Alice J. Kustenbauder

FLA 518
Content-Based Instruction for English Language Learners
Southern Connecticut State University

Content-Based Instruction Unit for ELLs:
African Independence

28-July-2006
1. **TITLE OF UNIT**: African Independence

2. **GRADE LEVEL**: high school

3. **TARGET GROUP**: sheltered content

4. **SOURCE OF WRITTEN READING MATERIALS**:
     - (supplemental material for lesson two)
     - (supplemental material for original lesson four)

5. **SOURCE OF LESSONS**:

6. **LEARNING GOALS**:
   - *I want my students to know* ...
     - ... when different African nations gained their independence.
     - ... that independence is gained by different means.
     - ... how global factors can affect independent nations.
     - ... that Africa has positive contributions for the global community.

**IN THIS UNIT**:
- Text that “appears in quotation marks” represents sample script for modified teacher talk. All other text should be taken as general instructions to the teacher.
- Numbers that are [bracketed] represent the pause length, in seconds, in these teacher scripts.
- Page numbers refer to pages in the *World history: People and nations* reading material, unless otherwise noted.
- Page numbers in the unit are continuous.
- All supplemental materials for a lesson immediately follow that lesson plan, unless otherwise noted. Reading materials for that lesson follow these numbered pages (where readings overlap from one lesson to another, duplicate pages have not been included).
- Unmodified original lessons, goals and objectives, text, and supplementary materials are in the last section of this binder.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>ESL LANGUAGE</strong></th>
<th><strong>CONTENT</strong></th>
<th><strong>LEARNING STRATEGIES</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **KNOWLEDGE**   | 1. dates of independence  
2. example paths to independence  
3. global impact on an individual country  
4. positive contributions of African nations |  |
| **SKILLS**      | 1. use maps & written texts to find dates of independence of African countries  
2. represent how countries gained independence after WWII  
3. name global factors that impacted African independence movements after WWII  
4. identify challenges that new African nations faced  
5. identify six cultural and artistic spheres where Africans have had an impact since independence  
6. review factors leading to independence, details of independence movements, and hopes and challenges after independence | recognizing key ideas and their organization in a written text  
using outlines or other graphic organizers to guide one’s own writing |
| **ATTITUDES/ AWARENESS** | 1. appreciate the complexity involved in determining a country’s success or failure on a given front  
2. realize that we are not always given a complete picture and must find ways to balance positive and negative aspects, to “dig deeper” |  |
Lesson 1
Lesson One: Motivation for Independence

Content Objectives:
Students will name global factors that impacted African independence movements after WWII.

Language Objectives:
Students will outline world events that spurred African independence movements.

Modifications
Beginner ELLs will circle relevant factors from a list during class discussion.
Intermediate ELLs will use 1-2 word phrases to list relevant global factors.
Advanced ELLs will outline world events that spurred African independence movements.
Limited L1 Literacy students will engage in the class discussion that leads to the outline.

Functional-Notional Chart:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Expressions</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Grammar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>factors leading to African independence</td>
<td>________ led to African independence.</td>
<td>The Great Depression The conquest of Ethiopia The Pan-African Movement World War II</td>
<td>irregular past tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>African nationalism was a response to ________</td>
<td>the Great Depression the conquest of Ethiopia the Pan-African Movement World War II</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagine</td>
<td>your reaction to a colonial situation</td>
<td>I would ________</td>
<td>feel + (adj) frustrated angry weak want to + (verb) fight protest organize an army petition</td>
<td>use of &quot;would&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“Imagine” – Focusing Students ... 15 minutes
(modified from Teacher’s Edition, p. 813)


“Imagine [1] that the rulers [1] in the other country (point to Europe) [1] think they are better than you (pantomime with very upright posture, looking down). [2] How would you feel? (point to 😐 😐 😐 on the board) [wait for student response]”


“Do you know countries with stories like this? [wait for student response] Does your country have a story like this? [wait for student response]”


As students give responses, indicate that you are listening by nodding, making eye contact, asking for follow-up on student responses, and employing back-channeling cues (oh, I see, uh-huh, etc). Allow students to respond to each other’s suggestions; do not feel that you need to respond to or evaluate every student contribution. The goal is whole class discussion.

Reading, pp. 813-814 ... 10 minutes
Provide margin notes to simplify the text and highlight the main ideas (see end of this lesson). Beginner ELLs will read the margin notes only. Intermediate ELLs will read the introductory paragraph (pp. 813-814) and the margin notes. Advanced ELLs will read the introductory paragraph (pp. 813-814), the margin notes, and full text of paragraphs 3, 4, 5, 6 under “African Nationalism.” Limited L1 Literacy students will read the simplified text and graphics sheet (p. 8 of this unit).
Whole Class Discussion & Teacher-modeled Notetaking ... 20 minutes

"Now that you’ve read the text [1], what were some factors [1] – some things [1] – that made Africans want independence? [2] I want to hear the ideas you have from your reading. [2] I’ll write our ideas on the board; [2] please take notes on your listening guides† or in your notebooks. [wait for student responses]"

† Listening Guides are found on pp. 8-10 of this unit.

As key ideas emerge in class discussion, begin the outline on the board. Begin by writing the first heading as shown below. Post pictorial representations next to the written pieces (pp. 11-12 of this unit).

I. Factors that led to African independence
   A. The Great Depression
      1. Africans received lower wages.
   B. The conquest of Ethiopia
      1. The last independent nation was conquered by Italy.
   C. The Pan-African movement
      1. The Pan-African movement wanted equality for all black people.
   D. World War II
      1. African soldiers traveled and learned new ideas.
      2. The Atlantic Charter gave hope for self-rule.

How else can we organize these thoughts? [wait for student responses] Suggest and model T-outline:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Great Depression</th>
<th>lower wages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>anger at colonial powers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conquest of Ethiopia</td>
<td>last independent nation in Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>shock and anger at colonial powers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Pan-African movement</td>
<td>equality for all black people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>African cultural unity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>scared colonial powers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World War II</td>
<td>soldiers traveled and learned new ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Atlantic charter gave hope</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Alice J. Kustenbauer
African Independence Unit, p. 7
The Great Depression led to African independence.

The conquest of Ethiopia led to African independence.

The Pan-African Movement led to African independence.

World War II led to African independence.
LISTENING GUIDE, BEGINNER ELL

Circle the world events that led to African independence.

The Great Depression
The Industrial Revolution
The flooding of Nigeria
The conquest of Ethiopia
The Pan-African Movement
The Civil Rights Movement
World War I
World War II
LISTENING GUIDE, INTERMEDIATE ELL

Fill in the missing information as we talk about the readings.

I. Factors that led to African independence
   A. The ____________________
      1. Africans received lower wages.
   B. The conquest of Ethiopia
      1. The last ____________ nation was conquered by Italy.
   C. The ____________ movement
      1. The Pan-African movement wanted __________ for all black people.
   D. World War II
      1. __________ soldiers traveled and learned new ideas.
      2. The Atlantic Charter gave __________ for self-rule.
Pictorial Representations for Teacher-modeled Notetaking

The Great Depression

The conquest of Ethiopia
The Pan-African Movement

World War II

NARRATIVE ON MODIFICATIONS

I thought it would be a real challenge to modify such a heavily text-based lesson for English Language Learners. It was a challenge, but an achievable one. Sheltered strategies employed for contextualizing the lesson included making use of gestures, props, and visuals and asking students to draw on their own experiences and background knowledge. The text was made more comprehensible through simplification with margin notes, highlighting the main ideas from the reading. These margin notes were then used to populate the model outline(s) and listening guides. Keeping in mind the different reading speeds of the ELLs in this class, I also varied the amount of unmodified text that students in each level were expected to read.

In addition to these sheltered strategies, I sought to make the talk more comprehensible. This was facilitated by simplifying the teacher’s syntax. I also indicated that the teacher should pace her talk with longer pauses in places that focus students’ attention. Key phrases are repeated—for example, “imagine that” in the first activity, “African independence”, “factors or things” in the post-reading, notetaking activity. Finally, listening guides were provided for students to use during this post-reading discourse. These guides were modified for behaviors one can expect from students at various language proficiency levels.

In this lesson modification, I tried to increase opportunities for student output and interaction. The opening “imagine” activity was given more time, with “wait for student response” instructions included to make use of silence as a way to encourage students to take the stage. The questions were open-ended, yet sometimes restated with more closed-ended questions and graphics for students at lower proficiency levels (see the questions and teacher instructions following the “How would you feel?” on p. 6 of this unit). The teacher is encouraged to use teacher responses that are more congruent with principles of “instructional conversations” even
within a larger group setting. Shared background was created by having all students imagine life in a colonial environment. In addition, students were asked to give examples of countries that illustrate what the class has just imagined. Examples from their home countries or previous schooling experiences are therefore sought and validated.

It was my hope to also draw attention to a learning strategy for academic development in the post-reading activity. For advanced students, and others who read the unmodified text, the margin notes provide a model for extracting key ideas from written material. For all students, the two outlining techniques modeled ways to organize the main ideas found in a text. Perhaps as a part of the unit assessment or in a later lesson, students will use these outlines to write a paragraph on the factors leading to African independence, thereby using the outline tools in reverse – organizing main ideas to shape written text.
During the 1960s, Obafemi Awolowo, a political leader from western Nigeria, reflected on how his newly independent homeland should view human rights:

"Every member of any human association has rights, intangible though they are, which are sacred and inalienable, and which must be protected against any invasion, at all costs. In a State, such rights are more carefully and elaborately spelt out, and are termed fundamental human rights. These rights are also regarded as inalienable because they are inherent in, not acquired by, man. Only acquired rights are alienable. . . ."

It is, therefore, of exceeding importance that in every written constitution, fundamental human rights should be entrenched, and provisions for their inviolable protection and impartial enforcement should also be clearly set out and entrenched."

Awolowo was only one of many African and Middle Eastern leaders who worked to lead newly independent nations after 1945.
the armies of the European colonial powers, both inside and outside Africa. The continent itself became a supply route between the Allies and the rest of the world. During the war, the Allied powers also seemed to imply the end of colonial rule in declarations such as the Atlantic Charter. When the war ended, many Africans were no longer satisfied with the status quo, and a new wave of nationalism began to gain strength throughout the continent. Exhausted and nearly bankrupted by the war, most of the old colonial powers soon realized that independence was inevitable. Within a few short decades, the political map of Africa was transformed as colony after colony achieved independence. By the 1990s, all Africa was free from colonial rule.

**African Nationalism**

Before 1945, talk of nationalism in Africa was largely confined to a few Africans who had been particularly affected by their interaction with Europeans. In the British colonies of West Africa, for example, families of African merchants, along with chiefs from the interior, had long engaged in trade and other business relationships with Europeans. Among these few, many had received an education in Europe or the United States. Some of these individuals worked as missionaries, spreading Christianity in Africa. Others became civil servants. Through such contacts, some became convinced that only by forming modern nations, like those of Europe, could African peoples become free and join in the life of the modern world.

As members of a privileged group, however, many of these Western-educated Africans did not always feel at ease with their own people and did not seek broad popular support. Nor were their demands very great. Generally, they called simply for wider participation in the colonial governments. At the same time, because of their African heritage, they were excluded from European society. Consequently, before the war, these Africans had little influence on colonial policy.

In the 1930s, however, a new brand of African nationalism emerged. During the Great Depression, most colonial governments cut back on wages for African civil servants. This angered many and fueled anticolonial sentiment. The 1936 Italian invasion and conquest of Ethiopia, which had been the last great independent African state, also shocked and angered Africans throughout the continent. A younger, more radical generation of African nationalists began to call for complete self-government, if not yet complete independence.

This second generation of African nationalists was also heavily influenced by the Pan-African movement. Pan-Africanism promoted the cultural unity of people of African heritage in their mutual struggle for freedom. The Pan-African movement began among people of African descent in North America and the West Indies. It gained strength particularly in the first half of the 1900s under Marcus Garvey of Jamaica and African American educator W. E. B. Du Bois. Their aim was to win equality for black people in all parts of the world. Ending colonial rule in Africa was central to this aim.

Garvey's cry of "Africa for the Africans at Home and Abroad" alarmed colonial powers. It also drew many young Africans to the cause. For example, delegates to the 1945 Pan-African Congress in Manchester, England, included Kwame Nkrumah (en-kroo-mah) of the Gold Coast, Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya, and Hastings Banda of Nyasaland (now Malawi). They all became leaders of independence movements in their countries.

The events of World War II also contributed to the growth of a more popular African nationalism. During the war, Africa once again became a major supplier of men and matériel for the Allied war effort. Some 80,000 Africans, for example, served in France's armies in Europe, while Great Britain recruited or drafted hundreds of thousands of Africans from its colonies to help the Allies win the war. These Africans, many of whom served outside of Africa, were introduced to a larger world and new ideas. At the same time, declarations such as the Atlantic Charter seemed to promise self-determination for all peoples after the war. Such declarations or statements raised expectations among many Africans that their demands for greater freedom would soon be met.

Despite the expectations of African nationalists immediately after World War II, the colonial powers did not plan to give up their empires in Africa any time soon. Consequently, the struggle for national independence in Africa took many forms. Some colonies followed a sometimes slow constitutional process, with popular elections and a peaceful transfer of power. Other colonies suffered lengthy "wars of national liberation." The specific form of the independence effort depended on the particular experience of imperialism in that part of Africa.

**Winds of Change in British Africa**

LESSON TWO: PATHS TO INDEPENDENCE

Content Objectives:
I. Students will name global factors that impacted African independence movements after WWII.
II. Students will use maps and written text to find dates of independence of African countries.
III. Students will represent how countries gained independence after WWII.

Language Objectives:
I. Students will use outlines to write a paragraph about world events that spurred African independence movements.
   Modifications
   Beginner ELLs will use their outline from lesson one to fill in missing words in a prepared paragraph.
   Intermediate ELLs will use their outline from lesson one to complete sentence starters in a paragraph.
   Advanced ELLs will refer to a list of connecting words to write a full paragraph from their outline.

II. Students will synthesize facts from several sources into one map to indicate country name, date of independence, and former colonial power.
   Modifications
   Beginner ELLs will write the names of the colonial powers for the 12 countries named in the text on the “African Independence, 1946-1993” map.
   Intermediate ELLs will use the “Colonialism in Africa, 1945” map to identify all former British, French, Belgium, and Portuguese colonies (the colonial powers covered in the text).
   Advanced ELLs will transfer the names of all the former colonial powers to the “African Independence, 1946-1993” map.

III. In small groups, students will organize information from written texts into a chart or graphic organizer in order to summarize their findings to the class.
   Modifications
   Beginner ELLs will engage in group discussion by offering 1-2 word English phrases to complete the graphic organizer.
   Intermediate ELLs will engage in group discussion in short phrases and sentences.
   Advanced ELLs will participate in group discussion to design and complete the graphic organizer.
## Functional-Notional Chart:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUNCTION</th>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>EXPRESSIONS</th>
<th>VOCABULARY</th>
<th>GRAMMAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Write a paragraph that identifies | factors leading to African independence | led to African independence. | The Great Depression  
The conquest of Ethiopia  
The Pan-African Movement  
World War II | irregular past tense |
| Synthesize into one map        | facts from several sources  | gained independence from  
______ in  
______. | Ghana...Britain...1957  
Kenya...Britain...1963  
Zimbabwe...Britain...1980  
Zambia...Britain...1964  
Malawi...Britain...1964  
Guinea...France...1958  
Senegal...France...1960  
Côte d'Ivoire...France...1960  
Democratic Republic of Congo...Belgium...1960  
Guinea-Bissau...Portugal...1973  
Angola...Portugal...1975  
Mozambique...Portugal...1975 | prepositional phrases |
| Organize into a chart or graphic organizer | key points in paths to independence | was/were central to  
______'s independence. | civil disobedience  
rioting  
new political party  
land ownership  
violence  
Mau Mau  
guerrilla warfare  
constitutional change  
Central African Federation  
France's new constitution  
new political parties  
French Community  
cultural clubs  
neighboring colonies  
new political parties  
riots  
liberation armies  
wars | singular vs. plural past tense of “to be”  
possessive (’s) |
Paragraph Writing ... 10 minutes
"Yesterday we identified four main factors [1] that led to African independence (post the four pictorial representations, found on pp. 11-12 of this unit, on the board). [2] Use the outline or listening guide we made yesterday [1] (hold one up) to write a paragraph [1] (gesture writing) about the factors [1] that led to African independence."

"The key ideas we put in our outlines [1] (hold one up) show us what to put in our paragraphs. [2] For example, we can write ‘I. Factors that led to African independence’ as [1] ‘There were several factors that led to African independence.’ (write both on the board with an arrow between them, in place of the ‘as’). I have a writing guide† (hold one up, in your other hand) [1] to help you plan your writing. [1] Use this writing guide [1] and your outline [1] to write your paragraph."

†Writing Guides are found on pp. 19-21 of this unit.

Teacher circulates room while students write, providing guidance as needed.

"You’ve just reviewed [1] and written about [1] general factors leading to African independence. Today we’re going to find out when [1] these African countries gained independence [1], and how they did it [2]."

Map Comparison ... 15 minutes
"Look at the ‘Colonialism in Africa, 1945’ map (hold up map found on p. 22 of this unit). [1] This map shows the colonial powers [1] – the other countries (point away from self) that used to rule [1] the African countries. Each colonial power is a different color [1] on the map. Britain is green. [1] France is yellow. [1] Belgium is orange. [1] Portugal is purple. [1] (point to each of these four squares in the map’s legend as you say each one)."

"Use this map [1] to write the names of the colonial powers [1] – the other countries [1] – on the “African Independence, 1946-1993” worksheet (hold up one of the black and white maps found on pp. 23-25 of this unit; it is the same map found on p. 815)."

"When you finish [1], you will have one map that shows you the name of the African country [1], its date of independence [1], and the name of its former colonial power. It will be a tool for you to use as you read [1], write [1], and talk [1] about these countries."

Jigsaw Reading, pp. 814-821 ... 10 minutes
Divide students into five groups; each group contain students at different English proficiency levels. Each group will read a different section of this lesson’s text. After independent reading, each of these “expert groups” will prepare a graphic organizer to categorize main ideas in their reading and present these to the class.
- Winds of Change in British Africa – Ghana (pp. 814-816)
- Winds of Change in British Africa – Kenya (pp. 814-816, 816-817)
- British Central Africa (pp. 817-818)
- The French Colonies (p. 818)
- The Belgian Congo & The Portuguese Colonies (pp. 818-819)
In the modified readings (found at the end of this lesson), key concepts are highlighted; key figures are underlined. Countries of interest are noted in the margins. Beginner ELLs will read highlighted and underlined phrases and country names in their assigned section of the text. Intermediate ELLs will read the sentences in their section that contain the highlighted and underlined words. Advanced ELLs will read their entire section, with special attention to the highlighted and underlined words.

**Expert Group Graphic Organizers ... 10 minutes**
Each expert group will create a graphic organizer to address the “from where?”, “what?”, “how?”, “when?” aspects for the countries mentioned in their reading. They may include other details if they wish. Students who share the same first language may use that language in the planning stages. Explain that their group will use this organizer to share their ideas with the rest of the class tomorrow and that students in other groups have not read the same sections.

*Circulate around the room while students work. Remind them, as needed, of the four aspects which must be addressed in their graphic organizer and presentation. If they cannot come up with an original graphic organizer, they may fill in the chart below, which is modified from Teaching Objective 2, Teacher’s Edition, p. 815.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>path to independence</th>
<th>Name of African Nation</th>
<th>Name of African Nation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>from where?</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what?</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who?</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>how?</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>when?</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Use yesterday's listening guide to fill in the missing words in the paragraph below.

There were several world ____________ that led to African independence. The Great ____________ led to African independence. African nationalism was a response to the ____________ of Ethiopia. The ____________ Movement also led to African independence. Finally, African nationalism was a response to ____________ itself.
WRITING GUIDE, INTERMEDIATE ELL

Using yesterday’s listening guide, complete the following sentences to write a paragraph about the factors that led to African independence.

There were several factors that ________________________________.

One factor was _________________________________. African nationalism was also a response to _________________________________. Another factor that led to independence was the ________________________________ that sought equality for all black people. Finally, African nationalism _________________________________. 
Using yesterday's outline, write a paragraph about the factors that led to African independence.

The following words and phrases may help you connect the sentences in your paragraph:

another also In addition, because finally

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________

____________________
Colonialism in Africa, 1945

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Lesson Two

"AFRICAN INDEPENDENCE, 1946-1993" MAP
BEGINNER ELLS:
Write the former colonial power on each of the following countries:
Ghana
Kenya
Zimbabwe
Malawi
Guinea
Senegal
Côte d'Ivoire
Democratic Republic of Congo
Guinea-Bissau
Angola
Mozambique


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Intermediate ELLs:

Write Britain, France, Belgium, or Portugal on each of their former colonies on this map.


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Advanced ELLs:

Transfer the names of all the former colonial powers from the "Colonialism in Africa, 1945" map to this map.


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African Independence Unit, p. 25
NARRATIVE ON MODIFICATIONS, LESSON TWO

Modifications employed for this lesson were similar to those used in the first lesson. The lesson was contextualized by drawing on students’ shared knowledge, which in this case, is information from the last lesson. Again, the text was made more comprehensible by highlighting key ideas; words and phrases were literally highlighted in the existing text. No parts of the text were rewritten. A collaborative small group activity allowed students to interact with both the content material and their peers. Students were allowed to use their first language for planning and collaboration within this small group.

The teacher’s talk was again made more comprehensible by the repetition of key phrases (phrases within this lesson and between this lesson and the last). Syntax was simplified and the teacher’s speech was paced to facilitate comprehension. Gestures and visuals were used to clarify instructions.

In this lesson, attention was drawn again to a learning strategy for academic development. Students used outlines to write a paragraphs on the main ideas identified in their reading. They were able to use outlining skills for the purpose of shaping their own written text. Writing guides were provided to engage ELLs at appropriate proficiency levels. In addition to this new use for outlining skills, the learning strategy from lesson one was revisited as students recognized and organized key ideas from a text – this time in the creation of their small group graphic organizers.

In addition to these modifications, I also removed the reading on South Africa. Its independence history follows a different path; the post-WWII change in South Africa was not independence, but the end of apartheid. While this is important, it requires different language and expressions than those identified for this lesson. Perhaps a subsequent unit could cover African
nations whose independence patterns differ significantly from the trajectory highlighted in this unit’s text, for example, South Africa, Ethiopia, Egypt, and Liberia.

Finally, I modified the suggested format for the expert groups’ graphic organizers. While the original lesson allowed for greater diversity in presentation format, that same diversity would make it more difficult to ensure that comparable key concepts were addressed by each group. In the current modifications, students are free to create their own graphic organizer as long as it addresses the four main categories address in the functional/notional chart in this lesson. A standard chart (see p. 18 of this unit) can be used by individual groups if needed. Students will be able to finalize their graphic organizers and prepare for their presentations at the start of lesson three. This extension into the third lesson not only creates time for the paragraph writing exercise at the beginning of this lesson, but also serves as a connection between the second and third lessons.
Learning from Maps: Many former African colonies have become independent nations since 1945.

Region: What country remained a dependency in 1993?
Somewhat to the dismay of his listeners who represented both houses of Parliament, he warned that a "wind of change" was sweeping through Africa that would blow away the old days of colonialism. The British had been the first to acknowledge this wind in their own African colonies.

**Ghana.** The first Sub-Saharan colony to achieve independence under majority rule was Britain's colony of the Gold Coast, in West Africa. In 1957 the Gold Coast became the independent nation of Ghana. (See map on page 815.) Ghana's leader, Kwame Nkrumah, chose the new country's name to commemorate the ancient African kingdom of Ghana.

Nkrumah had received his higher education in the United States and worked in Great Britain. In late 1947, he returned to the Gold Coast upon invitation to be general secretary of the United Gold Coast Convention, a political party of the westernized elite. From this post, Nkrumah began to build a national following. He believed that political unity in Africa was the key to success.

"African unity is above all a political kingdom, which can only be gained by political means. The social and economic development of Africa will come only within the political kingdom, not the other way around."

Soon Nkrumah called on the people to begin a campaign of civil disobedience, including strikes and boycotts of British goods. In this new, more politically charged atmosphere, riots broke out in Accra, the colony's capital city, in 1948. Soon the rioting spread to other towns, and it took the colonial authorities several days to restore order. The Accra riots did much to convince the British that they should make some concessions to African nationalist demands.

Meanwhile, Nkrumah's radical tactics and demands had alarmed the more conservative African leaders, who expelled him from his post. Consequently, in 1949 Nkrumah founded his own political party, the Convention People's Party (CPP), dedicated to achieving immediate self-government. Under his guidance, the CPP became a major political party designed to appeal to the masses.

Under almost constant pressure from the CPP, in 1951 the British colonial authorities agreed to hold a national election in the Gold Coast. Nkrumah's party won a huge victory, but Nkrumah continued to pressure the British for complete independence. Britain finally granted Ghana full sovereignty in 1957.

**Kenya.** The example of Ghana became an inspiration to African nationalists in other colonies. In some, however, particularly those with significant numbers of white settlers, the movement toward independence was more difficult and complicated. Kenya in East Africa, for example, took a very different road to independence.

By the early 1950s, the British government was willing to give the peoples of East Africa limited political freedom. White settlers in the area, however, rejected any kind of reform. They feared that African self-government would threaten their ownership of huge tracts of fertile land in the central highlands. Rapid population growth after World War II had led to land shortages. As a result, Africans had demanded the right to settle in the central highlands even though they were not allowed to own land there. Further, the Kikuyu, Kenya's largest ethnic group, looked on this area as their ancestral homeland.

**Land ownership** had an almost mystical quality for the Kikuyu. Kikuyu leader Jomo Kenyatta described the Kikuyu feeling about land this way:

> Although Jomo Kenyatta was jailed on charges of leading the Kenyan Mau Mau rebellion of 1952, he became the prime minister of Kenya in 1963 and president a year later.
"It is the key to the people's life; it secures them that peaceful tillage [cultivation] of the soil which supplies their material needs and enables them to perform their magic and traditional ceremonies in undisturbed serenity."

The continued exclusion of the Kikuyu from the central highlands soon became a source of tension. Then, in the early 1950s, this tension actually exploded into violence.

In a four-year guerrilla campaign, the "Land and Freedom" army, a secret Kikuyu organization that became popularly known as the **Mau Mau**, caused terror and destruction in the central highlands. During the campaign, the Mau Mau killed about 100 Europeans and some 2,000 Africans loyal to the British government. The British took military actions to suppress the movement. More than 11,500 Kikuyu were killed during or as a result of the war. Thousands were jailed in detention camps. Eventually, the British succeeded in suppressing the Mau Mau and restoring order in Kenya, but they could not put down the drive for Kenyan independence.

In 1961 Kenyatta, who had been jailed as a suspected leader of the Mau Mau, was released. He emerged from prison as the leader of the independence movement. His popularity and forceful leadership helped overcome ethnic rivalries and brought about a shared sense of Kenyan nationalism. Kenyatta won an easy victory in national elections held in May 1963. Later that year, Kenya gained its independence, and Kenyatta became the first prime minister of the new nation. In 1964 he became president, a position he held until his death in 1978.

**British central Africa.** Developments in Britain's colonies in central Africa—Southern Rhodesia (present-day Zimbabwe), Northern Rhodesia (present-day Zambia), and Nyasaland (present-day Malawi)—also represented an unusual example of both guerrilla warfare and constitutional change. Southern Rhodesia's large white population had achieved internal self-government in the 1920s. The other two territories were governed by Britain.

After World War II, the settlers of Southern Rhodesia combined efforts with the much smaller settler population of Northern Rhodesia to convince the British government to allow the creation of a **Central African federation**. The British included the small protectorate of Nyasaland, but the Africans who lived there strongly opposed it. As in their other colonies, the British hoped to create a multiracial state. This policy, however, was opposed by the white settlers, who were favored by imperial policies in the 1950s.

Established as a 10-year experiment in 1953, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was always bitterly opposed by African nationalist leaders. They saw the Federation as a means by which the white settlers could maintain their control over the black majority populations of the three territories. Throughout the life of the Federation, African nationalism continued to develop. At the end of the 10-year trial period, in 1963, the African majorities in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland voted to withdraw from the Federation. In 1964 the two colonies became the independent states of Zambia and Malawi under majority African rule. Britain also tried to force progress toward majority rule on Southern Rhodesia, but the white population led by Prime Minister Ian Smith refused to cooperate.

In 1963 Smith issued the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) and proclaimed the independent state of Rhodesia. Great Britain and the rest of the world refused to accept Smith's act, insisting that it was illegal, and reduced or cut off trade relations. Although the Smith government was isolated internationally, it still refused to initiate reforms. Consequently, as happened in the neighboring Portuguese colonies, a guerrilla war began.

Little success was achieved in the early years of fighting. However, when Angola and Mozambique became independent from Portugal in 1975, the liberation forces gained a military advantage. They now had countries that were friendly to their cause located in southern Africa. Under the leadership of Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo, the African forces intensified their attacks and succeeded in disrupting the economy of Rhodesia.

As the war became increasingly unpopular among the white population, Smith was forced to seek a solution. Eventually, he worked with moderate African leaders to form a new government under African leadership that would continue to guarantee the privileged status of whites. Even this was not enough to stop the ongoing guerrilla war. Still under enormous pressure, the Rhodesian government finally agreed to hold free elections open to all parties, including the liberation leaders. In these 1979 elections, Robert Mugabe, considered the most radical of the candidates, won a landslide victory.

In April 1980, Rhodesia became the new nation of Zimbabwe—a name taken from the ancient southern African kingdom of Great Zimbabwe. After years of
The French Colonies
While the British decided to compromise with the demands of African nationalists fairly quickly and easily, in French colonial territories a different pattern emerged. As with other parts of Africa, World War II marked a turning point in France’s African colonies.

Before World War II, most of France’s African colonies had been organized into two administrative units, French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa. The colonial governors of French West Africa remained loyal to Vichy during the war. French Equatorial Africa, however, led by the governor of Chad, Félix Eboué, the first black man to become a colonial governor, declared its support for the Free French forces of General de Gaulle. In 1944, with de Gaulle’s approval, the governor of French Equatorial Africa met in Brazzaville to announce more liberal policies. The Brazzaville Declaration, which outlined these reforms, however, also made it clear that the French Empire would continue and that the colonies could not expect independence.

Following the Allied victory, France itself adopted a new constitution. Under this constitution, the French Empire was transformed into the French Union. The vote was extended to more Africans, who were now eligible to elect some 20 African representatives to the French National Assembly in Paris. Other Africans were also elected to the Assembly of the French Union.

Although this system provided many Africans with political experience, it fell short of real independence. Many Africans felt that their interests were second to those of France. In response, African leaders such as Léopold Senghor of Senegal, Félix Houphouët-Boigny (foo-FOH-bew-boh-ZHNY) of the Côte d’Ivoire, and Sékou Touré (SOO-dray) of Guinea, began to develop the same kind of popular parties that were emerging in British colonies. At first the new political parties only sought self-government within the French Union. As it became increasingly clear that France was not interested in granting anything but limited control over the colonies, however, many African nationalists became more radical in their demands.

In 1958 Charles de Gaulle, the new French president, offered the African colonies a choice. They could remain independent within the French Community (the newly transformed French Union), subject to French control of their foreign affairs, or they could become totally independent. Those colonies that chose to remain within the French Community would continue to receive aid from France. Those that chose independence would be immediately cut off from aid and contacts with France.

Only Guinea, under Sékou Touré, chose complete independence. The others accepted de Gaulle’s new French Community. As de Gaulle had warned, Guinea was immediately isolated from the rest of the French Community, both politically and economically. However, in 1960 those African colonies that accepted membership in the French Community were granted the very independence that Touré had insisted on, but without sacrificing their close economic and political ties to France.

The Belgian Congo
Perhaps the most traumatic transition to independence occurred in the Belgian Congo. (The Belgian Congo later became Zaire, which was renamed the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 1997.) Belgium, which opposed independence because of the colony’s great wealth in timber and mineral resources, provided few opportunities for Africans to develop their skills in government.

The Congo was home to many different groups of people, speaking different languages and with different customs. Under Belgian rule, these differences did not diminish but were reinforced. During World War II,

The Congo was a Belgian colony from 1908 until 1960. Violence broke out across the country after independence. Here UN troops arrive in the Congo in 1961.
however, as the local economy worked harder to produce goods for the war effort, many Congolese began to leave their villages and flock to the cities. There they came in contact with other Congolese and began to establish cultural clubs. In the 1950s, events in neighboring British and French colonies finally introduced ideas of nationalism into the Congo. After 1955, the Belgian authorities even allowed the development of new political parties. Most of the new parties remained committed to their local regions, but a few had programs of national unity for all the Congo.

At first the Belgian government resisted nationalist demands. They proposed a gradual 30-year timetable to prepare the Congo for independence. In 1959, however, the pressures of new national ideas and dissatisfaction with Belgian colonial rule resulted in rioting in the capital city of Léopoldville. Alarmed by the violence and aware of developments in other colonial Africa, Belgian authorities reversed their former policy. In January 1960, they announced that the Congo would become independent in six months—on June 30, 1960.

African leaders were not prepared for independence to come so quickly. Many different political parties, all representing different ethnic communities, geographical regions, or political beliefs, participated in the first elections. Patrice Lumumba (luh-MOO-muh), an outspoken critic of European influence, became premier. Joseph Kasavubu (kah-sah-VOO-bo), the leader of the second-largest party and Lumumba’s chief political rival, became president. Fearful of Lumumba’s anti-European stance, the vast majority of Belgian technicians and experts left the country almost immediately. With few trained Africans to replace them, the Congo soon descended into chaos.

In July 1960, Congolese soldiers mutinied against their Belgian officers. A period of violence aimed mostly at white people followed. To make matters worse, the copper-rich province of Katanga led by Moise Tshombe (CHAHM-be), seceded from the Congo. As civil war broke out, first Belgium and then the United Nations intervened. On the invitation of Kasavubu, the Congolese army, under Colonel Joseph Mobutu, overthrew Lumumba, who was assassinated in 1961. Katanga was also brought back into the republic. Fighting wracked the country until 1965, however, when Mobutu himself took full control. Mobutu gradually established a ruthless military dictatorship that lasted into the 1990s. The length of his rule was partly due to the effects of the Cold War, in which Mobutu was supported by the Western powers as a counterbalance to African countries that leaned toward the Eastern bloc. In the 1970s, he pursued a policy of Africanization, changing the name of the country to Zaire and himself taking the African name Mobutu Sese Seko.

### The Portuguese Colonies

While many African nations were winning their independence, the Portuguese government continued to oppose independence for its colonies. In desperation, African leaders in Portuguese West Africa, Portuguese Guinea, and Portuguese East Africa organized “liberation armies” to fight for freedom. In a series of long, bloody wars, they gained control of much of the countryside.

These wars continued until 1974, when the military staged a coup in Portugal and announced that Portugal would withdraw from Africa. Within months of the announcement, in 1974 and 1975, Portuguese Guinea, Portuguese West Africa, and Portuguese East Africa—present-day Guinea-Bissau, Angola, and Mozambique respectively—became independent. The establishment of African nationalist governments in these countries also put enormous pressure on the last holdout of minority white rule in Africa, the Republic of South Africa.

### South Africa

South Africa’s experience differed from that of any other African nation. In 1910 four territories had come together to form the Union of South Africa; the former Boer republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, which had been defeated in the recent Boer War and brought under British rule. The new Union of South Africa was a white-rulled nation with dominion status. Although linked to Great Britain in foreign affairs, the dominion ruled itself internally as it saw fit.

Relying on its resources of gold, diamonds, and cheap labor, South Africa experienced an industrial revolution in the early 1900s. Its industrialization was based on the labor of black Africans, who vastly outnumbered whites. Even so, blacks were excluded almost totally from the benefits of South Africa’s economic success.

**Apartheid.** Before World War II, English-speaking whites had dominated the government. By custom, whites and nonwhites were segregated socially. Over time, an unofficial system of separate public facilities for whites and nonwhites developed. Moreover,
Lesson 3
Lesson Three: Hopes and Challenges That Come with Independence

Content Objectives:
Students will represent how countries gained independence after WWII.

Language Objectives:
In small groups, students will organize information from written texts into a chart or graphic organizer.

Modifications
Beginner ELLs will engage in group discussion by offering one-two word English phrases to complete the graphic organizer.
Intermediate ELLs will engage in group discussion in short phrases and sentences.
Advanced ELLs will participate in group discussion to design and complete the graphic organizer.

In small groups, students will use their graphic organizer to summarize their findings to the class.

Modifications
Beginner ELLs will point to the appropriate part of their group’s graphic organizer during the group’s presentation.
Intermediate ELLs will present at least one piece of information (e.g., ______ gained independence from ______ in ______) during the group’s presentation.
Advanced ELLs will present several details from their graphic organizer during the group’s presentation.
### Functional-Notional Chart:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUNCTION</th>
<th>SITUATION</th>
<th>EXPRESSIONS</th>
<th>VOCABULARY</th>
<th>GRAMMAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Summarize in a class presentation | facts from several sources | gained independence from ______ in ______. | Ghana...Britain...1957
Kenya...Britain...1963
Zimbabwe...Britain...1980
Zambia...Britain...1964
Malawi...Britain...1964
Guinea...France...1958
Senegal...France...1960
Côte d’Ivoire...France...1960
Democratic Republic of Congo...Belgium...1960
Guinea-Bissau...Portugal...1973
Angola...Portugal...1975
Mozambique...Portugal...1975 | prepositional phrases |
| Organize into a chart or graphic organizer | key points in paths to independence | ______ was/were central to ______’s independence. | civil disobedience
rioting
new political party
land ownership
violence
Mau Mau
guerrilla warfare
constitutional change
Central African Federation
France’s new constitution
new political parties
French Community
cultural clubs
neighboring colonies
new political parties
riots
liberation armies
wars | Ghana
Kenya
Zimbabwe
Zambia
Malawi
Guinea
Senegal
Côte d’Ivoire
Democratic Republic of Congo
Guinea-Bissau
Angola
Mozambique | singular vs. plural past tense of “to be”
possessive (‘s) |
| Imagine | what you would do in a newly independent country | We would ________.
I would ________ | choose a form of government
find a leader
make money
build an economy
take care of citizens
celebrate
feel proud
feel nervous | use of “would” |
Lesson Three

Expert Group Graphic Organizers & Practice ... 10 minutes
Collaborative groups finalize the graphic organizer they started in lesson two. Inform students that they should use part of this time to plan their presentation. Each group should have: a time keeper (each presentation should be three-four minutes), a modeler (student who points to parts of the organizer as others talk), and at least two speakers (one of the speakers can also serve the role of timekeeper).

Expert Group Presentations ... 20 minutes
In turn, each of the five expert groups posts their graphic organizer and presents their information to the class. Each group has four minutes to do so. Graphic organizers remain posted in the room as a reference and resource for all students.

“Imagine” – Focusing Students ... 10 minutes
(modified from Teacher’s Edition, p. 813)
“Imagine [1] that you live in one of these (point to the graphic organizers now posted in the room) new [1] African [1] nations. [2] You worked hard (point to the how part of the graphic organizers) [1] for your independence. And now you won! (smile) You have your own country! (raise fist in gesture of triumph) [2]”


As students give responses, indicate that you are listening by nodding, making eye contact, asking for follow-up on student responses, and employing back-channeling clues (oh, I see, uhh-huh, etc). Allow students to respond to each other’s suggestions; do not feel that you need to respond to or evaluate every student contribution. The goal is whole class discussion.

Conclusion & Jigsaw Reading Assignments, pp. 822-826 ... 5 minutes

Have students count off 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 to randomly assign them to following reading texts:
1. Political and Economic Challenges – Ghana (p. 822)
2. Political and Economic Challenges – Nigeria (p. 822, pp. 822-823)
3. Superpower Rivalries – Angola & The Horn of Africa (pp. 823-824)
4. Ethnic Violence – Rwanda & Zaire (p. 824)
5. Economic and Environmental Challenges (pp. 824-825)
6. Revival of African Culture (pp. 825-826)
All students are given a reading guide† based on both their assigned reading and their English proficiency level. Note which students are assigned to each group not only so that you give the correct reading guide, but also so you can ask appropriate level questions of individual students in lesson four.

† Reading guides for groups 1-5 are found on pp. 32-33 of this unit.
Reading guides for group 6 are found on pp. 34-36 of this unit.

While the reading guides and reading assignments are prepared as part of this lesson, the content and language objectives associated with this reading are addressed in lesson four.
**Reading Guide, Beginner ELLs**
Sections 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

1 = Political and Economic Challenges – Ghana (p. 822)
2 = Political and Economic Challenges – Nigeria (pp. 822-823)
3 = Superpower Rivalries – Angola & The Horn of Africa (pp. 823-824)
4 = Ethnic Violence – Rwanda & Zaire (p. 824)
5 = Economic and Environmental Challenges (pp. 824-825)

Circle the words in any column that you find in your reading.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic ($)</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Environmental</th>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>world market</td>
<td>military rule</td>
<td>overused the land</td>
<td>disease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>high taxes</td>
<td>civilian government</td>
<td>desertification</td>
<td>population growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loans</td>
<td>corruption</td>
<td>droughts</td>
<td>starvation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imported goods</td>
<td>inexperienced</td>
<td></td>
<td>new diseases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>single crop</td>
<td>instability</td>
<td></td>
<td>viruses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>artificial boundaries</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>civil war</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>superpower rivalry</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cold War</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ethnic violence</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>refugees</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table modified from Teaching Objective 1, Teacher's Edition, p. 822
READING GUIDE,
INTERMEDIATE & ADVANCED ELLs
SECTIONS 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

1 = Political and Economic Challenges – Ghana
   (p. 822)
2 = Political and Economic Challenges – Nigeria
   (pp. 822-823)
3 = Superpower Rivalries – Angola & The Horn of Africa
   (pp. 823-824)
4 = Ethnic Violence – Rwanda & Zaire
   (p. 824)
5 = Economic and Environmental Challenges
   (pp. 824-825)

Write words or phrases from your reading in the correct category below.

Challenges the New African Nations Faced ☉

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic $</th>
<th>Political $</th>
<th>Environmental $</th>
<th>Health $</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table modified from Teaching Objective 1, Teacher’s Edition, p. 822
Find these words in your reading. Read the sentences that contain the words in the table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Art</th>
<th>what?</th>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>where?</th>
<th>Important Person</th>
<th>who?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>poems/poetry</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
<td>Shaaban Robert</td>
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<td>Kenya</td>
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<td>Senegal</td>
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<tr>
<td>plays</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
<td>Léopold Senghor</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Kenya</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
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<tr>
<td>novels</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td></td>
<td>Wole Soyinka</td>
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<td>Kenya</td>
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<td>Senegal</td>
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<tr>
<td>music</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Camara Laye</td>
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<tr>
<td>film</td>
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<tr>
<td>sculpture</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Find these types of art in your reading. Complete this table with information about where this art is made and who the artists are. Not all squares will be filled.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Art</th>
<th>what?</th>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>where?</th>
<th>Important Person</th>
<th>who?</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>poems/poetry</td>
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<td>novels</td>
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<td>music</td>
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<td>film</td>
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<tr>
<td>sculpture</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Find six types of art mentioned in your reading. For each type, fill in as much information as you can in the table below.

**Evidence of Cultural Revival 😊**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Art</th>
<th>what?</th>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>where?</th>
<th>Important Person</th>
<th>who?</th>
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NARRATIVE ON MODIFICATIONS, LESSON THREE

The start of this lesson was a continuation of a group project initiated, and content ideas introduced, in the previous lesson. Students were thus engaged in a shared experience while continuing to interact with their peers and the content. Allowing students to practice their language in a small group before their class presentation aids in creating a supportive environment, a critical classroom feature for beginner (and all!) ELLs. I tried to enhance this low-anxiety classroom experience by making the expectations of the assignment clear in terms of the roles of students, the length of the presentation, and the essential aspects of the content material to be included. This activity also provided an additional way to create opportunities for output, not only during the small group, but during the class presentation as well.

As in lesson one, teacher talk was made more comprehensible by repetition of key phrases (compare the “imagine” activity in lesson one with the “imagine” activity here), simplified syntax, and pacing with longer pauses to focus students’ attention. Gestures and visuals were again employed to contextualize the teacher talk. Student output was encouraged in this group discussion, as in lesson one, by the teacher’s use of silence and the employment of “instructional conversation” principles.

Students were asked to draw on what they know from previous lessons to anticipate what they will learn in their reading. Not only is this used to engage them in class discussion, but also to aid in making the text comprehensible. Text in this lesson was also made comprehensible with reading guides, modified for differing English proficiency levels, that highlight key ideas. A major distinction from previous lessons, with regard to the modification of the text, is that students are expected to read the text outside of class. This not only gives them more time to read at their own pace, but allows students to utilize other resources, including family and community...
members. This could also serve as a way to lower the anxiety level for ELLs in a content
classroom, including a sheltered content classroom.

In this lesson, as in the two previous lessons, students were asked to recognize and
organize key ideas found in a text and to use that organization to guide their own language
production. In this lesson, as opposed to lesson two, the language production was oral, not
written. Yet the focus on this combined learning strategy remains.
Political and Economic Challenges

Despite the high hopes with which many Africans greeted independence, the years following the end of colonial rule were not easy ones. The new African leaders were inexperienced in politics and in running the new states they had inherited from the colonial rulers. As they failed to improve the lot of their people rapidly enough, in many countries, the military began to intervene. Soon most African countries were being ruled by military dictatorships. The case of Ghana provides a good example of the pattern that emerged in many African states after independence.

Ghana. The early years of Kwame Nkrumah's rule coincided with high prices on world markets for Ghana's main cash crop—cocoa. The prosperity that Ghana enjoyed at this time helped make Nkrumah very popular among the people. He exploited this popularity, however, building up a cult of personality around himself. Nkrumah's drive for absolute power resulted in a new constitution in 1964, which established Ghana as a one-party state. Any challenge to Nkrumah was the equivalent of treason. Yet people continued to criticize, especially after the fall of world prices for cocoa. This price drop, combined with government debt and corruption, caused the Ghanaian economy to collapse. Nkrumah responded by becoming more and more ruthless. His popularity declined rapidly, and in 1966, while on a visit to another country, he was ousted in a military coup.

Although few people in Ghana mourned Nkrumah's departure, the situation did not improve. Over the next 12 years, Ghana went back and forth between civilian and military rule. This political instability was matched by fluctuations in the economy, which remained tied to cocoa.

In 1979, just before an election designed to return the government to civilian rule, the military stepped in yet again. This takeover was led by Jerry Rawlings, a young air force pilot. Rawlings stated that the present military leaders were corrupt and inefficient and had to go. After public trials, a number of leading military officers were executed. Rawlings then allowed the elections to take place, and the country returned to civilian rule.

A little over a year later, however, Rawlings stepped in once again. He dissolved the civilian government, claiming that it was worse than the military junta it had replaced. Rawlings felt that Ghana should follow socialist policies. After two years of worsening economic reports, he changed his opinion. In 1983 he put the country's economy on a course toward free enterprise. By 1992 Ghana's annual rate of economic growth was one of the highest in Africa.

This improvement in the economy, however, came at great cost to the Ghanaian people. They had to endure high taxes on imports, a sales tax, and an income tax. Subsidies on food and fuel were reduced, and the currency was devalued to stimulate exports. Ghanaian grew weary of continued economic measures and Rawlings' rigid government style. Demands for a return to civilian rule increased. In 1992 a new constitution was adopted, and civilian rule was established. Resigning from the military, Rawlings ran for the presidency and won.

Nigeria. While Ghana's experience following independence was similar to that of many African nations, some had to deal with special problems. Many of these problems were left over from the days of colonial rule. For example, new national boundaries often were artificial, drawn by the imperialist powers for their own convenience. In some cases, people of similar racial or cultural backgrounds were separated, while people of different heritages were grouped together. In some places, such as Nigeria, these problems soon led to civil war.

At the time of independence in 1960, Nigeria was a federation of three regions, each of which retained a large degree of local independence. A fourth region was created in 1963. Although this situation resulted in strong ethnic and regional differences in the country, the government hoped that this loose federation would prevent warfare among the various groups. It did not, however, prevent conflict.

In 1966 the military took over the government, but it could not overcome the tensions created by the ethnic and regional distrust. After independence, for example, the federal government's exploitation of major oil deposits, discovered in the late 1950s in the Niger Delta, had increased regional tensions. In 1967 the Eastern Region, home of the Ibo-speaking people, seceded from the federation and declared itself the independent Republic of Biafra. Nigeria plunged into civil war. After more than two years of war and the deaths of as many as several million Biafrans from starvation and disease, Biafra surrendered. Pursuing a policy of conciliation, the Nigerian government gradually restored stability to the country. Nevertheless, ethnicity and regionalism continued to be sensitive issues in Nigeria.

A democratically elected civilian government returned to Nigeria in 1979. At the same time, the country's oil wealth provided Nigerians with
the opportunity to escape the poverty that threatened most other African nations. It also appeared that Nigeria might be the first African nation other than South Africa to achieve a high degree of industrialization.

In the 1980s, however, a drop in the international price of oil—the commodity that accounted for 95 percent of Nigeria's export revenues—caused Nigeria's economy to falter. In late 1983, military officers overthrew the civilian government and introduced strict new measures to turn the economy around. In 1983 and again in 1985, the government forced foreigners living illegally in Nigeria, many of them from Ghana, to leave the country.

This government proved very unpopular. Within two years, another military coup, this one led by Major General Ibrahim Babangida, had taken place. Babangida immediately introduced bold new reforms to restore economic and political stability. He renegotiated the country's foreign loans, applying for assistance from international financial organizations.

In 1992 Babangida fulfilled a promise to return the country to civilian rule. In the elections that followed, Moshood Abiola was elected president. Before he could be inaugurated, however, the military again intervened, under General Sani Abacha, who declared the election results invalid. When Abiola declared himself president anyway, Abacha imprisoned him. Nevertheless, pressures remained strong to return to civilian rule. In 1997 Abacha scheduled elections for sometime in 1998. In mid-1998, however, both Abacha and Abiola died of natural causes. A new military strongman, General Abdulsalam Abubakar, took power, pledging to return the country to civilian rule in the near future.

Superpower Rivalries

Superpower rivalry complicated the efforts of new African nations to achieve peace and stability. As these nations sought financial and technical assistance from both the Soviet Union and the United States, they often found themselves caught up in the Cold War.

Angola. When civil war broke out in Angola after independence in 1975, the United States and the Soviet Union rushed arms and support to the rival factions. Soviet military advisors and Cuban troops supported the Marxist Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA). The National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) received aid from the United States. Fearing that the MPLA might assist Marxist rebels in Namibia, South Africa also supported UNITA. The MPLA eventually gained control, but about 50,000 Cuban troops stayed in Angola to help fight off continued attacks by UNITA.

For the next 12 years, Angola became a battleground for the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. When tensions between the two superpowers eased, moves were made to end the civil war in Angola. A regional agreement that linked independence for Namibia with the withdrawal of Cuban troops from Angola was reached in 1988. In May 1991, the MPLA and UNITA hammered out a peace treaty that also called for free elections late in 1992. The continued hostility between MPLA and UNITA leaders, however, left the success of the treaty in question.

The Horn of Africa. Soviet-American rivalry was even more complex in the Horn of Africa, a strategic area that includes Ethiopia and Somalia. The Horn overlooks the Red Sea as well as the Indian Ocean sea-lanes to the oil-rich Persian Gulf. It is also an area of relative instability, characterized by frequent border disputes and local independence movements.
Although the United States had established a military base in Ethiopia in the 1950s, when the Ethiopian emperor Haile Selassie was overthrown in 1974, a Marxist regime came to power. To support the socialist governments in Ethiopia and in nearby Somalia, the Soviet Union provided military aid and advisers. Cuban troops were stationed in Ethiopia. Although the Soviet Union gained a temporary advantage, it had provided arms to two traditionally hostile neighbors. When Somalia invaded Ethiopia in 1977, the Soviets supported Ethiopia. Somalia was defeated in 1978 by Cuban troops with Soviet weapons, but guerrilla fighting in the region continued until 1988.

The topsy-turvy situation created by superpower rivalry demonstrated that African nations often preferred practical assistance to ideological commitments. This became even clearer in the 1980s and early 1990s, after the end of the Cold War. In 1984, a worldwide relief effort was initiated to help Ethiopia during a severe drought. Somalia, also devastated by drought, called on its Arab neighbors and the United States for aid. Despite financial support, in 1991 the military dictatorships in both Somalia and Ethiopia collapsed. Their overthrow, however, only brought more problems.

Somalia descended into civil war as different clans and rival warlords fought for power. The fighting prevented humanitarian aid from reaching victims of the drought. Consequently, at the urging of the United States, in 1992 an international force, under the authority of the United Nations, intervened in Somalia. Unable to stop the bloodshed, the American-led force withdrew from the country in frustration in 1994.

Meanwhile Eritrea, a northern region of Ethiopia, won its independence after a long guerrilla war against the Ethiopian government.

**Ethnic Violence**

As Africa moved toward the new millennium, ethnic violence also remained a major problem in many regions. The Nigerian civil war had shown what could happen within a single country. Similar problems existed throughout Africa. In the 1990s, such problems also spilled over national borders, threatening whole regions with conflict.

**Rwanda.** In Rwanda tensions between the two major ethnic groups, the Tutsi and the Hutu, exploded into violence. In 1994 an estimated 200,000 or more people, mainly Tutsi, had died in massacres. An estimated 2 million Tutsi and Hutu fled to refugee camps in neighboring Zaire and other countries.

Despite the presence of so many Rwandan refugees, the government of the Democratic Republic of the Congo (Zaire) and neighboring African countries have provided a destabilizing factor in Congo. In 1995 the government announced a policy of forced expulsion from the country of the Banyamulenge, ethnic Tutsi who had settled in the eastern Congo as early as the eighteenth century. The Banyamulenge responded by arming to defend themselves and capturing the town of Bukavu. Many observers feared that the Hutu-Tutsi conflict was about to engulf the entire eastern region. Eventually, however, the Hutu rebels were joined by other anti-Mobutu forces led by Laurent Kabila. Kabila had been fighting the autocratic and corrupt Mobutu regime for many years. With his new allies, Kabila marched on Kinshasa and in May 1997 forced Mobutu to flee the country. After taking power, Kabila renamed Zaire the Democratic Republic of the Congo and promised to rebuild the country and halt the interference of foreign powers.

**Economic and Environmental Challenges**

In addition to political challenges, the new African nations faced economic uncertainty. As colonies, they had been part of the economic system of imperialism. In most cases, upon receiving their independence, the new nations lacked the balance between agriculture and industry required for economic growth. Many of them depended on a single crop or mineral resource for most of their income. For example, Ghana depended on cocoa and gold, Zambia on copper, Sudan on cotton, Zaire on cobalt, and Nigeria on oil. All these products were subject to large price swings in world markets.

As they sought to improve their national economies, many African countries turned to international organizations such as the World Bank for loans. However, bad planning, mismanagement, and corruption frequently left them worse off than ever. In addition, African economies were highly vulnerable to changes in the global economy. A worldwide rise in oil prices in the early 1970s, for example, led to huge increases in the prices Africans had to pay for imported goods, which in turn deeply affected their internal economies. Soon most African countries were deeply in debt.
Other problems also plagued Africa. Under colonial rule, improvements in health care, disease control, and nutrition had led to population growth. As the population of Africa continued to expand, however, many farmers overused the land. To grow more food and to produce cash crops for the global economy, farmers planted in dry areas or on hills, where fierce winds often stripped away the topsoil. In addition, people in many parts of Africa cut down trees for firewood. As a result of these practices, desertification, or the spread of the desert, became common.

The weather too has not been kind to Africa. Beginning in the early 1950s, a series of droughts struck northeastern Africa, bringing starvation to millions in the Sudan, Somalia, and Ethiopia. International aid in the form of food supplies has helped people survive, but it has not provided a permanent solution to the problem of famine. Further, foreign governments and voluntary agencies have found that providing assistance of any kind is very difficult because of the ongoing civil wars in these countries.

Not the least of Africa's problems has stemmed from the emergence of new diseases. New strains of viruses appeared on the scene in the 1970s and 1980s. AIDS, for example, spread rapidly through many regions of the continent. In 1995 the deadly Ebola virus struck in Zaire, causing the government to close its borders in an effort to halt the disease's spread.

Revival of African Culture

Despite the economic and political disappointments that followed independence, the people of Africa made great strides in one very important area. They experienced a rebirth of cultural self-confidence.

During the colonial era, many Africans lost faith in their own culture as they adopted European attitudes toward Africa. African art and music were considered primitive and crude by Western standards. The literature of Africa—a treasury of oral traditions including myths, proverbs, and folktales—was largely unknown to Europeans, who had no desire to learn about them. Seeing these attitudes, most Africans turned away from their own history and cultural heritage.

Not all Africans, however, followed the European example. In East Africa, Swahili poetry and tales continued to be studied as they had been for hundreds of years. The written records of this Bantu language go back to the 1600s. The language itself has continued to evolve. The acknowledged father of modern Swahili literature is Shaaban Robert, who is best known as a poet but also writes essays and novels.

Many plays and novels have been written in Swahili, the national language of Tanzania and Kenya.

In West Africa, a new literary tradition developed, one using the colonial languages of English and French. Many African authors, especially those from French-speaking areas, first achieved international recognition through works of protest against colonial oppression. In a very intense and personal style, the poems of Léopold Senghor, who later became president of independent Senegal, described the hardships of colonialism. Senghor also celebrated his sense of the deep pride and dignity of being a black African, a concept he called negritude, or "blackness." Senghor's works, and the novels of Camara Laye, an exile in Senegal, proudly pointed to the deep, spiritual traditions of Africa and its sense of social community. In 1986 the Nigerian playwright and poet Wole Soyinka won the Nobel Prize in literature, becoming the first African to win the coveted award.

These African writers created a new artistic tradition. The result was a remarkable and varied artistic outpouring. Similar achievements were made in reawakening an interest in African music. In addition, a film industry was begun.
The creativity of Africa's contemporary literature, music, and films was also seen in sculpture. In workshops in Nigeria, Zimbabwe, and elsewhere, African artists employed age-old techniques to give shape to wood and copper. Others were more clearly influenced by Western art. Throughout Africa, this mixture of African and outside influences gave an unusual vitality to the arts. More and more westerners began to appreciate the achievements of African art. Africans themselves found a new pride in their ancient heritage and its unique contribution to world culture.

### Section 2 Review

1. Define MPLA, UNITA, desertification, negritude
2. Identify Jerry Rawlings, Ibrahim Babangida, Laurent Kabila, Wole Soyinka
3. Locate and Explain the Significance Horn of Africa, Rwanda
4. Understanding Ideas List three problems that African nations faced after independence.
5. Summarizing Ideas How did superpower rivalries affect the nations of Angola and Ethiopia?
6. Determining Cause and Effect How did ethnic diversity contribute to problems in the independent countries of Africa?
7. Analyzing Ideas How has African culture revived in the last half of the 1900's?

### Section 3

**Nationalism in North Africa and the Middle East**

**Focus Questions**
- How did the rise of Arab nationalism in Algeria affect France's position elsewhere in North Africa and the Middle East after World War II?
- How did conflict in Palestine between Arabs and Zionists affect developments in the Middle East in the postwar period?
- What major issues confronted Turkey and Iran after World War II?

As in Africa below the Sahara, World War II was a turning point for North Africa and the Middle East.

During the war, the British in particular had re-established their control over strategic countries such as Egypt and Iran. Such control angered many and led to an even more intensive development of nationalism in the region after the war. In addition, the United Nations decision to grant independence to Italy's former colony of Libya raised expectations and demands among the French North African peoples that they, too, should be free from colonial rule. Not least, the discovery of the extent of the Holocaust, which had almost destroyed the Jewish population of Europe, led to renewed conflict in Palestine and eventually the emergence of the new state of Israel.

**French North Africa and the Middle East**

Like Great Britain, France was exhausted by World War II. Yet, also like the British, the French did not immediately expect to have to give up their colonies. The first successful challenge to French colonialism came in the Middle East, in Syria and Lebanon.

**Syria and Lebanon.** France had first gained control of Syria and Lebanon as a mandate after World War I. In the 1920s, French policy had encouraged the development of a separate state in Lebanon, where there was a slight Christian majority. During World War II, Free French and British troops had taken control of both countries from the Vichy government. After the war, however, despite promises of independence, French troops remained in Syria and Lebanon. Only under British pressure and several brief but bloody battles with Arab nationalists did France finally agree to withdraw. In 1946 both Lebanon and Syria became fully independent republics.

**Algeria.** The success of Arab nationalism in Syria in particular proved an inspiration to Arab nationalists in French North Africa. The heart of the French colonial empire in North Africa was Algeria. Like South Africa within the British Empire, Algeria had a large European settler community, people known as colons, accounting for about 10 percent of the population. These settlers, many of whose families had lived in Algeria since the 1800s, owned most of the colony's industry and its best land. Algeria was not just a colony, however, but had been legally absorbed into France. Algerian voters elected representatives to the French National Assembly in Paris, although voting restrictions limited the participation of the large majority of Muslim Arabs.

As nationalism emerged in other parts of the Middle East after World War II, the Algerians also began to demand independence. When both the
Lesson 4
Lesson Four: Unit Review & Summary

Content Objectives:
I. Students will identify challenges that new African nations faced.
II. Students will identify six cultural and artistic spheres where Africans have had an impact since independence.
III. Student will review the factors leading to independence, details of independence movements, and hopes and challenges after independence.

Language Objectives:
I. Students will classify challenges by type into a table.
   Modifications
   Beginner ELLs will circle in a completed table words that appear in their assigned readings, and answer yes/no questions in a whole class discussion.
   Intermediate ELLs will write relevant words or phrases from their assigned reading into a provided chart, and offer short phrases in the whole class discussion.
   Advanced ELLs will write relevant words or phrases from their assigned reading into a provided chart, and offer these key concepts in phrases or sentences during the whole class discussion.

II. Students will complete a chart of cultural and artistic contributions with information from assigned readings.
   Modifications
   Beginner ELLs will find relevant passages in the assigned reading from the reading guide, and answer yes/no questions in a whole class discussion.
   Intermediate ELLs will find in the assigned reading details that support the six art forms provided in their reading guide, and offer short phrases in the whole class discussion.
   Advanced ELLs will extract both the art forms and supporting details from the assigned reading, and offer these key concepts in phrases or sentences during the whole class discussion.

III. Students will write a three-paragraph essay using information contained in the charts created and presented in class throughout the course of the unit.
   Modifications
   Beginner ELLs will use the charts created by the whole class to fill in missing words in prepared paragraphs.
   Intermediate ELLs will use the charts created by the whole class to complete sentence starters within a paragraph.
   Advanced ELLs will refer to the charts created by the whole class to write two original (two-sentence) paragraphs.
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Alice J. Kustenbauer

African Independence Unit, p. 40
**Introduction & Read aloud ... 5 minutes**


“To answer that [1], I am going to read one paragraph [1] from our text. The paragraph summarizes [1] what happened after independence. As you listen [1], you may either read silently with me [2] or [1] you many listen for words and ideas that you read last night.”

Read aloud the introduction to “Africa Since Independence” at the bottom of p. 821. Pace speech and pause to emphasize key ideas. For example:


**Class Sharing & Chart Completion ... 15 minutes**

(modified from Teaching Objective 1, Teachers’ Edition, p. 822)


Place the “overhead master” found on p. 44 of this unit on the overhead projector, or reproduce the same charts on large paper and post them on the board. You will fill in both graphic organizers by eliciting one idea from each student. Accept one-two word phrases or whole sentences from intermediate or advanced ELLs in the room. When you get to a student with beginning language proficiency (or any student who seems to be at a loss for an answer), ask them a yes/no question related to an idea in their assigned text (this is why you need to know who read which sections of the text), such as: Was over-used land a problem? Were high taxes a challenge? Did any Africans write poems? Write the student responses in the correct column of the graphic organizers. Encourage the student giving the answer and others in the class to determine where each contribution should go in the graphic organizers. Then, restate the response in sentence format, e.g. High taxes were an economic challenge for new African nations.

Leave these two completed charts visible in the classroom.

Conclude this activity by commenting generally on the large number of challenges new African nations faced. Draw students’ attention to the smaller “Cultural and Artistic Contributions” table:

As students give responses, indicate that you are listening by nodding, making eye contact, asking for follow-up on student responses, and employing back-channeling cues (oh, I see, uh-huh, etc). Allow students to respond to each other’s suggestions; do not feel that you need to respond to or evaluate every student contribution.


Again, allow students to respond to each other’s suggestions; you do not need to respond to or evaluate every student contribution. The goal is whole class discussion and a real wrestling with this issue.

Final Writing Assignment & Assessment ... 25 minutes
“We’ve learned what came before independence [2] (take one step to your left, students’ right … since we read from left to right). We’ve learned how African nations gained independence [2] (raise fist in gesture of triumph and smile). And today we’ve learned about the problems [1] (point to ‘Challenges for New African Nations’ table) and good things [1] (point to ‘Cultural and Artistic Contributions’ table) that happened after independence (take another step to your left).”

“We’re going to write what we’ve learned. [2] You have already written part of this essay. [1] Remember the paragraph you wrote two days ago [1] about the factors leading to independence? [1] This is the first paragraph of your essay. [1] See, you’re halfway done! [2]”

“For the second paragraph [1], use your expert group’s chart [1] (point to the charts still posted in the room from the class presentations in lesson three) to organize your thoughts. [2] This paragraph should have [1] one sentence that tells when a country gained independence [2] and [1] one sentence that tells about a method they used to get it. [2] For example [1], (go to one of the charts and point to the section where you are getting the information as you say,) Ghana [1] gained independence from Britain [1] in 1957. [2] Civil disobedience [1] was central to Ghana’s [1] independence.”

“For the third paragraph [1], look at the two charts we made today [2] (indicate where these are still visible in the room). Write one sentence from each chart. [2] For example [1], (point to each key word in the chart as you say it), One political [1] challenge for new African nations [1] was civil war. [2] However [1], many plays [1] have been produced in Nigeria [1] since independence.”
"You have writing guides† to help you plan your essay. [2] (pass these out) Remember to use the charts [1], outlines [1], and posters [1] in the room (gesture toward all of these) to organize [1] your ideas." †Writing Guides are found on pp. 45-47 of this unit.

“When you have written the three paragraphs [1], rewrite them on one piece of paper. [1] This is your essay! [2] If you run out of time to rewrite this (hold up one blank piece of paper) [1], you may rewrite it at home.”

Teacher circulates room while students write, providing guidance as needed.
### Challenges for New African Nations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic $</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Environmental</th>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table modified from Teaching Objective 1, Teacher's Edition, p. 822

### Cultural and Artistic Contributions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Art</th>
<th>what?</th>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>where?</th>
<th>Important Person</th>
<th>who?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Alice J. Kustenbauder

African Independence Unit, p. 44
Writing Guide, Beginner ELL

Use the charts in the room to fill in the sentences below. These will be the second and third paragraphs in your essay.

__________________ gained independence from __________________ in __________________ was __________________
(African nation) (from where?) (when?) (how?)

central to __________________’s independence.
(African nation)

One __________________ challenge for new African nations was __________________.
($, $p, $r$, or $e$

However, __________________ have been produced in __________________ since independence.
(what?) (where?)
Use the charts in the room to fill in the paragraphs below.
Use the chart from your class presentation for the top paragraph.
Use the challenges (©) and contributions (©) charts for the bottom paragraph.

Where two words are separated by a /, you choose which word is the best word to use.

These will be the second and third paragraphs in your essay.

____________________ gained independence from ____________________________.

____________________ was/were central to ____________________________.

One ______________________ challenge for ____________________________

____________________

However, ______________________ has/have been produced ____________________________

____________________.
Use the charts in the room to write the second and third paragraphs of your essay. Each paragraph should have at least two sentences.
Use the chart from your class presentation for the one paragraph.
Use the challenges (⊙) and contributions (⊙) charts for the other paragraph.

The following words and phrases may help you connect the sentences in your paragraphs:

one, however, specifically, since

[Blank lines for writing]
**Narrative on Modifications**

Many of the same strategies for contextualizing lessons, making talk comprehensible, and creating opportunities for output found in previous lessons were used in this lesson as well. In addition to the text being made comprehensible with reading guides, students were also exposed to the text in a new way: having a portion read to them. To aid their listening and/or literacy skills in this read-aloud activity, their listening purpose-driven … to either listen for familiar ideas or read along with the teacher. The teacher’s reading was modified in pace in much the same way that teacher talk is modified elsewhere in this unit.

The reading guides, writing guides, and questioning techniques in this lesson (especially in the “Class Sharing & Chart Completion” exercise) were all adapted to engage students at appropriate language proficiency levels. Creating opportunities for students’ oral output were the same as those used in previous lessons, but in this lesson students were also given the opportunity to create an extended piece of written linguistic output. This was facilitated by clear instructions and modeling of the technique by the teacher. This writing exercise not only serves as a review and assessment of the students’ content knowledge, but continues to learning strategy goals of recognizing and organizing key ideas from a text and using that organizational structure to guide one’s own thinking, speaking, and writing.

With regard to assessment, it is important to note that students had the opportunity to use graphic organizers to guide their writing and speaking in earlier lessons. In lesson two, students used this strategy to write a paragraph; the assessment and review activity is therefore one with which students are somewhat familiar. It is also important to note that this writing task is not the only assessment piece of the unit. Although not specifically mentioned elsewhere, the teacher has had many opportunities to informally note students’ content and linguistic knowledge.
through their participation in class discussions, collaboration in small groups, participation in the expert presentation, and in the completion of listening, writing, and reading guides.
"I have fought against white domination. I have fought against black domination. I have cherished the ideal of a democratic and free society in which all persons live together in harmony and with equal opportunities. It is an ideal which I hope to live for and to see realized. But... if needs be, it is an ideal for which I am prepared to die."

De Klerk expressed the hope that Mandela and other opposition leaders would meet with him to discuss ways to build a new South Africa. The promise of reform, however, did not end the violence and dissension. A fight for leadership of the black population erupted between the ANC and the largely Zulu Inkatha Freedom Party, led by Mangosuthu Gatsha Buthelezi. This fight resulted in the deaths of thousands of black South Africans in the 15 months following the legalization of the ANC. Moreover, not all whites supported de Klerk. Many Afrikaners left de Klerk's National Party and joined the much more right wing Conservatives.

Despite all these challenges, however, in 1994 South Africa held its first all-race elections. Nelson Mandela was elected by an overwhelming majority as the new president of a multiracial South Africa. Pursuing conciliatory policies, Mandela called on people to "heal the wounds of the past." As South Africa moved toward the end of the century, a new era of partnership and cooperation seemed to have replaced the dark era of apartheid.

Section 2 Review

1. Define Pan-Africanism, CPP, Mau Mau, apartheid
2. Identify Kwame Nkrumah, Jomo Kenyatta, Robert Mugabe, Sekou Toure, Nelson Mandela, F. W. de Klerk
3. Locate and Explain the Significance: Ghana, Kenya, Zimbabwe, South Africa
4. Understanding Ideas: Describe how African nationalism began to emerge after World War II.
5. Summarizing Ideas: Summarize the changes that occurred in Ghana, Kenya, and British central Africa after World War II.
6. Analyzing Ideas: What factors led to the differing experiences of independence between the British colonies and those of the French and Belgians?
7. Interpreting Ideas: How did apartheid shape South African history?

Africa Since Independence

Focus Questions

- What challenges did newly independent African countries face?
- How did rivalry between the superpowers of the Cold War affect Africa?
- How did ethnic diversity contribute to political instability in independent African nations?
- In what ways did Africa experience a revival of African culture?

After gaining independence, the new nations of Africa still faced many serious problems. While specific geographical and historical factors made each nation's problems unique, some common experiences also existed. Practically all the new nations struggled with economic difficulties. Ethnic tensions also racked some of the new countries. In addition, drought, disease, and the Cold War all took their toll on these new nations. Despite these problems, however, the independence that these nations experienced stimulated a revival and development of new cultural expressions throughout much of Africa.
Checklists
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. CONTEXTUALIZE LESSON</th>
<th>Lesson 1</th>
<th>Lesson 2</th>
<th>Lesson 3</th>
<th>Lesson 4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.1.a Visuals (Realia, Manipulatives, Gestures)</td>
<td>p. 6 pp. 11-12</td>
<td>p. 17 pp. 11-12</td>
<td>p. 30</td>
<td>p. 41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I.1.b Model (Instructions, Processes)</td>
<td>p. 7</td>
<td>p. 17</td>
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<td>p. 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. 2. Activate Background Knowledge</td>
<td>p. 6</td>
<td>p. 17</td>
<td>p. 30</td>
<td>p. 41</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>II. MAKE TEXT COMPREHENSIBLE</th>
<th>Lesson 1</th>
<th>Lesson 2</th>
<th>Lesson 3</th>
<th>Lesson 4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II.1. Graphic Organizers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p. 31 pp. 32-36</td>
<td>p. 41 pp. 32-36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.2. Develop Vocabulary</td>
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<tr>
<td>II.3. Simplify Written Text</td>
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<td>p. 18 ex: readings</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>III. MAKE TALK COMPREHENSIBLE</th>
<th>Lesson 1</th>
<th>Lesson 2</th>
<th>Lesson 3</th>
<th>Lesson 4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>III.1. Graphic Organizers; Listening Guides (checklists, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p. 41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.2. Frame Main Ideas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p. 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.3. Pace Teacher’s speech</td>
<td>p. 6</td>
<td>p. 7</td>
<td>p. 17</td>
<td>p. 30 pp. 41-43</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IV. ENGAGE: OPPORTUNITIES FOR OUTPUT</th>
<th>Lesson 1</th>
<th>Lesson 2</th>
<th>Lesson 3</th>
<th>Lesson 4</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IV.1. Teacher Questioning and Response Strategies; Instructional Conversations</td>
<td>p. 6</td>
<td></td>
<td>p. 30</td>
<td>p. 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.2. Small Group Work (including Information gap activities)</td>
<td></td>
<td>pp. 17-18</td>
<td></td>
<td>p. 30</td>
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<tr>
<td>IV.3. Meaningful, real-life activities; Students as researchers</td>
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<tr>
<td>V.1. Use appropriate questions for level</td>
<td></td>
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<td>p. 41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.2. Assign appropriate tasks for varying levels*</td>
<td>p. 6 (reading) pp. 8-10 (listening guides)</td>
<td>p. 18 (reading) pp. 19-21 (writing guides)</td>
<td>p. 31 (reading) pp. 32-36 (reading guides)</td>
<td>p. 43 pp. 45-47 (writing guides)</td>
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<table>
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<th>VI. LITERACY/ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT</th>
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<tr>
<td>VI.1. Allow use of L1 for planning and conceptualizing</td>
<td></td>
<td>p. 18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>VI.2. Lots of real oral and written language</td>
<td>p. 6</td>
<td>p. 17</td>
<td>p. 30</td>
<td>pp. 42-43</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*always reflected in language objectives
### Function Checklist

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lesson 1</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>Classify</td>
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<td>Summarize</td>
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<td>Organize</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>Imagine</td>
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<td>Write</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Synthesize</td>
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</table>

### Grammar Checklist

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<td>adjectives</td>
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<td>countable vs. uncountable nouns</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>has/have been + since</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past tense: irregular forms</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>past tense: third person singular/plural of “to be”</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>possessive</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prepositional phrases</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use of “would”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Original Lessons
LESSON ONE: MOTIVATION FOR INDEPENDENCE

Silent Reading, pp. 812-814

Teacher-directed Discussion & Outline

I. Factors leading to unhappiness with Colonialism and climate for Independence
   A. Great Depression – decreased wages
   B. Ethiopia – conquered by Italy
   C. Pan-Africa Movement – African cultural unity
   D. WWII
      1. drain on resources
      2. soldiers traveled and introduced to new ideas
      3. Atlantic Charter

II. Colonists not ready to let go
   A. Led to many types of independence movements.

Focusing Students (Teacher's Edition, p. 813)

Ask students how they would feel if the United States was ruled by another nation thousands of miles away. Ask if it would make any difference if those rulers were of a different culture and looked down on Americans as inferior. Then tell students to suppose that those rulers refused to grant the “inferior” Americans any degree of self-rule. Ask students if such a situation would justify civil disobedience to achieve reforms. Would it justify terrorism? Revolution and independence?

Tell students that these are some of the issues Africans had to deal with in the decades following WWII.

Introductory Comparison

If time, students will compare the “Colonialism in Africa, 1945” map handout with the map found on p. 815, “African Independence, 1946-1993.” Students may transfer data from one map to the other to detect patterns between former colonial power and date of independence.
LESSON TWO: PATHS TO INDEPENDENCE

Jigsaw Reading, pp. 814-821
- Winds of Change in British Africa – Ghana (pp. 814-816)
- Winds of Change in British Africa – Kenya (pp. 814-816, 816-817)
- British Central Africa (pp. 817-818)
- The French Colonies (p. 818)
- The Belgian Congo & The Portuguese Colonies (pp. 818-819)
- South Africa (pp. 819-821)

Visual Representations/Share Out
- Ghana & Kenya:

Table (Teaching Objective 2, Teacher’s Edition, p. 815)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ghana</th>
<th>Kenya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nationalist Leader</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Africans’ Issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Methods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of Independence</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- British Central Africa
Flow Chart (Teaching Objective 2, Teacher’s Edition, pp. 816-817)
Have students locate on Zambia, Malawi, and Zimbabwe on the map on p. 815. Ask them by what names were these countries known when they were British colonies. Have the students create a flow chart showing the course of events leading to independence for all three.

- The French Colonies
Visually represent the choice given to French colonies, naming as many countries as possible that made each choice. They may compare the “Colonialism in Africa, 1945” map handout with the map found on p. 815.

- The Belgian Congo & The Portuguese Colonies
Timeline of major events.

- South Africa
Timeline of major events.
LESSON THREE: HOPES AND CHALLENGES THAT COME WITH INDEPENDENCE

Focusing Students (Teacher’s Edition, p. 821)
Ask students to imagine they live in a region that has long been ruled by another country. Tell them that they worked many years to attain self-government but, failing that, were finally successful in attaining independence. Ask them what hopes they would have for the future of their new country and how they would expect things to improve. Ask what challenges they would expect their new country to face.
Tell students that the new nations of Africa shared many of the hopes they listed and experienced many of the challenges.

Jigsaw Reading, pp. 821-826
All groups read introduction to Section 2, p. 821
♦ Political and Economic Challenges – Ghana (p. 822)
♦ Political and Economic Challenges – Nigeria (p. 822, pp. 822-823)
♦ Superpower Rivalries – Angola & The Horn of Africa (pp. 823-824)
♦ Ethnic Violence – Rwanda & Zaire (p. 824)
♦ Economic and Environmental Challenges (pp. 824-825)
♦ Revival of African Culture (pp. 825-826)

Visual Representations/Share Out
5 “Challenges” Groups:
Table (Teaching Objective 1, Teacher’s Edition, p. 822)
Problems the New African Nations Faced

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic</th>
<th>Political</th>
<th>Environmental</th>
<th>Health</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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</table>

Cultural Revival Group
Table
Evidences of Cultural Revival

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Art</th>
<th>Nation</th>
<th>Significant People</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tbody>
</table>
LESSON FOUR: UNIT REVIEW

Independent Student Work, pp. 842-843.
  Review Timeline
  Read Chapter Summary, #1-5
  Reviewing Important Terms, #1-3
  Developing Critical Thinking Skills, #1-3
  Relating Past to Present, #2
  using "Images from Chapter 13 and Contemporary African Art" handout
Appendix
CHAPTER 30

Africa and the Middle East Since 1945

TIME
A.D. 1945—the present

PLACE
Africa and the Middle East

African National Congress rally

812 | CHAPTER 30
During the 1960s, Obafemi Awolowo, a political leader from western Nigeria, reflected on how his newly independent homeland should view human rights:

"Every member of any human association has rights, intangible though they are, which are sacred and inalienable, and which must be protected against any invasion, at all costs. In a State, such rights are more carefully and elaborately spelt out, and are termed fundamental human rights. These rights are also regarded as inalienable because they are inherent in, not acquired by, man. Only acquired rights are alienable. . . ."

It is, therefore, of exceeding importance that in every written constitution, fundamental human rights should be entrenched, and provisions for their inviolable protection and impartial enforcement should also be clearly set out and entrenched."

Awolowo was only one of many African and Middle Eastern leaders who worked to lead newly independent nations after 1945.

African Independence After World War II

Focus Questions
- What were the characteristics of African nationalism after World War II?
- How did colonial rule end in Ghana, Kenya, and British central Africa?
- How did the end of colonial rule in the French and Belgian colonies differ from what occurred in the British colonies?
- How did South Africa's experience of colonialism and independence differ from that of other nations of Africa?

World War II was a turning point in the history of Africa. During the war, thousands of Africans served in...
the armies of the European colonial powers, both inside and outside Africa. The continent itself became a supply route between the Allies and the rest of the world. During the war, the Allied powers also seemed to imply the end of colonial rule in declarations such as the Atlantic Charter. When the war ended, many Africans were no longer satisfied with the status quo, and a new wave of nationalism began to gain strength throughout the continent. Exhausted and nearly bankrupted by the war, most of the old colonial powers soon realized that independence was inevitable. Within a few short decades, the political map of Africa was transformed as colony after colony achieved independence. By the 1990s, all Africa was free from colonial rule.

**African Nationalism**

Before 1945, talk of nationalism in Africa was largely confined to a few Africans who had been particularly affected by their interaction with Europeans. In the British colonies of West Africa, for example, families of African merchants, along with chiefs from the interior, had long engaged in trade and other business relationships with Europeans. Among these few, many had received an education in Europe or the United States. Some of these individuals worked as missionaries, spreading Christianity in Africa. Others became civil servants. Through such contacts, some became convinced that only by forming modern nations, like those of Europe, could African peoples become free and join in the life of the modern world.

As members of a privileged group, however, many of these Western-educated Africans did not always feel at ease with their own people and did not seek broad popular support. Nor were their demands very great. Generally, they called simply for wider participation in the colonial governments. At the same time, because of their African heritage, they were excluded from European society. Consequently, before the war, these Africans had little influence on colonial policy.

In the 1930s, however, a new brand of African nationalism emerged. During the Great Depression, most colonial governments cut back on wages for African civil servants. This angered many and fueled anticolonial sentiment. The 1936 Italian invasion and conquest of Ethiopia, which had been the last great independent African state, also shocked and angered Africans throughout the continent. A younger, more radical generation of African nationalists began to call for complete self-government, if not yet complete independence.

This second generation of African nationalists was also heavily influenced by the Pan-African movement. Pan-Africanism promoted the cultural unity of people of African heritage in their mutual struggle for freedom. The Pan-African movement began among people of African descent in North America and the West Indies. It gained strength particularly in the first half of the 1900s under Marcus Garvey of Jamaica and African American educator W. E. B. Du Bois. Their aim was to win equality for black people in all parts of the world. Ending colonial rule in Africa was central to this aim.

Garvey's cry of "Africa for the Africans at Home and Abroad" alarmed colonial powers. It also drew many young Africans to the cause. For example, delegates to the 1945 Pan-African Congress in Manchester, England, included Kwame Nkrumah (en-KROO-muh) of the Gold Coast, Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya, and Hastings Banda of Nyasaland (now Malawi). They all became leaders of independence movements in their countries.

The events of World War II also contributed to the growth of a more popular African nationalism. During the war, Africa once again became a major supplier of men and matériel for the Allied war effort. Some 80,000 Africans, for example, served in France's armies in Europe, while Great Britain recruited or drafted hundreds of thousands of Africans from its colonies to help the Allies win the war. These Africans, many of whom served outside of Africa, were introduced to a larger world and new ideas. At the same time, declarations such as the Atlantic Charter seemed to promise self-determination for all peoples after the war. Such declarations or statements raised expectations among many Africans that their demands for greater freedom would soon be met.

Despite the expectations of African nationalists immediately after World War II, the colonial powers did not plan to give up their empires in Africa any time soon. Consequently, the struggle for national independence in Africa took many forms. Some colonies followed a sometimes slow constitutional process, with popular elections and a peaceful transfer of power. Other colonies suffered lengthy "wars of national liberation." The specific form of the independence effort depended on the particular experience of imperialism in that part of Africa.

**Winds of Change in British Africa**

Learning from Maps: Many former African colonies have become independent nations since 1946.

Region: What country remained a dependency in 1993?
Somewhat to the dismay of his listeners who represented both houses of Parliament, he warned that a "wind of change" was sweeping through Africa that would blow away the old days of colonialism. The British had been the first to acknowledge this wind in their own African colonies.

Ghana. The first Sub-Saharan colony to achieve independence under majority rule was Britain’s colony of the Gold Coast, in West Africa. In 1957 the Gold Coast became the independent nation of Ghana. (See map on page 813.) Ghana’s leader, Kwame Nkrumah, chose the new country’s name to commemorate the ancient African kingdom of Ghana.

Nkrumah had received his higher education in the United States and worked in Great Britain. In late 1947, he returned to the Gold Coast upon invitation to be general secretary of the United Gold Coast Convention, a political party of the westernized elite. From this post, Nkrumah began to build a national following. He believed that political unity in Africa was the key to success.

"African unity is above all a political kingdom, which can only be gained by political means. The social and economic development of Africa will come only within the political kingdom, not the other way around."

Soon Nkrumah called on the people to begin a campaign of civil disobedience, including strikes and boycotts of British goods. In this new, more politically charged atmosphere, riots broke out in Accra, the colony’s capital city, in 1948. Soon the rioting spread to other towns, and it took the colonial authorities several days to restore order. The Accra riots did much to convince the British that they should make some concessions to African nationalist demands.

Meanwhile, Nkrumah’s radical tactics and demands had alarmed the more conservative African leaders, who expelled him from his post. Consequently, in 1949 Nkrumah founded his own political party, the Convention People’s Party (CPP), dedicated to achieving immediate self-government. Under his guidance, the CPP became a major political party designed to appeal to the masses.

Under almost constant pressure from the CPP, in 1951 the British colonial authorities agreed to hold a national election in the Gold Coast. Nkrumah’s party won a huge victory, but Nkrumah continued to pressure the British for complete independence. Britain finally granted Ghana full sovereignty in 1957.

Kenya. The example of Ghana became an inspiration to African nationalists in other colonies. In some, however, particularly those with significant numbers of white settlers, the movement toward independence was more difficult and complicated. Kenya in East Africa, for example, took a very different road to independence.

By the early 1950s, the British government was willing to give the peoples of East Africa limited political freedom. White settlers in the area, however, rejected any kind of reform. They feared that African self-government would threaten their ownership of huge tracts of fertile land in the central highlands. Rapid population growth after World War II had led to land shortages. As a result, Africans had demanded the right to settle in the central highlands even though they were not allowed to own land there. Further, the Kikuyu, Kenya’s largest ethnic group, looked on this area as their ancestral homeland.

Land ownership had an almost mystical quality for the Kikuyu. Kikuyu leader Jomo Kenyatta described the Kikuyu feeling about land this way:

Although Jomo Kenyatta was jailed on charges of leading the Kenyan Mau Mau rebellion of 1952, he became the prime minister of Kenya in 1963 and president a year later.
"It is the key to the people’s life; it secures them that peaceful tillage [cultivation] of the soil which supplies their material needs and enables them to perform their magic and traditional ceremonies in undisturbed serenity."

The continued exclusion of the Kikuyu from the central highlands soon became a source of tension. Then, in the early 1950s, this tension actually exploded into violence.

In a four-year guerrilla campaign, the "Land and Freedom" army, a secret Kikuyu organization that became popularly known as the Mau Mau, caused terror and destruction in the central highlands. During the campaign, the Mau Mau killed about 100 Europeans and some 2,000 Africans loyal to the British government. The British took military actions to suppress the movement. More than 11,500 Kikuyu were killed during or as a result of the war. Thousands were jailed in detention camps. Eventually, the British succeeded in suppressing the Mau Mau and restoring order in Kenya, but they could not put down the drive for Kenyan independence.

In 1961 Kenyatta, who had been jailed as a suspected leader of the Mau Mau, was released. He emerged from prison as the leader of the independence movement. His popularity and forceful leadership helped overcome ethnic rivalries and brought about a shared sense of Kenyan nationalism. Kenyatta won an easy victory in national elections held in May 1963. Later that year, Kenya gained its independence, and Kenyatta became the first prime minister of the new nation. In 1964 he became president, a position he held until his death in 1978.

**British central Africa.** Developments in Britain's colonies in central Africa—Southern Rhodesia (present-day Zimbabwe), Northern Rhodesia (present-day Zambia), and Nyasaland (present-day Malawi)—also represented an unusual example of both guerrilla warfare and constitutional change. Southern Rhodesia's large white population had achieved internal self-government in the 1920s. The other two territories were governed by Britain.

After World War II, the settlers of Southern Rhodesia combined efforts with the much smaller settler population of Northern Rhodesia to convince the British government to allow the creation of a Central African federation. The British included the small protectorate of Nyasaland, but the Africans who lived there strongly opposed it. As in their other colonies, the British hoped to create a multiracial state. This policy, however, was opposed by the white settlers, who were favored by imperial policies in the 1950s.

Established as a 10-year experiment in 1953, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was always bitterly opposed by African nationalist leaders. They saw the Federation as a means by which the white settlers could maintain their control over the black majority populations of the three territories. Throughout the life of the Federation, African nationalism continued to develop. At the end of the 10-year trial period, in 1963, the African majorities in Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland voted to withdraw from the Federation. In 1964 the two colonies became the independent states of Zambia and Malawi under majority African rule. Britain also tried to force progress toward majority rule on Southern Rhodesia, but the white population led by Prime Minister Ian Smith refused to cooperate.

In 1965 Smith issued the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) and proclaimed the independent state of Rhodesia. Great Britain and the rest of the world refused to accept Smith's act, insisting that it was illegal, and reduced or cut off trade relations. Although the Smith government was isolated internationally, it still refused to initiate reforms. Consequently, as happened in the neighboring Portuguese colonies, a guerrilla war began.

Little success was achieved in the early years of fighting. However, when Angola and Mozambique became independent from Portugal in 1975, the liberation forces gained a military advantage. They now had countries that were friendly to their cause located in southern Africa. Under the leadership of Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo, the African forces intensified their attacks and succeeded in disrupting the economy of Rhodesia.

As the war became increasingly unpopular among the white population, Smith was forced to seek a solution. Eventually, he worked with moderate African leaders to form a new government under African leadership that would continue to guarantee the privileged status of whites. Even this was not enough to stop the ongoing guerrilla war. Still under enormous pressure, the Rhodesian government finally agreed to hold free elections open to all parties, including the liberation leaders. In these 1979 elections, Robert Mugabe, considered the most radical of the candidates, won a landslide victory.

In April 1980, Rhodesia became the new nation of Zimbabwe—a name taken from the ancient southern African kingdom of Great Zimbabwe. After years of
civil war, Zimbabwe's future seemed settled, and the government turned its energies to economic recovery.

The French Colonies
While the British decided to compromise with the demands of African nationalists fairly quickly and easily, in French colonial territories a different pattern emerged. As with other parts of Africa, World War II marked a turning point in France's African colonies.

Before World War II, most of France's African colonies had been organized in two administrative units, French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa. The colonial governors of French West Africa remained loyal to Vichy during the war. French Equatorial Africa, however, led by the governor of Chad, Felix Eboué, the first black man to become a colonial governor, declared its support for the Free French forces of General de Gaulle. In 1944, with de Gaulle's approval, the governors of French Equatorial Africa met in Brazzaville to announce more liberal policies. The Brazzaville Declaration, which outlined these reforms, however, also made it clear that the French Empire would continue and that the colonies could not expect independence.

Following the Allied victory, France itself adopted a new constitution. Under this constitution, the French Empire was transformed into the French Union. The vote was extended to more Africans, who were now eligible to elect some 20 African representatives to the French National Assembly in Paris. Other Africans were also elected to the Assembly of the French Union.

Although this system provided many Africans with political experience, it fell short of real independence. Many Africans felt that their interests were second to those of France. In response, African leaders such as Léopold Senghor of Senegal, Felix Houphouet-Boigny (oo-FWAY BWAH-nyuh) of the Côte d'Ivoire, and Sékou Touré (too-RAY) of Guinea, began to develop the same kind of popular parties that were emerging in British colonies. At first the new political parties only sought self-government within the French Union. As it became increasingly clear that France was not interested in granting anything but limited control over the colonies, however, many African nationalists became more radical in their demands.

In 1958 Charles de Gaulle, the new French president, offered the African colonies a choice. They could remain independent within the French Community (the newly transformed French Union), subject to French control of their foreign affairs, or they could become totally independent. Those colonies that chose to remain within the French Community would continue to receive aid from France. Those that chose independence would be immediately cut off from all aid and contacts with France.

Only Guinea, under Sékou Touré, chose complete independence. The others accepted de Gaulle's new French Community. As de Gaulle had warned, Guinea was immediately isolated from the rest of the French Community, both politically and economically. However, in 1960 those African colonies that accepted membership in the French Community were granted the very independence that Touré had insisted on, but without sacrificing their close economic and political ties to France.

The Belgian Congo
Perhaps the most traumatic transition to independence occurred in the Belgian Congo. (The Belgian Congo later became Zaire, which was renamed the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 1997.) Belgium, which opposed independence because of the colony's great wealth in timber and mineral resources, provided few opportunities for Africans to develop their skills in government.

The Congo was home to many different groups of people, speaking different languages and with different customs. Under Belgian rule, these differences did not diminish but were reinforced. During World War II,
however, as the local economy worked harder to produce goods for the war effort, many Congolese began to leave their villages and flock to the cities. There they came in contact with other Congolese and began to establish cultural clubs. In the 1950s, events in neighboring British and French colonies finally introduced ideas of nationalism into the Congo. After 1955 the Belgian authorities even allowed the development of new political parties. Most of the new parties remained committed to their local regions, but a few had programs of national unity for all the Congo.

At first the Belgian government resisted nationalist demands. They proposed a gradual 30-year timetable to prepare the Congo for independence. In 1959, however, the pressures of new national ideas and dissatisfaction with Belgian colonial rule resulted in rioting in the capital city of Léopoldville. Alarmed by the violence and aware of developments in the rest of colonial Africa, Belgian authorities reversed their former policy. In January 1960, they announced that the Congo would become independent in six months—on June 30, 1960.

African leaders were not prepared for independence to come so quickly. Many different political parties, all representing different ethnic communities, geographical regions, or political beliefs, participated in the first elections. Patrice Lumumba (luh-MOO-muh), an outspoken critic of European influence, became premier. Joseph Kasavubu (kuh-sah-VOO-boh), the leader of the second-largest party and Lumumba’s chief political rival, became president. Fearful of Lumumba’s anti-European stance, the vast majority of Belgian technicians and experts left the country almost immediately. With few trained Africans to replace them, the Congo soon descended into chaos.

In July 1960, Congolese soldiers mutinied against their Belgian officers. A period of violence aimed mostly at white people followed. To make matters worse, the copper-rich province of Katanga led by Moise Tshombe (chawm-beh), seceded from the Congo. As civil war broke out, first Belgium and then the United Nations intervened. On the invitation of Kasavubu, the Congolese army, under Colonel Joseph Mobutu, overthrew Lumumba, who was assassinated in 1961. Katanga was also brought back into the republic. Fighting wracked the country until 1965, however, when Mobutu himself took full control. Mobutu gradually established a ruthless military dictatorship that lasted into the 1990s. The length of his rule was partly due to the effects of the Cold War, in which Mobutu was supported by the Western powers as a counterbalance to African countries that leaned toward the Eastern bloc. In the 1970s, he pursued a policy of Africanization, changing the name of the country to Zaire and himself taking the African name Mobutu Sese Seko.

**The Portuguese Colonies**

While many African nations were winning their independence, the Portuguese government continued to oppose independence for its colonies. In desperation, African leaders in Portuguese West Africa, Portuguese Guinea, and Portuguese East Africa organized “liberation armies” to fight for freedom. In a series of long, bloody wars, they gained control of much of the countryside.

These wars continued until 1974, when the military staged a coup in Portugal and announced that Portugal would withdraw from Africa. Within months of the announcement, in 1974 and 1975, Portuguese Guinea, Portuguese West Africa, and Portuguese East Africa—present-day Guinea-Bissau, Angola, and Mozambique, respectively—became independent. The establishment of African nationalist governments in these countries also put enormous pressure on the last holdout of minority white rule in Africa, the Republic of South Africa.

**South Africa**

South Africa’s experience differed from that of any other African nation. In 1910 four territories had come together to form the Union of South Africa: the British territories of Cape Colony and Natal and the former Boer republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, which had been defeated in the recent Boer War and brought under British rule. The new Union of South Africa was a white-ruled nation with dominion status. Although linked to Great Britain in foreign affairs, the dominion ruled itself internally as it saw fit.

Relying on its resources of gold, diamonds, and cheap labor, South Africa experienced an industrial revolution in the early 1900s. Its industrialization was based on the labor of black Africans, who vastly outnumbered whites. Even so, blacks were excluded almost totally from the benefits of South Africa’s economic success.

**Apartheid.** Before World War II, English-speaking whites had dominated the government. By custom, whites and nonwhites were segregated socially. Over time, an unofficial system of separate public facilities for whites and nonwhites developed. Moreover,
nonwhites were given few educational opportunities and were kept out of better jobs. Since 1911 employment opportunities for the nonwhite populations had been restricted by law to low-paying manual labor. In addition, the Land Act of 1913 and subsequent amendments restricted Africans, who made up approximately 75 percent of the population, to only 10 percent of the land. Then in 1948, the National Party, which was dominated by the white, Afrikaans-speaking descendants of the original Dutch settlers, came to power in South Africa. The Afrikaners quickly transformed this unofficial system of social segregation and economic exploitation into government policy.

This policy became known as apartheid—the Afrikaans word for separateness. It consisted of a number of laws that separated the races in every aspect of life. These laws were a way to legally establish white supremacy in the country. One law called for all people to be classified by race: Bantu (black), Colored (mixed race), Asian, or White. Another law established where each of the four races could live. A third law banned intermarriage between the races. A fourth required all nonwhites to carry an identity pass when traveling outside their designated areas. Other laws established different pay scales for whites and nonwhites.

Apartheid also involved the founding of separate tribal states, known as homelands or Bantustans, for Africans. After a brief period of self-government, these homelands would become completely independent. Afrikaner leaders cited the homelands program to support their claim that the intent of apartheid was that each race would prosper if developed separately. However, the homelands were located in the most barren areas of the country and had few natural resources. Even after independence, the homelands would remain completely dependent on South Africa.

**Protests against apartheid.** Some organizations had fought racial discrimination in South Africa long before apartheid was established. The African National Congress (ANC)—the best-known antipartheid group—was founded in 1912. In the 1950s, the ANC launched a campaign of civil disobedience in which ANC members openly violated apartheid laws. The response of the South African government to this campaign of civil disobedience was swift and brutal. In 1960 police opened fire on a peaceful demonstration in the town of Sharpeville, leaving more than 60 dead and hundreds wounded. As world opinion condemned the Sharpeville massacre, in 1961 Prime Minister Hendrik Verwoerd, one of the primary architects of apartheid, decided to proclaim South Africa a republic and to withdraw from the British Commonwealth.

After Sharpeville some ANC leaders, the black lawyer Nelson Mandela among them, felt that in self-defense they would have to confront violence with violence. In response the government banned the ANC in 1960. Then in 1961, Mandela and other ANC leaders were arrested. Charged with treason and found guilty, they all received life jail terms.

Despite the ban and the loss of its leaders, the ANC continued to operate, primarily from bases outside South Africa. In addition, Desmond Tutu, Steve Biko, and other black leaders continued to speak out against the repressive apartheid laws. Some, such as Biko, paid with their lives. An increasing number of white South Africans, too, became involved in the antiapartheid movement. Helen Suzman, for example, used her position as a member of parliament to criticize the government's policies. However, hers was very much a lone voice in the legislature.

In the meantime, the government proceeded with its policy of repression. In 1976, schoolchildren in Soweto, a black township near Johannesburg, marched peacefully in protest against a new law enforcing the use of Afrikaans in all South African schools. They were met by police who opened fire, killing many. Over the next week, outraged Africans rioted all over the country. About 600 people, most of them black, were killed in the violence. After the Soweto riots, many in South Africa were no longer willing to wait peacefully for change.

In the 1980s, faced with growing protests both inside South Africa and from abroad, the South African government began to retreat from its strict apartheid policies. Constitutional reforms gave some political voice to Colored and Asian South Africans. Black Africans, however, were still denied any political participation, and civil strife continued. Meanwhile, the international community imposed economic sanctions on South Africa, pressuring the country to change its racist policies.

**A change of direction.** In September 1989, the pace of change in South Africa quickened with the election of F. W. de Klerk as president. De Klerk lifted a 30-year ban on antiapartheid rallies and legalized the ANC and other banned organizations. He also ordered the release of Nelson Mandela in February 1990. In a speech at Capetown celebrating his freedom, Mandela repeated the words he had spoken during his trial:
“I have fought against white domination, and I have fought against black domination. I have cherished the ideal of a democratic and free society in which all persons live together in harmony and with equal opportunities. It is an ideal which I hope to live for, and to see realized. But . . . if needs be, it is an ideal for which I am prepared to die.”

De Klerk expressed the hope that Mandela and other opposition leaders would meet with him to discuss ways to build a new South Africa. The promise of reform, however, did not end the violence and dissenion. A fight for leadership of the black population erupted between the ANC and the largely Zulu Inkatha Freedom Party, led by Mongosuthu Gatsha Buthelezi. This fight resulted in the deaths of thousands of black South Africans in the 15 months following the legalization of the ANC. Moreover, not all whites supported de Klerk. Many Afrikaners left de Klerk's National Party and joined the much more right wing Conservatives.

Despite all these challenges, however, in 1994 South Africa held its first all-race elections. Nelson Mandela was elected by an overwhelming majority as the new president of a multiracial South Africa. Pursuing conciliatory policies, Mandela called on people to “heal the wounds of the past.” As South Africa moved toward the end of the century, a new era of partnership and cooperation seemed to have replaced the dark era of apartheid.

**Africa Since Independence**

**Focus Questions**

- What challenges did newly independent African countries face?
- How did rivalry between the superpowers of the Cold War affect Africa?
- How did ethnic diversity contribute to political instability in independent African nations?
- In what ways did Africa experience a revival of African culture?

After gaining independence, the new nations of Africa still faced many serious problems. While specific geographical and historical factors made each nation’s problems unique, some common experiences also existed. Practically all the new nations struggled with economic difficulties. Ethnic tensions also racked some of the new countries. In addition, drought, disease, and the Cold War all took their toll on these new nations. Despite these problems, however, the independence that these nations experienced stimulated a revival and development of new cultural expressions throughout much of Africa.
Political and Economic Challenges

Despite the high hopes with which many Africans greeted independence, the years following the end of colonial rule were not easy ones. The new African leaders were inexperienced in politics and in running the new states they had inherited from the colonial rulers. As they failed to improve the lot of their peoples rapidly enough, in many countries, the military began to intervene. Soon most African countries were being ruled by military dictatorships. The case of Ghana provides a good example of the pattern that emerged in many African states after independence.

Ghana. The early years of Kwame Nkrumah’s rule coincided with high prices on world markets for Ghana’s main cash crop—cocoa. The prosperity that Ghana enjoyed at this time helped make Nkrumah very popular among the people. He exploited this popularity, however, building up a cult of personality around himself. Nkrumah’s drive for absolute power resulted in a new constitution in 1964, which established Ghana as a one-party state. Any challenge to Nkrumah was the equivalent of treason. Yet people continued to criticize, especially after the fall of world prices for cocoa. This price drop, combined with government debt and corruption, caused the Ghanaian economy to collapse. Nkrumah responded by becoming more and more ruthless. His popularity declined rapidly, and in 1966, while on a visit to another country, he was ousted in a military coup.

Although few people in Ghana mourned Nkrumah’s departure, the situation did not improve. Over the next 12 years, Ghana went back and forth between civilian and military rule. This political instability was matched by fluctuations in the economy, which remained tied to cocoa.

In 1979, just before an election designed to return the government to civilian rule, the military stepped in yet again. This takeover was led by Jerry Rawlings, a young air force pilot. Rawlings stated that the present military leaders were corrupt and inefficient and had to go. After public trials, a number of leading military officers were executed. Rawlings then allowed the elections to take place, and the country returned to civilian rule.

A little over a year later, however, Rawlings stepped in once again. He dissolved the civilian government, claiming that it was worse than the military junta it had replaced. Rawlings felt that Ghana should follow socialist policies. After two years of worsening economic reports, he changed his opinion. In 1983 he put the country’s economy on a course toward free enterprise. By 1990 Ghana’s annual rate of economic growth was one of the highest in Africa.

This improvement in the economy, however, came at great cost to the Ghanaian people. They had to endure high taxes on imports, a sales tax, and an income tax. Subsidies on food and fuel were reduced, and the currency was devalued to stimulate exports. Ghanaians grew weary of continued economic measures and Rawlings’ rigid government style. Demands for a return to civilian rule increased. In 1992 a new constitution was adopted, and civilian rule was established. Resigning from the military, Rawlings ran for the presidency and won.

Nigeria. While Ghana’s experience following independence was similar to that of many African nations, some had to deal with special problems. Many of these problems were left over from the days of colonial rule. For example, new national boundaries often were artificial, drawn by the imperialist powers for their own convenience. In some cases, people of similar racial or cultural backgrounds were separated, while people of different heritages were grouped together. In some places, such as Nigeria, these problems soon led to civil war.

At the time of independence in 1960, Nigeria was a federation of three regions, each of which retained a large degree of local independence. A fourth region was created in 1963. Although this situation resulted in strong ethnic and regional differences in the country, the government hoped that this loose federation would prevent warfare among the various groups. It did not, however, prevent conflict.

In 1966 the military took over the government, but it could not overcome the tensions created by the ethnic and regional distrust. After independence, for example, the federal government’s exploitation of major oil deposits, discovered in the late 1950s in the Niger Delta, had increased regional tensions. In 1967 the Eastern Region, home of the Ibo-speaking people, seceded from the federation and declared itself the independent Republic of Biafra. Nigeria plunged into civil war. After more than two years of war and the deaths of as many as several million Biafrans from starvation and disease, Biafra surrendered. Pursuing a policy of conciliation, the Nigerian government gradually restored stability to the country. Nevertheless, ethnicity and regionalism continued to be sensitive issues in Nigeria.

A democratically elected civilian government returned to Nigeria in 1979. At the same time, the country’s oil wealth provided Nigerians with
the opportunity to escape the poverty that threatened most other African nations. It also appeared that Nigeria might be the first African nation other than South Africa to achieve a high degree of industrialization.

In the 1980s, however, a drop in the international price of oil—the commodity that accounted for 95 percent of Nigeria's export revenues—caused Nigeria's economy to falter. In late 1983, military officers overthrew the civilian government and introduced strict new measures to turn the economy around. In 1983 and again in 1985, the government forced foreigners living illegally in Nigeria, many of them from Ghana, to leave the country.

This government proved very unpopular. Within two years, another military coup, this one led by Major General Ibrahim Babangida, had taken place. Babangida immediately introduced bold new reforms to restore economic and political stability. He renegotiated the country's foreign loans, applying for assistance from international financial organizations.

In 1992 Babangida fulfilled a promise to return the country to civilian rule. In the elections that followed, Moshood Abiola was elected president. Before he could be inaugurated, however, the military again intervened, under General Sani Abacha, who declared the election results invalid. When Abiola declared himself president anyway, Abacha imprisoned him. Nevertheless, pressures remained strong to return to civilian rule. In 1997 Abacha scheduled elections for sometime in 1998. In mid-1998, however, both Abacha and Abiola died of natural causes. A new military strongman, General Abdulsalam Abubakar, took power, pledging to return the country to civilian rule in the near future.

Superpower Rivalries

Superpower rivalry complicated the efforts of new African nations to achieve peace and stability. As these nations sought financial and technical assistance from both the Soviet Union and the United States, they often found themselves caught up in the Cold War.

Angola. When civil war broke out in Angola after independence in 1975, the United States and the Soviet Union rushed arms and support to the rival factions. Soviet military advisers and Cuban troops supported the Marxist Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA). The National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA) received aid from the United States. Fearing that the MPLA might assist Marxist rebels in Namibia, South Africa also supported UNITA. The MPLA eventually gained control, but about 50,000 Cuban troops stayed in Angola to help fight off continued attacks by UNITA.

For the next 12 years, Angola became a battleground for the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. When tensions between the two superpowers eased, moves were made to end the civil war in Angola. A regional agreement that linked independence for Namibia with the withdrawal of Cuban troops from Angola was reached in 1988. In May 1991, the MPLA and UNITA hammered out a peace treaty that also called for free elections late in 1992. The continued hostility between MPLA and UNITA leaders, however, left the success of the treaty in question.

The Horn of Africa. Soviet-American rivalry was even more complex in the Horn of Africa, a strategic area that includes Ethiopia and Somalia. The Horn overlooks the Red Sea as well as the Indian Ocean sea-lanes to the oil-rich Persian Gulf. It is also an area of relative instability, characterized by frequent border disputes and local independence movements.
Although the United States had established a military base in Ethiopia in the 1950s, when the Ethiopian emperor Haile Selassie was overthrown in 1974, a Marxist regime came to power. To support the socialist governments in Ethiopia and in nearby Somalia, the Soviet Union provided military aid and advisers. Cuban troops were stationed in Ethiopia. Although the Soviet Union gained a temporary advantage, it had provided arms to two traditionally hostile neighbors. When Somalia invaded Ethiopia in 1977, the Soviets supported Ethiopia. Somalia was defeated in 1978 by Cuban troops with Soviet weapons, but guerrilla fighting in the region continued until 1988.

The topsy-turvy situation created by superpower rivalry demonstrated that African nations often preferred practical assistance to ideological commitments. This became even clearer in the 1980s and early 1990s, after the end of the Cold War. In 1984 a worldwide relief effort was initiated to help Ethiopia during a severe drought. Somalia, also devastated by drought, called on its Arab neighbors and the United States for aid. Despite financial support, in 1991 the military dictatorships in both Somalia and Ethiopia collapsed. Their overthrow, however, only brought more problems.

Somalia descended into civil war as different clans and rival warlords fought for power. The fighting prevented humanitarian aid from reaching victims of the drought. Consequently, at the urging of the United States, in 1992 an international force, under the authority of the United Nations, intervened in Somalia. Unable to stop the bloodshed, the American-led force withdrew from the country in frustration in 1994.

Meanwhile Eritrea, a northern region of Ethiopia, won its independence after a long guerrilla war against the Ethiopian government.

Ethnic Violence
As Africa moved toward the new millennium, ethnic violence also remained a major problem in many regions. The Nigerian civil war had shown what could happen within a single country. Similar problems existed throughout Africa. In the 1990s, such problems also spilled over national borders, threatening whole regions with conflict.

Rwanda. In Rwanda tensions between the two major ethnic groups, the Tutsi and the Hutu, exploded into violence. In 1994 an estimated 200,000 or more people, mainly Tutsi, had died in massacres.

An estimated 2 million Tutsi and Hutu fled to refugee camps in neighboring Zaire and other countries. Since that time, an additional 100,000 Hutu have been killed by the Tutsi. Many refugees have also died as a result of disease and other natural causes.

Zaire. The presence of so many Rwandan refugees proved a destabilizing factor in Zaire. Partly in response to the problems presented by the refugees, in 1995 the government announced a policy of forced expulsion from the country of the Banyamulenge, ethnic Tutsi who had settled in the eastern Congo as early as the eighteenth century. The Banyamulenge responded by arming to defend themselves and capturing the town of Bukavu. Many observers feared that the Hutu-Tutsi conflict was about to engulf the entire central African lake region. Eventually, however, the Tutsi rebels were joined by other anti-Mobutu forces led by Laurent Kabila. Kabila had been fighting the authoritarian and corrupt Mobutu regime for many years. With his new allies, Kabila marched on Kinshasa and in May 1997 forced Mobutu to flee the country. After taking power, Kabila renamed Zaire the Democratic Republic of the Congo and promised to rebuild the country and halt the interference of foreign powers.

Economic and Environmental Challenges
In addition to political challenges, the new African nations faced economic uncertainty. As colonists, they had been part of the economic system of imperialism. In most cases, upon receiving their independence, the new nations lacked the balance between agriculture and industry required for economic growth. Many of them depended on a single crop or mineral resource for most of their income. For example, Ghana depended on cocoa and gold, Zambia on copper, Sudan on cotton, Zaire on cobalt, and Nigeria on oil. All these products were subject to large price swings in world markets.

As they sought to improve their national economies, many African countries turned to international organizations such as the World Bank for loans. However, bad planning, mismanagement, and corruption frequently left them worse off than ever. In addition, African economies were highly vulnerable to changes in the global economy. A worldwide rise in oil prices in the early 1970s, for example, led to huge increases in the prices Africans had to pay for imported goods, which in turn deeply affected their internal economies. Soon most African countries were deeply in debt.
Other problems also plagued Africa. Under colonial rule, improvements in healthcare, disease control, and nutrition had led to population growth. As the population of Africa continued to expand, however, many farmers overused the land. To grow more food and to produce cash crops for the global economy, farmers planted in dry areas or on hills, where fierce winds often stripped away the topsoil. In addition, people in many parts of Africa cut down trees for firewood. As a result of these practices, desertification, or the spread of the desert, became common.

The weather too has not been kind to Africa. Beginning in the early 1950s, a series of droughts struck northeastern Africa, bringing starvation to millions in the Sudan, Somalia, and Ethiopia. International aid in the form of food supplies has helped people survive, but it has not provided a permanent solution to the problem of famine. Further, foreign governments and voluntary agencies have found that providing assistance of any kind is very difficult because of the ongoing civil wars in these countries.

Not the least of Africa’s problems has stemmed from the emergence of new diseases. New strains of viruses appeared on the scene in the 1970s and 1980s. AIDS, for example, spread rapidly through many regions of the continent. In 1995 the deadly Ebola virus struck in Zaire, causing the government to close its borders in an effort to halt the disease’s spread.

**Revival of African Culture**

Despite the economic and political disappointments that followed independence, the people of Africa made great strides in one very important area. They experienced a rebirth of cultural self-confidence.

During the colonial era, many Africans lost faith in their own culture as they adopted European attitudes toward Africa. African art and music were considered primitive and crude by Western standards. The literature of Africa—a treasury of oral traditions including myths, proverbs, and folktales—was largely unknown to Europeans, who had no desire to learn about them. Seeing these attitudes, most Africans turned away from their own history and cultural heritage.

Not all Africans, however, followed the European example. In East Africa, Swahili poetry and tales continued to be studied as they had been for hundreds of years. The written records of this Bantu language go back to the 1600s. The language itself has continued to evolve. The acknowledged father of modern Swahili literature is Shaaban Robert, who is best known as a poet but also writes essays and novels.

Many plays and novels have been written in Swahili, the national language of Tanzania and Kenya.

In West Africa, a new literary tradition developed, one using the colonial languages of English and French. Many African authors, especially those from French-speaking areas, first achieved international recognition through works of protest against colonial oppression. In a very intense and personal style, the poems of Léopold Senghor, who later became president of independent Senegal, described the hardships of colonialism. Senghor also celebrated his sense of the deep pride and dignity of being a black African, a concept he called *negritude*, or “blackness.” Senghor’s works, and the novels of Camara Laye, an exile in Senegal, proudly pointed to the deep, spiritual traditions of Africa and its sense of social community. In 1956 the Nigerian playwright and poet Wole Soyinka won the Nobel Prize in literature, becoming the first African to win the coveted award.

These African writers created a new artistic tradition. The result was a remarkable and varied artistic outpouring. Similar achievements were made in reawakening an interest in African music. In addition, a film industry was begun.
The creativity of Africa's contemporary literature, music, and films was also seen in sculpture. In workshops in Nigeria, Zimbabwe, and elsewhere, African artists employed age-old techniques to give shape to wood and copper. Others were more clearly influenced by Western art. Throughout Africa, this mixture of African and outside influences gave an unusual vitality to the arts. More and more westerners began to appreciate the achievements of African art. Africans themselves found a new pride in their ancient heritage and its unique contribution to world culture.

During the war, the British in particular had reestablished their control over strategic countries such as Egypt and Iran. Such control angered many and led to an even more intensive development of nationalism in the region after the war. In addition, the United Nations decision to grant independence to Italy's former colony of Libya raised expectations and demands among the French. North African peoples that they, too, should be free from colonial rule. Not least, the discovery of the extent of the Holocaust, which had almost destroyed the Jewish population of Europe, led to renewed conflict in Palestine and eventually the emergence of the new state of Israel.

**Section 2 Review**

1. Define MPLA, UNITA, desertification, negritude
2. Identify Jerry Rawlings, Ibrahim Babangida, Laurent Kabila, Wole Soyinka
3. Locate and Explain the Significance Horn of Africa, Rwanda
4. Understanding Ideas List three problems that African nations faced after independence.
5. Summarizing Ideas How did superpower rivalries affect the nations of Angola and Ethiopia?
6. Determining Cause and Effect How did ethnic diversity contribute to problems in the independent countries of Africa?
7. Analyzing Ideas How has African culture revived in the last half of the 1900’s?

**Section 3**

**Nationalism in North Africa and the Middle East**

**Focus Questions**

- How did the rise of Arab nationalism in Algeria affect France's position elsewhere in North Africa and the Middle East after World War II?
- How did conflict in Palestine between Arabs and Zionists affect developments in the Middle East in the postwar period?
- What major issues confronted Turkey and Iran after World War II?

As in Africa below the Sahara, World War II was a turning point for North Africa and the Middle East.

French North Africa and the Middle East

Like Great Britain, France was exhausted by World War II. Yet also like the British, the French did not immediately expect to have to give up their colonies. The first successful challenge to French colonialism came in the Middle East, in Syria and Lebanon.

**Syria and Lebanon.** France had first gained control of Syria and Lebanon as a mandate after World War I. In the 1920s, French policy had encouraged the development of a separate state in Lebanon, where there was a slight Christian majority. During World War II, Free French and British troops had taken control of both countries from the Vichy government. After the war, however, despite promises of independence, French troops remained in Syria and Lebanon. Only under British pressure and several brief but bloody battles with Arab nationalists did France finally agree to withdraw. In 1946 both Lebanon and Syria became fully independent republics.

**Algeria.** The success of Arab nationalism in Syria in particular proved an inspiration to Arab nationalists in French North Africa. The heart of the French colonial empire in North Africa was Algeria. Like South Africa within the British Empire, Algeria had a large European settler community, people known as colons, accounting for about 10 percent of the population. These settlers, many of whose families had lived in Algeria since the 1800s, owned most of the colony's industry and best land. Algeria was not just a colony, however, but had been legally absorbed into France. Algerian voters elected representatives to the French National Assembly in Paris, although voting restrictions limited the participation of the large majority of Muslim Arabs.

As nationalism emerged in other parts of the Middle East after World War II, the Algerians also began to demand independence. When both the
Chapter 30 Review

Chapter Summary
The following list contains the key concepts you have learned about Africa and the Middle East since 1945.
1. Independence came rapidly to the African nations after World War II. Most African countries achieved independence peacefully, but a few resorted to violence.
2. South Africa and Rhodesia resisted any efforts to give the black majority of their populations a real voice in government. The South African government institutionalized the apartheid system that separated the races.
3. Africa’s new nations faced a number of difficulties. There was often hostility among the groups within a country. This led to violence in Nigeria. In Angola the superpowers intervened, as they did in the conflict between Ethiopia and Somalia in the Horn of Africa.
4. Africans also faced economic difficulties, ethnic violence, and environmental challenges.
5. African culture experienced a revival after independence. African writers, musicians, and sculptors allowed westerners to appreciate the achievements of African arts.
6. Many nations in the Middle East also gained independence after 1945. Nations that had gained independence earlier reduced the influence of foreign governments.
7. A continuing problem in the Middle East was the relationship between Israel and its Arab neighbors. Several Arab-Israeli wars were fought between 1948 and 1973. An offer of peace by Egypt led to the signing of a peace treaty in 1979, but the other Arab nations rejected the pact.
8. The nations of the Middle East vary enormously in size, population, and wealth. A number of them gained considerable power as a result of the rise in oil prices in the 1970s.
9. A revolution in Iran resulted in the overthrow of the shah and the establishment of an Islamic republic.
10. In 1990 Iraq invaded and annexed the country of Kuwait. A coalition of about 30 countries opposed Iraq and liberated Kuwait. Saddam Hussein, the leader of Iraq, continued to cause problems for UN forces after his defeat in the Persian Gulf War.
11. The rapid changes of the period after World War II led to upheaval and a revival of Islam. The region faced continuing uncertainties and tension in the 1990s. The use and support of terrorism by certain Middle Eastern and North African governments continues to undermine efforts for peace.

Reviewing Important Terms
On a separate sheet of paper, supply the term that correctly completes each statement.
1. The South African policy based on the principle of racial separation became known as _____, the Afrikaans word for apartheid.
2. The movement that promotes the cultural unity of people of African heritage in order to struggle for freedom together is known as _____.
3. Unwise land use patterns have led to _____ or the spread of the desert in Africa.
4. A form of collective farm in Israel is known as _____.
5. In the 1970s, Secretary of State Henry Kissinger began an intensive campaign of _____ in which he moved back and forth from Israel to Egypt to Syria to try to reach a peace agreement.
6. Profits made from oil are often called _____.

Developing Critical Thinking Skills
1. Comparing Ideas (a) How did nationalism after 1945 differ from earlier African leaders? How did each of the following contribute to the rise of nationalism in Africa? (b) Kwame Nkrumah; (c) Jomo Kenyatta; (d) Robert Mugabe.
2. Analyzing Ideas (a) Which African nations achieved independence with relatively little opposition? (b) Which did not? (c) What reasons might account for these different experiences?
3. Interpreting Ideas How is the history of Ghana representative of the postindependence experience of most African nations?
4. Determining Cause and Effect What were the causes and results of the Arab-Israeli War of 1948–1949?
5. Interpreting Ideas Of the changes that occurred in the Middle East after 1945, which do you think has had the most impact on the rest of the world? Why?
Classifying Ideas: Name the country in each of the following political and cultural leaders considered their homelands. (a) Robert Mugabe; (b) Kwame Nkrumah; (c) Chaim Weizmann; (d) Anwar Sadat; (e) Jomo Kenyatta; (f) Gamal Abdel Nasser; (g) Ayatollah Khomeini; (h) Hafiz Asad; (i) Menachem Begin; (j) Saddam Hussein.

Relating Geography to History
Study the map on page 837. (a) How do the oil reserves of Africa compare with the oil reserves of the Middle East? (b) How might this affect the history and politics of the nations of Africa and the Middle East?

Relating Past to Present
1. In the 1990s, the situation in the Middle East has remained unsettled. Do library research to locate recent articles on events in one of the following nations: Egypt, Israel, Saudi Arabia, Iran, Iraq, Syria, Jordan, or Lebanon. (a) How have conditions in this country changed in recent years? (b) How have relations responded to these changing conditions in the Middle East?
2. Examine the pictures of African art in Chapter 13 of this textbook. Then find examples of contemporary African art in sources such as National Geographic or general histories of Africa. On the basis of evidence in these pictures, you examine, support or challenge the following statement: Modern African art reflects a pride in the cultural achievements of earlier African civilizations.

Applying History Study Skills
Before completing this activity, review Building History Study Skills on page 837.

1. In what countries outside the Middle East is drilling for oil a major economic activity?
2. How much of the land on Madagascar used?

Building Your Portfolio
1. Preparing an Oral Report: The novels of Chinua Achebe give westerners a glimpse into Nigerian society and a changing Africa. Read one of these novels, and prepare an oral report on the effects of modernization and the struggle to save or adapt old ways. Possible works include *Man of the People* (Doubleday), *No Longer at Ease* (Doubleday), and *Things Fall Apart* (Doubleday). Place your notes in your portfolio.

2. Preparing a Panel Discussion: Work with a group of your classmates to research information on the capture of the American embassy in Tehran and the seizure of more than 50 American hostages by Iranian militants on November 4, 1979. Find information that describes the effects of the incident on the Iranians, the hostages, the United States, and the world. Then use the information you have collected to prepare a panel discussion on the effects of the incident. Place the notes you collect in your portfolio.

3. Dramatizing History: In recent decades, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) has been prominent in world affairs. Work with several of your classmates to find out how OPEC conducts its meetings. Then conduct a mock OPEC meeting in which the ministers discuss how to raise the price of oil and how to enforce their decisions. Place a report of the panel meeting in your portfolio.

4. Conducting a Debate: Prepare a debate on the following topic to present to the class.

Resolved: The world community of nations should agree never to meet any terrorist demands.

As you and other students prepare your debates, you might find it useful to research some of the terrorist incidents that have taken place in the world in recent years. Place notes from the debate in your portfolio.
Images from Chapter 13


Contemporary African Art

1993

1996

1987