settlers, then known as the Ngwane (or bakaNgwane) before entering Eswatini, had been settled on the banks of the Pongola River. Before that, they were settled in the area of the Tembe River near present-day Maputo, Mozambique. Continuing conflict with the Ndwandwe people pushed them further north, with Ngwane III establishing his capital at Shiselweni at the foot of the Mhlosheni hills. Under Sobhuza I, the Ngwane people established their capital at Zombodze in the heartland of present-day Eswatini. In this process, they conquered and incorporated the long-established clans of the country known to the Swazi as Emakhandzambili (those found ahead). The Emakhandzambili clans were initially incorporated into the kingdom with wide autonomy, often including grants of special ritual and political status. The extent of their autonomy, however, was drastically curtailed by

Mswati, who attacked and subdued some of them in the 1850s. This region was known as Swaziland.

Military

The army, organised into a number of regiments was the co-ordinating basis in Swazi society; it includes in a life-long bond all adult males in the country and regulates their activities. The regimental system is developed on the physiological factor of age, which cuts across local boundaries and breaks down barriers of kinship isolation. Physiological maturity is not even necessary for entrance into a regiment, but it determines the type of work and the degree of active participation in tribal affairs. Royal contingents of regiments are stationed at the two largest royal villages and at outposts, or king's villages, established by the ruling king. The staff controlling the military organisation show the qualities demanded of its leaders and the extend to which rank and kinship operate in the choice of officials. At the head of all the regiments throughout the country is an 'induna yemabutvo', commander-in-chief of the regiments, who is publicly appointed by the king. He must lead the army in any national expedition. The smallest unit peculiar to the military organisation is the squad (isiceme), a group of eight to twenty boys.

Political Situation and Structure

The autonomy of the Swazi nation was influenced by British and Dutch rule of southern Africa in the 19th and early 20th centuries. In 1881, the British government signed a convention recognising Swazi independence, despite the Scramble for Africa that was taking place at the time. This independence was also recognised in the London Convention of 1884. Swaziland comprises of a number of small villages, grouped within local divisions each of which is under a chief appointed or recognised by the king. The village of the local chief is the largest in his area, comprising from twenty to fifty inhabitants. The Swazi king has special ritual strength, the greatest army at his disposal, he is the supreme judge and the wealthiest man in the nation.

Economy

The economy was largely an agrarian one with emphasis on animal husbandry and mining. There was a notable presence of hunter-gatherer tribes. During the reign of Mswati II (1840-1868), an increasing number of white settlers from Natal and the Transvaal successfully sought winter grazing rights from the king. The seeking of winter grazing rights by the white settlers intensified during the brief reign of Ludvonga, who succeeded Mswati II. Mbandzeni, who acceded to the throne in 1875, pawned away the land and mineral rights by granting concessions to the whites.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Ngwane Kingdom (the Core of Eswatini)** - Europeans had not laboriously settled the Ngwane Kingdom, which is the core of what would ultimately come Eswatini. The Swazi people, who lived in this area generally, were governed by a monarchy headed by a King. Until the late 19th century, Europeans had little to no connection in this central region.
- **Eastern borders** - European colonialism largely avoided the eastern borders of what's now Eswatini. Compared to other regions of Africa, these places were consistently

less explored and negative to European emigrants, which redounded in less direct intervention.



Figure 11 Map showing Swaziland territory

The Kanem-Bornu Empire

Renowned as one of the most powerful empires of Western Africa with Ghana, Mali, and Songhai, Kanem-Bornu (Kanem-Borno) is often cited as an archetypal example of an ancient African pre-colonial kingdom. Kanem was located at the southern end of the trans-Saharan trade route between Tripoli and the region of Lake Chad. Besides its urban elite, it also included a confederation of nomadic peoples who spoke languages of the Teda–Daza group, the Toubou people. The first historical sources tend to show that the kingdom of Kanem began forming around 700 under the nomadic Tebu-speaking Kanembu. The Kanembu were supposedly forced southwest towards the fertile lands around Lake Chad by political pressure and desiccation in their former range. The area already possessed independent, walled city-states belonging to the Sao civilisation. Under the leadership of the Duguwa dynasty, the Kanembu would eventually dominate the Sao, but not before adopting many of their customs.

Military

Dabbalemi devised a system to reward military commanders with authority over the people they conquered. This system, however, tempted military officers to pass their positions to their sons, thus transforming the office from one based on achievement and loyalty to the mai

into one based on hereditary nobility. Aluma (also spelled Aloomaa) is remembered for his military skills, administrative reforms, and Islamic piety. His main adversaries were the Hausa to the west, the Tuareg and Toubou to the north, and the Bulala to the east. His innovations included the employment of fixed military camps (with walls); permanent sieges and "scorched earth" tactics, where soldiers burned everything in their path; armored horses and riders; and the use of Berber camelry, Kotoko boatmen, and iron-helmeted musketeers trained by Turkish military advisers.

Political Situation and Structure

By the early 19th century, Kanem–Bornu was clearly an empire in decline, and in 1808 Fulani warriors conquered Ngazargamu. Usman dan Fodio led the Fulani thrust and proclaimed a jihad (holy war) on the irreligious Muslims of the area. His campaign eventually affected Kanem–Bornu and inspired a trend toward Islamic orthodoxy. Muhammad al-Amin al-Kanemi, who was of mixed Kanuri and Shuwa Arab heritage from Fezzan contested the Fulani incursions into Bornu. Al-Kanemi was a Muslim scholar who had put together an alliance of mostly Shuwa Arabs, and Kanembu within the region. He eventually built in 1814 a capital at Kukawa (in present-day Nigeria). After the creation of his capital at Kukawa, Al-Kanemi quickly amassed a large following within Bornu and adopted the title of Shehu within Bornuan society and quickly supplanted the rule of the Mais who became figurehead monarchs. In the year of 1846, the last mai, in league with the Ouaddai Empire, precipitated a civil war, resulting in the death of Mai Ibrahim, the last mai. It was at that point that Kanemi's son, Umar, became Shehu, thus ending one of the longest dynastic reigns in international history. By then, Hausaland in the west, was lost to the Sokoto Caliphate, while the east and north were lost to the Wadai Empire. Although the dynasty ended, the kingdom of Kanem–Bornu survived. Umar eschewed the title mai for the simpler designation shehu (from the Arabic shaykh), could not match his father's vitality, and gradually allowed the kingdom to be ruled by advisers (wazirs).

The king was assisted in running the country by a council of senior state officials or the heads of state or the princes and its members from the ruling families and some courtiers. The Council's task was to discuss the state's political matters and approve the king's decisions. Although the system of government was absolute and hereditary, the Sultans used to hold this council known as the Ajaweed Council or the "Shura Council", which oversees the process of transferring power the new Sultan, upon the death of the ruling Sultan. The Sultan would also consult them in state matters at times of war and peace.

Economy

Government revenue came from tribute (or booty, if the recalcitrant people had to be conquered), sales of slaves, and duties on and participation in trans-Saharan trade. Unlike West Africa, the Chadian region did not have gold. Still, it was central to one of the most convenient trans-Saharan routes. Between Lake Chad and Fezzan lay a sequence of well-spaced wells and oases, and from Fezzan there were easy connections to North Africa and the Mediterranean Sea. Many products were sent north, including natron (sodium carbonate), cotton, kola nuts, ivory, ostrich feathers, perfume, wax, and hides. However, the most significant export of all were slaves. Imports included salt, horses, silks, glass, muskets, and copper.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Lake Chad Region** - The Kanem- Bornu Empire reckoned heavily on this region for commerce and political power. It includes portions of modern-day Chad, Cameroon, Nigeria, and Niger. The lake itself was strategically significant since it served as a centre for trade, husbandry, and fishing.
- **Borno City** - Situated in present-day Nigeria, Borno served as the capital of the Kanem- Bornu Empire in addition to being a prominent political and artistic hub. Despite European raids in neighbouring businesses, nevertheless it retained its autonomy and significance as home to the executive institutions and royal palace.
- **Kanem** - Kanem, the ancient core of the Kanem Empire, which is now situated in the Kanem area of Chad. It is a location of artistic significance.
- **Bornu Emirates** - The Bornu Emirates, which included metropolises like Kukawa, Ngazargamu, and Dikwa, were significant capitals of trade, literacy, and political influence.
- **Northern Trade Routes** - The remnants of the Kanem-Bornu Empire ruled over pivotal trade routes that linked sub-Saharan Africa and the Sahara Desert.

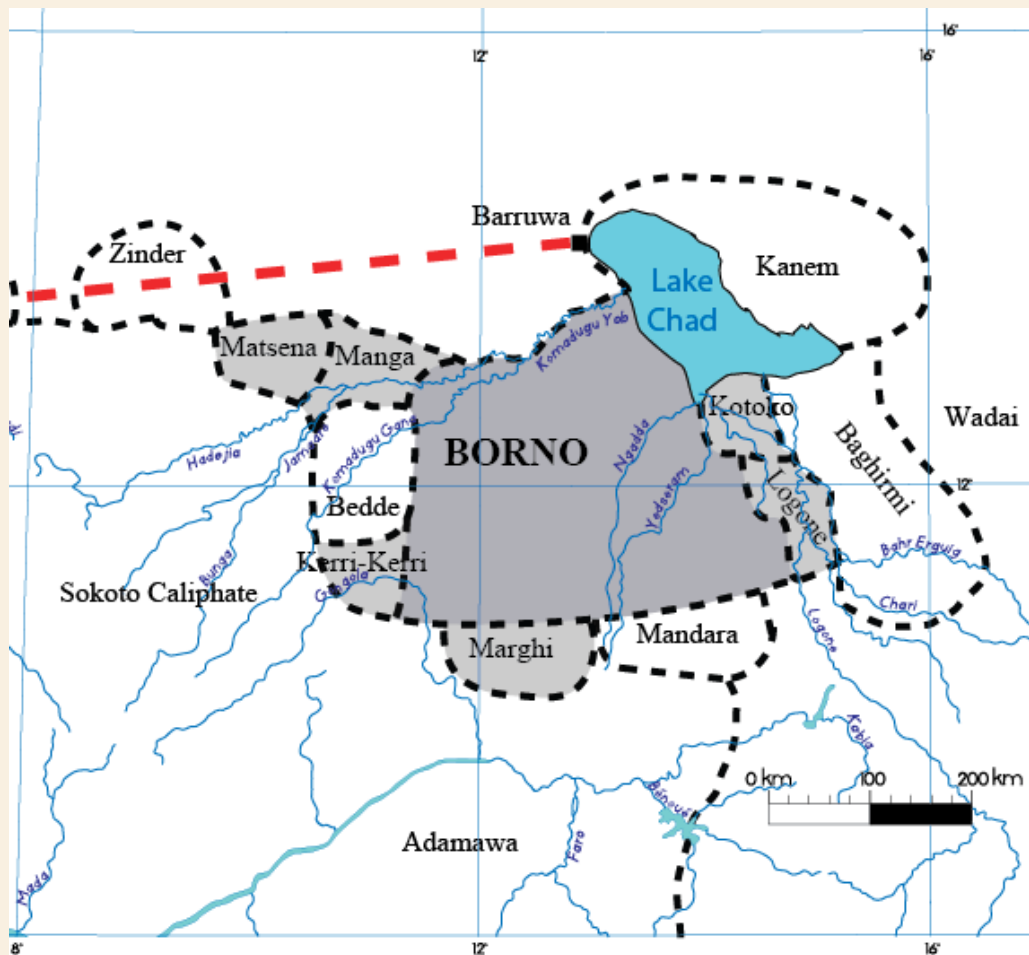


Figure 12 Map showing various modifications in the territory of the Kanem-Bornu Empire

The Oyo Empire

The Oyo Empire was a Yoruba empire in West Africa. It was located in present-day southern Benin and western Nigeria (including the South West zone and the western half of the North Central zone). The empire grew to become the largest Yoruba-speaking state through the organizational and administrative efforts of the Yoruba people, trade, as well as the military use of cavalry. The Yoruba of Oyo went through an interregnum of 80 years as an exiled dynasty after its defeat by the Nupe. They re-established Oyo to be more centralized and expansive than ever. The people created a government that established its power over a vast territory. During the 17th century, Oyo began a long stretch of growth, becoming a major empire.

Military

There was a high degree of professionalism in the army of the Oyo Empire. Its military success was due in large part to its cavalry as well as the leadership and courage of Oyo officers and warriors. There was also an entrenched military culture in Oyo where victory was obligatory and defeat carried the duty of committing suicide. This do-or-die policy no doubt contributed to the military aggressiveness of Oyo's generals. The Oyo Empire was one of the only Yoruba states to adopt cavalry; it did so because most of its territory was in the northern savannah.

The Oyo Empire, like many empires before it, used both local and tributary forces to expand its domains. Oyo maintained a semi-standing army of specialist cavalry soldiers called the Eso, the Esho or, formally, the Eso of Ikoyi. These were 70 junior war chiefs who were nominated by the Oyo Mesi and confirmed by the Alaafin of Oyo. The Eso were appointed for their military skill without regard to heritage, although de facto dynasties of Eso were also known to exist. The Eso were led by the Aare-Ona-Kakanfo, the supreme military commander. Forces inside metropolitan Oyo were commanded by the Bashorun, leading member of the Oyo Mesi. Tributary leaders and provincial governors were responsible for collecting tribute and contributing troops under control of local generals to the imperial army in times of emergency.

Political Situation and Structure

Oyo had grown into a formidable inland power by the end of the 14th century, but it suffered military defeats at the hands of the Nupe led by Tsoede. During the 17th century, Oyo began a long stretch of growth, becoming a major empire. It never encompassed all Yoruba-speaking people, but it was the most populous kingdom in Yoruba history. The key to Yoruba rebuilding Oyo was a stronger military and a more centralized government. In the second half of the 18th century, dynastic intrigues, palace coups, and failed military campaigns began to weaken the Oyo Empire. Recurrent power struggles and resulting periods of interregnum created a vacuum, in which the power of regional commanders rose. As Oyo tore itself apart via political intrigue, its vassals began taking advantage of the situation to press for independence. Some of them succeeded, and Oyo never regained its prominence in the region. It became a protectorate of Great Britain in 1888 before further fragmenting into warring factions.

The oba (meaning 'king' in the Yoruba language) at Oyo, who was referred to as the Alaafin of Oyo (Alaafin means 'owner of the palace' in Yoruba), was the head of the empire and

supreme overlord of the people. He was responsible for keeping tributaries safe from attack, settling internal quarrels between sub-rulers, and mediating between those sub-rulers and their people. The Alaafin of Oyo was also expected to give his subordinates honours and presents. In return, all sub-rulers had to pay homage to the Oba and renew their allegiance at annual ceremonies. The Basorun was a key political office in the Oyo (often likened to the role of the Prime Minister and Chancellor of the Kingdom) during the 16th to 18th centuries, controlled by Ibariba families. Serving as the head of the seven highest-ranking non-royal lords in the Oyo Mesi council, the Bashorun played a crucial role in advising the king and representing non-royal interests. Their power was substantial, especially in the selection of a new king. The Oyo Empire was not a purely hereditary monarchy, nor was it an absolute one. The Oyo Mesi selected the Alaafin. While the Alaafin of Oyo was the supreme overlord of the people, he was not without checks on his power. The Oyo Mesi and the Yoruba Earth cult known as Ogboni kept the Oba's power in check. The Oyo Mesi spoke for the politicians while the Ogboni spoke for the people and were backed by the power of religion.

Economy

Oyo became the southern emporium of the trans-Saharan trade. Exchanges were made in salt, leather, horses, kola nuts, ivory, cloth, and slaves. The Yoruba of metropolitan Oyo were also highly skilled in craft making and iron work. Aside from taxes on trade products coming in and out of the empire, Oyo also became wealthy off the taxes imposed on its tributaries. Oyo's imperial success made Yoruba a lingua franca almost to the shores of the Volta. Toward the end of the 18th century, the empire acted as a go-between for both the trans-Saharan and trans-Atlantic slave trade.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Northern Territories** - Territories in the North which stretched to the Niger River and the environs of Ilorin were less heavily settled compared to the south. At the time, European social intentions set up these homes less charming due to their semi-arid terrain and small population.
- **Eastern regions** - European colonisation remained substantially absent in the eastern borders of the Oyo Empire, which are located near to modern-day Benin and Togo. These regions were delicate for outside forces to insinuate and govern because they were home to numerous ethnical groups with unique sociopolitical systems.
- **Central Plateau** - The Oyo Empire's central table region, which included the environs of Ogbomosho and Oyo itself, was substantially independent and free from direct European influence. These regions defied European conquests because of their delicate terrain and the actuality of strong native leaders.
- **Western boundaries** - There were occasional exchanges between European dealers and missionaries and the western boundaries of the Oyo Empire, which were located near to the Dahomey Kingdom (modern-day Benin). However, these regions were not yet completely colonised.

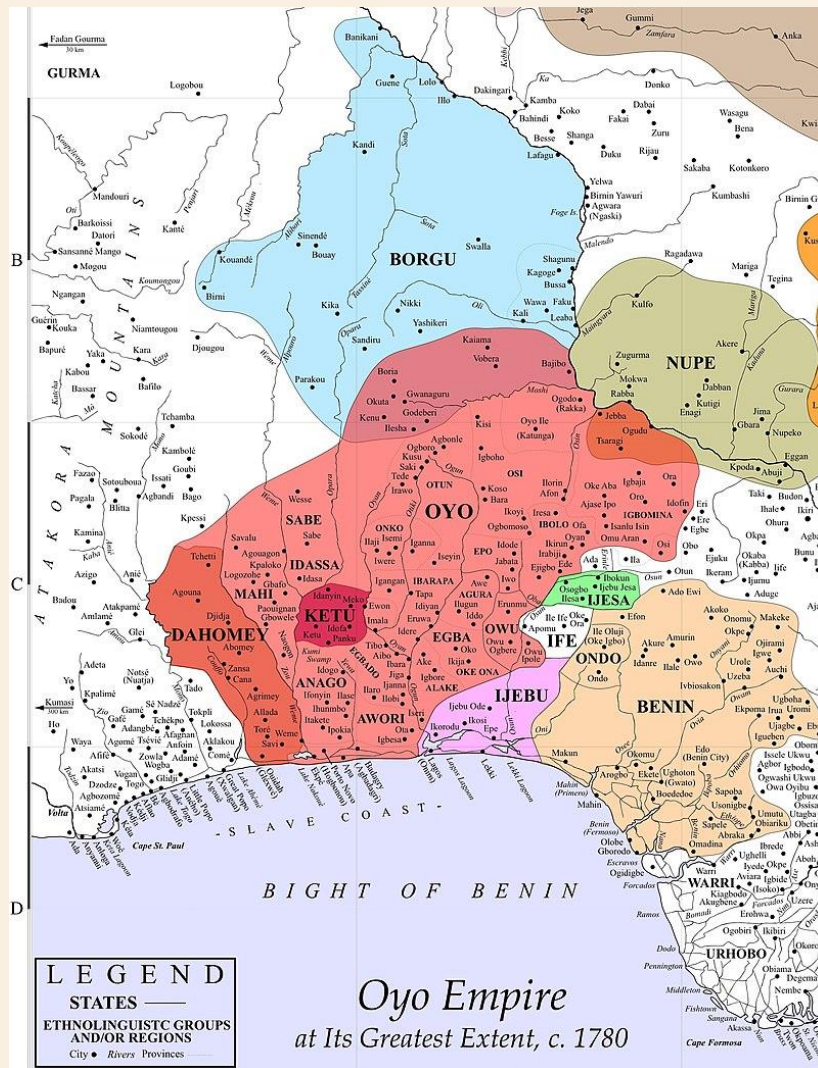


Figure 13 Map representing the territories of the Oyo Empire circa 1780

The Tuareg Confederation

The Tuareg Confederations or People are a large Berber ethnic group that principally inhabit the Sahara in a vast area stretching from far southwestern Libya to southern Algeria, Niger, Mali, and Burkina Faso. They are a semi-nomadic people who practice Islam, and are descended from the indigenous Berber communities of Northern Africa. Tuareg people are credited with the spreading of Islam in North Africa and the adjacent Sahel region. Tuareg society has traditionally featured clan membership, social status and caste hierarchies within each political confederation. The Tuareg have controlled several trans-Saharan trade routes and have been an important party to the conflicts in the Saharan region.

Military

The Tuareg People were divided into numerous small confederations. There was no unified military force and defence was the personal prerogative of each individual confederation. The traditional weapons of the Tuareg included double-edged swords, knives, spears, and leather shields. Their military tactics focused on guerrilla warfare and resorted to utilising their familiarity of the Sahara to their advantage.

Political Situation and Structure

At the turn of the 19th century, the Tuareg territory was organised into confederations, each ruled by a supreme Chief (Amenokal), along with a council of elders from each tribe. These confederations were sometimes called "Drum Groups" after the Amenokal's symbol of authority, a drum. Clan (Tewsit) elders, called Imegharan (wisemen), were chosen to assist the chief of the confederation. In the late 19th century, the Tuareg resisted the French colonial invasion of their Central Saharan homelands and annihilated a French expedition led by Paul Flatters in 1881.

Each Tuareg clan (tawshet) is made up of family groups constituting a tribe, each led by its chief, the amghar. A series of tawsheten (plural of tawshet) may bond together under an Amenokal, forming a Kel clan confederation. Tuareg self-identification is related only to their specific Kel, which means "those of". For example, Kel Dinnig (those of the east), Kel Ataram (those of the west). The position of amghar is hereditary through a matrilineal principle, it is usual for the son of a sister of the incumbent chieftain to succeed to his position. The amenokal is elected in a ritual which differs between groups, the individual amghar who lead the clans making up the confederation usually have the deciding voice. Tuareg society has featured caste hierarchies within each clan and political confederation. These hierarchical systems have included nobles, clerics, craftsmen and unfree strata of people including widespread slavery.

Economy

Nobles controlled the caravan trade, owned most camels, and remained more nomadic, coming into oases only to collect a proportion of the harvest from their client and servile peoples. Tributary groups raided and traded for nobles and also herded smaller livestock, such as goats, in usufruct relationships with nobles. Peoples of varying degrees of client and servile status performed domestic and herding labour for nobles. Smiths manufactured jewellery and household tools and performed praise songs for noble patron families, serving as important oral historians and political intermediaries. Most camel herding is still done by men; although women may inherit and own camels, they tend to own and herd more goats, sheep, and donkeys. Caravan trade is exclusively conducted by men. Clan members jointly owned designated grazing grounds by virtue of common descent from a founding ancestor who acquired the land through military conquest. Outsiders were excluded from grazing, hunting and collecting without the permission of clan leaders.

Regions free of colonial control

- **The Sahara Desert** - The Ténéré Desert, the Air Mountains (also known as the Tibesti Mountains), and the Adrar des Ifoghas were the core areas of the Tuareg Confederation. These dry regions and the Tuareg people's way of life made these sparsely inhabited areas hard for Europeans to conquer.
- **Azawad** - Historically, Tuareg lived in this area of what is now northern Mali. Large areas of semi-arid and desert land marked it.
- **Tassilin'Ajjer** - This southeast Algerian city is well-known for its ancient gemstone and décor. The Tuareg held out against the Europeans in this region.

- **Hoggar Mountains** - The Hoggar Mountains, in southern Algeria and are the habitat of the Tuareg populations. The rugged geography of this region made it historically difficult to colonise
- **Ennedi Plateau** – The Ennedi Plateau located in northern Chad is considered a part of the group of mountains known as the Ennedi Massif.

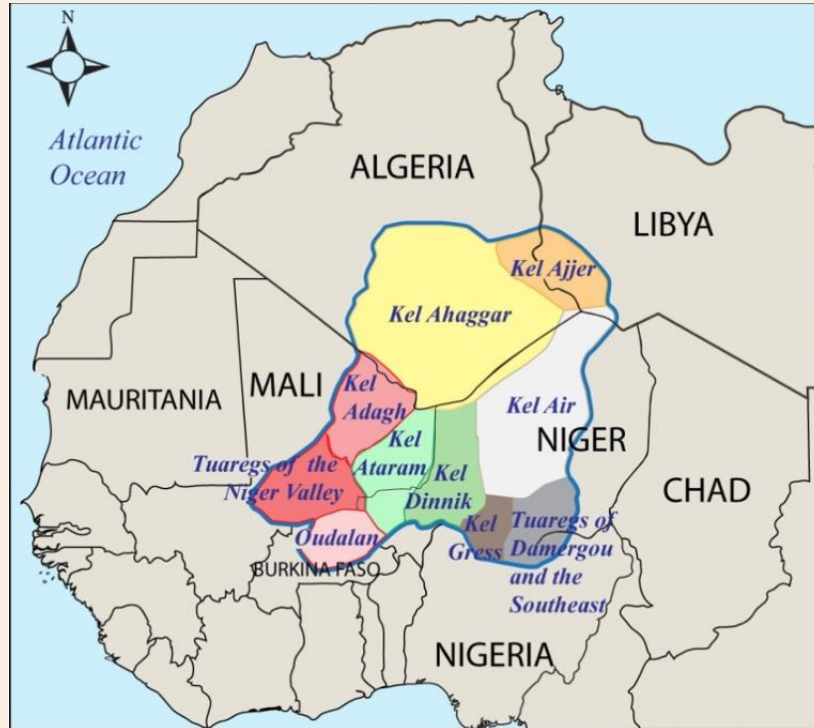


Figure 14 Map displaying the various confederations of the Tuareg in the 19th century

The Maasai Confederation

The Maasai are a Nilotic ethnic group inhabiting northern, central and southern Kenya and northern Tanzania, near the African Great Lakes region. Most Nilotic speakers in the area, including the Maasai, the Turkana and the Kalenjin, are pastoralists and have a reputation as fearsome warriors and cattle rustlers. The Maasai territory reached its largest size in the mid-19th century and covered almost all of the Great Rift Valley and adjacent lands from Mount Marsabit in the north to Dodoma in the south. At this time the Maasai, as well as the larger Nilotic group they were part of, raised cattle as far east as the Tanga coast in Tanganyika (now mainland Tanzania). Raiders used spears and shields but were most feared for throwing clubs (orinka).

Military

Similar to the Tuareg people, the Maasai people were largely pastoralists and had no organised military. Their military defence primarily depended on individual tribes or groups. Maasai have different weapons such as the wooden walking stick, called eng'udi, the wooden club called rungu, the short sword called olalem, the long spear called eng'erempe or empere and the slim stick called echipishipi. These tribes have groups of men who serve as warriors. The warriors are seen as the defenders of Maasai herds.

Political Situation and Structure

The most distinctive feature of Maasai society is the age system, which stratifies adult males into age sets, spaced apart by about fifteen years. Each age set is further divided into two successive subsets, the "right-hand," followed by the "left-hand." Of primary importance in the community is the subset of warriors who have been most recently initiated. In their physical prime, they form their warrior villages during this period, until the next subset captures the limelight. It is the establishment of such successive arrays of warrior villages, every seven years or so, that symbolizes the autonomy of the warrior ideal and the temporary independence of each warrior from his father. Each warrior village is a cultural ideal that proclaims the close fraternity among all warriors. They disown any individual claims to property and are obliged to share their time, their food, and even the girls who are their mistresses. The restrictions on their diet and behaviour keep them in each other's company, reinforcing their dependence on their peers. Authority within the age system resides in the linkage of alternating age. This dual system of accountability entails an ambivalent combination of rivalry between adjacent age sets (especially in the south) and of hostility between young and old (especially in the north).

Economy

The life-style of the Maasai is oriented toward their herds of cattle, although sheep and goats play an important part in their diet, especially during the dry season, when milk is scarce. The need to graze stock necessitates dispersal over the widest area that is consistent with the availability of grazing and access to water, especially in the dry season. Traditionally, in the most severe famines, Maasai could merge temporarily with neighbouring Dorobo hunters and gatherers. Blacksmiths, especially in the past, produced spears and ornaments. Associated with the dirt of their craft, they were despised and not allowed to intermarry with Maasai, who were not involved with blacksmithing. Traditionally, sheep and goats were traded with neighbouring peoples for vegetable produce. Each tribal section claims sole grazing rights in its own territory, and individual elders may develop and claim wells for watering stock. In times of need, however, it is a major premise that Maasai land and water belong ultimately to all Maasai and that no one should be denied access, even across the boundaries between tribal sections.

Regions free of colonial control

- **Laikipia Plateau** - The Maasai people inhabited a large portion of this central Kenyan area. Large grasslands and a vast variety of fauna call it home.
- **Amboseli** - Amboseli is positioned near the Tanzanian border in southern Kenya. It is a vast expanse of African savanna.
- **Serengeti Plains** - This region, a part of the Maasai lands, escaped European incursion to a considerable extent.
- **Maasai Mara** - Historically Maasai home, this area in southwest Kenya is an element of the wider Serengeti ecosystem.

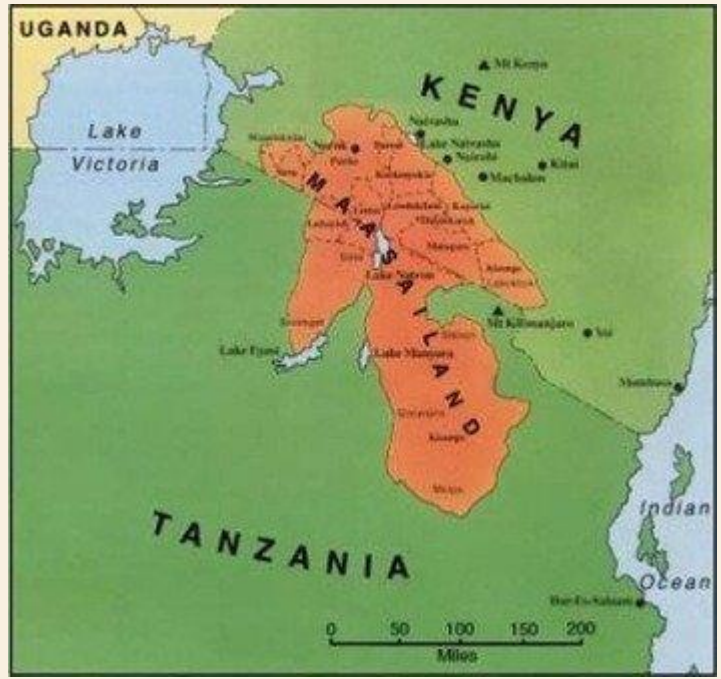


Figure 15 Map showing areas occupied by the Maasai

QUESTIONS TO CONTEMPLATE

1. What defines a territory as a colony, and what level of control does a nation need over it?
2. How will territorial disputes be justly mediated so as to ensure equitable division?
3. How will it be ensured that crucial trade routes through the continent facilitate trade and there are no undue impediments to the flow of goods and services?
4. How will colonization contribute to the economic and political advancement of the colonies?
5. How will colonization promote peaceful relations between African kingdoms?
6. How will colonization contribute to the eradication of slave trade and poverty in Africa?
7. What measures ensure fair territorial divisions and respect for African cultures during colonization?
8. What benefits will colonies receive from their colonizing nations?
9. What economic policies can be implemented to prevent catastrophic outcomes in colonies?
10. How will safe navigation be ensured in African rivers and seas for ships and other vehicles?
11. How can the administration of African colonies incorporate the native population effectively?
12. What measures ensure the preservation of ecological balance during resource extraction in colonies?

NOTES ON PAPERWORK

Paperwork is crucial for this committee as it is the tool to take action and to turn dreams and ambitions into reality. The Berlin Conference will be requiring seven forms of paperwork.

1. Position Papers

Position Papers are documents which are used to communicate the general overview of a portfolio to the Executive Board. A position paper requires a brief statement of the problem, the policy/stance of the given portfolio on the problem, and the solutions put forth by the portfolio to bring an end to the problem. Additionally, the position paper must be provided with appropriate citations.

Position Papers must be submitted to the committee email id (berlinmcmun@gmail.com) by 6th May 2024.

2. Communiqué

As the name suggests, a communiqué is used as a means of communication to other people, within or outside committee. Communiqués are of two types - Public and Private, and may be individually written or jointly written by 2 or more parties. Private communiqués are sent to individual people, and are for their eyes only. They are used for secret negotiations or the elaboration of a covert plan of action. Public communiqués, on the other hand, are used to make announcements to the entire committee, and anything written in a public communiqué is meant for perusal of the entire cabinet. When it comes to communiqués, creativity and originality are key.

Pre-committee communiqués will be accepted, these must be submitted to the committee email id provided.

3. Crisis Papers

These are synonymous to communiqués; they are to address a particular crisis OR to create a totally new one (feel free to use it as both).

Additionally, the Delegates can also send a “Crisis Note”, a small one-page Document, to the Executive Board requesting permission to go ahead with a certain Crisis Paper. Finally, the Crisis Paper can be submitted in an elaborated fashion in case the Executive Board approves the Crisis Note.

4. Press Release

These are documents by nations which will be considered as the final policy of the said delegation and hence must be treated with utmost caution. Two or more delegates can come together to give joint statements or releases depending on the nature.

5. Directives

These are going to be working like action orders – a plan of action. Delegates must use this to put into force any and all missions they undertake that come under their jurisdiction either in their individual capacity or in their joint capacity. These can be of private and public accessibility and contain both Joint and Lone Directives.

6. [Agreements](#)

This form of paperwork as evident from the name represents an agreement between two or more parties. This could be an agreement ranging from a trade deal to military assistance. We envision this form of agreement to be utilised as a device to foster relations between African groups or for European powers to prefer cooperation over just sheer strength. This form of paperwork is necessarily public and represents a joint undertaking by the authoring nations or groups. The boundaries for the applications of this form of paperwork is limitless and you must explore it.

7. [General Act](#)

This will be the final and concluding document of the Berlin Conference. A legally binding document, it will hold similar significance as the actual [General Act of the Berlin Conference](#). This will essentially be a summary of all discussions at the Conference in totality and the final outcome of the committee.

The format for this document is provided. Signatories and authors are not required for this document. It must be adopted unanimously by all Participating European Nations for it to be passed.

CONCLUDING NOTES

At the end of this rich reservoir of information and knowledge, we would like to leave you with a few aspects of what you have read to consider. The continent of Africa faces a time of great uncertainty and predicament. Pre-colonial Africa features civilisations ranging from wandering pastoralists and hunter-gatherer societies to organised monarchical kingdoms to religious caliphates. The vast diversity of Africa is under threat by the all-consuming nature of European imperialism. At this crucial juncture, much of Africa's future is in the hands of the African Polities who have been granted the opportunity to attend the Berlin Conference.

The importance of these polities cannot be understated, as it is their decision which will determine the path the continent goes down. There is a wide array of options available to them, to ally with colonial powers to safeguard their own existence while giving up some amount of autonomy or to try to unify the varied, vastly different groups in Africa. These polities have historically been involved in conflicts against each other hence, this is also another factor to be vary about while considering such possible alliances.

The perspective of the European colonisers is also similarly nuanced. The Europeans are a fractured, disjointed group also plagued by infighting. Much of the race for colonies in Africa is motivated by competition against fellow European empires. It is critical that you as delegates do everything to achieve your nation's objectives in the continent of Africa whether it be through military force or shrewd alliances. It is advised that you do not underestimate the strength of the native Africans or overestimate the military ability of your own forces.

The situation presented to you is one of urgency and must be addressed rapidly. You must not let your competitors get ahead in the race and losing valuable territory in the process. It is up to you to establish the greatest empire in Africa by defeating your adversaries whether they be fellow European colonisers or African polities, or you could be the one preventing exactly that from happening.

We hope you are preparing for the chaos that is about to ensue and to restore order to this chaos. The future remains uncertain and we look forward to seeing how this game of chess plays out.

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