

Spring Semester 2020:

Distance Learning Assignments: World

Each week, there will be a reading assignment from your textbook. For each assignment, you will need to read the assigned pages AND:

- 1. Write a 5+ sentence summary in your own words of the material covered in the reading.**
- 2. Include 2 vocabulary definitions from the reading. The definitions should be in your own words.**
- 3. You will need to email me at dalmasc@luhsd.net your summary and vocabulary. (both should be in the same email.) BE SURE TO INCLUDE IN YOUR EMAIL YOUR FULL NAME (First and last) AND Period AND THE TITLE OF THE READING ASSIGNMENT. (for example, US Reading Assignment Week One)**

You can email throughout each week day (Monday through Friday) 8:15 a.m. - 3:00p.m. if you have any questions.

Email: dalmasc@luhsd.net

5. Tanzania: The Struggle for Development

The East African country of Tanzania became an independent state in the 1960s, along with many other African nations. Its first leader had a strong vision for the country. However, like most African nations, Tanzania struggled to develop.

Independence and Self-Rule The modern country of Tanzania was formed by the union of the territories of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Tanganyika was the larger and more populous of the two. It was colonized by Germany in the late 1800s where the Germans established plantations to grow export crops such as rubber, cotton, and coffee.

After World War I, Britain took over Tanganyika under a League of Nations mandate. When the League dissolved after World War II, the colony became a UN trust territory administered by the United Nations and supervised by the British. In 1961, Tanganyika gained independence in a peaceful transfer of power. The leader of the independence movement, Julius Nyerere, became president in 1963.

Zanzibar—a group of islands off the East African coast—became a British protectorate in the late 1800s. Before that, Arab sultans had ruled the islands. The sultans continued to act as formal rulers, even after the British established a protectorate over Zanzibar. Zanzibar was famed for its spices, especially cloves. In fact, the scent of cloves was said to be so strong that sailors on the Indian Ocean could smell it far out at sea.

Zanzibar gained independence from Britain in 1963. A year later, it joined with Tanganyika to form the United Republic of Tanzania. Zanzibar retained substantial autonomy, however. Although it took part in the national government, it also had its own president and legislature.

Socialism Under Nyerere Tanzania's first president after independence, Julius Nyerere, played a crucial role in the country's development. He was an honest and respected leader who tried to serve his country's interests. Unlike many African leaders, he did not use his power for personal gain. However, as he acknowledged himself, he made many mistakes along the way.

Nyerere wanted to build a socialist society in Tanzania. He established free public education and carried out literacy campaigns. He nationalized industries and placed farmland under collective ownership. In pursuing his socialist policies, Nyerere made Tanzania a one-party state, though he allowed democratic rights within that system. He called his socialist program *ujamaa*, a Swahili word for "familyhood." He hoped it would ensure equality for all.

Nyerere also pursued an active foreign policy. He became a leader of the nonaligned movement during the Cold War. He also helped found the Organization of African Unity, now known as the African Union. Nyerere supported the anti-apartheid movement in South Africa and the struggle for independence in Zimbabwe. He also worked to oust the brutal dictator, Idi Amin, in neighboring Uganda.



Julius Nyerere led the movement for Tanzanian independence. He became the country's first president in 1962. Nyerere was a respected and effective political leader. On the other hand, his socialist economic policies proved to be disastrous for the Tanzanian economy.



On August 7, 1998, the Islamic militant group al Qaeda bombed the U.S. embassy in Tanzania. In this photo, an FBI investigator speaks with U.S. Marine outside the destroyed embassy building. The attack in Dar es Salaam was accompanied by a simultaneous attack by al Qaeda on the U.S. embassy in Nairobi, Kenya.

Nyerere's political leadership earned him widespread praise, both at home and abroad. His social policies helped overcome ethnic and regional differences and unite the country, but his economic policies were a disaster. Tanzania remained one of the poorest countries in the world. Its state-owned industries were inefficient and corrupt. In addition, most farmers opposed Nyerere's policy of collective agriculture. Individual incentive and productivity declined, and farm production collapsed. In the end, Nyerere was forced to abandon the scheme.

Despite his economic failures, Nyerere's rule helped make Tanzania one of the most politically stable countries in Africa. He was elected to four full terms in office. Eventually, he voluntarily stepped down in 1985, when he handed power over to another elected leader.

Tanzania Today Nyerere's successors moved Tanzania toward a free market economic system. They turned many state-owned companies over to private hands. These policies helped promote economic growth. During the 2000s, the country's gross domestic product (GDP) grew by around 6 percent a year. Still, Tanzania remains a poor, developing country. Living standards have not improved much for most Tanzanians.

Nyerere's successors also reformed Tanzania's political system. They allowed various political parties to take part in elections. In general, the electoral process has been peaceful and orderly. The country has had some problems with political violence, however. In 1998, al Qaeda militants bombed the U.S. embassy in the main city of Dar es Salaam. Zanzibar has also seen a rise in Islamic extremism. Though for the most part, Tanzania has maintained its political stability.

6. Further Upheaval in Africa

In addition to Tanzania, 44 African countries gained their independence between 1956 and 1976. Not all countries were as successful as Tanzania in transitioning from colonial rule to independence. These countries carried the legacy of decades of European imperialism.

Africa's Colonial Legacy When European powers divided Africa in the late 1800s, they paid little attention to the traditional homelands of African peoples. Europeans drew borders that cut across these homelands, dividing ethnic and cultural groups and putting different groups in the same territory. Since independence, most of these borders have remained.

The newly independent countries that emerged lacked cultural and social unity. In some cases, power struggles occurred along ethnic or religious lines. These divisions destabilized some countries, with insurgent movements, civil wars, and coups d'état occurring within a decade of independence.

Other nations were able to develop stable governments, but stability came at a cost for many. To maintain order, some leaders became authoritarian dictators and sought to limit the power of, or even ban, opposing political parties. Throughout the continent, political parties and governments aligned themselves with the Cold War superpowers—the United States and the Soviet Union—to gain political and economic support.

The new African nations also faced severe economic problems. European powers had exploited the colonies for their resources and labor. They built mines and plantations to produce raw materials for export. They rarely established industries or infrastructure that would benefit the nations themselves.

In general, European powers failed to prepare Africans for independence. In most countries, education levels remained low. There was a shortage of trained professionals—managers, doctors, engineers, and political leaders—to build the new nations.

This colonial legacy made it hard for African nations to advance. Their economies were weak and their governments unstable, making them prone to social and political upheaval. In many cases, governments relied on repression to maintain stability. Moreover, European countries continued to exercise considerable political and economic influence over their former colonies, challenging the autonomy of these states.



After the independent Democratic Republic of Congo's first prime minister was removed from office, competing groups fought for control of the government. Unrest and rebellion plagued the country until 1965, when Mobutu Sese Seko, the leader of the army, took over the country in a coup. An authoritarian ruler, Mobutu amassed a vast personal fortune during his nearly 32 years in power.

Changing Standards of Living in Africa In post-colonial Africa, many economies struggled. Most emerging African nations remained dependent on exporting a few agricultural products or minerals. This made their economies highly unstable. Widespread economic downturns resulted from events such as fluctuations in commodity prices and droughts that limited agricultural productivity.

In the first decades after independence, especially between 1960 and 1980, some countries tried to develop industrially. However, these attempts often did not succeed. Markets for goods produced in Africa were limited and frequently difficult to reach. Production itself was ultimately very costly because countries took on foreign debt to support industrial growth. These economic difficulties were further complicated by political instability and rapid population growth.

This resulted in limited access to resources for most Africans, which in turn affected life expectancy and living standards. In the early 1960s, life expectancy in sub-Saharan Africa was around 41 years. Today, that number has only improved to just over 60 years. These figures are the lowest of any region of the world.

Since the 1980s, AIDS has further lowered life expectancy in Africa. Deaths from AIDS have taken a massive toll on African society. Unlike other diseases, HIV, the underlying cause of AIDS, develops slowly. People may have the disease for years without knowing. In 2000, more than one-third of adults in sub-Saharan Africa were living with HIV/AIDS. AIDS was also the number one cause of death in Africa that year. The human costs have been devastating.

Over time, the AIDS epidemic has taken its toll on countries in a variety of ways. Deaths caused by the disease have left millions of children orphaned. To protect these vulnerable children, governments have supported programs to ensure that they stay in school and remain HIV-free. Additionally, most individuals with the disease are working-age adults. High levels of death and disability can affect a country's economic health. For example, in the worst years of the epidemic, exports decreased in some countries, and dependence on imports increased.

While countries were dealing with the economic effects of HIV/AIDS, they also spent resources on treatment and prevention programs. Fortunately, with more accessible treatments and greater knowledge about prevention, people are now living longer. New HIV infections rates are declining in sub-Saharan Africa.

These social and economic challenges are just some of the issues African nations have faced since decolonization. Four countries—Botswana, Ghana, Nigeria, and South Africa—serve as case studies for the development of independent African nations.

Rising Standard of Living in Botswana Botswana is considered an example for African countries to follow. From independence in 1966 to 2014, it had one of the world's fastest growing economies. Its GDP per capita, a measure of standard of living, is nearly 100 times what it was in 1966, with diamonds serving as a major source of income. Government revenue has supported the development of rural infrastructure and welfare services. Moreover, despite the AIDS epidemic, life expectancy is higher there than in the rest of sub-Saharan Africa.



A billboard promotes HIV testing along a road in Uganda, where social stigmas prevent men from getting tested.

Botswana is also one of Africa's most stable democracies. Since independence, it has held free elections every five years, and corruption in government is limited. Voting rates tend to be between 60 and 70 percent, and citizens participate in community meetings at a similar rate. Although Botswana has a multiparty system, one party has held power since independence.

In recent years, other African countries have also experienced economic growth. Between 1999 and 2008, the poverty rates in many African countries declined. Since 2005, GDP per capita has increased by more than 20 percent in sub-Saharan Africa. In the same period, GDP per capita has also increased in North Africa—by around 40 percent in Morocco, 13 percent in Algeria, and 32 percent in Egypt. Six countries—Algeria, Egypt, Mauritius, Morocco, Seychelles, and Tunisia—have nearly eliminated extreme poverty.

With vast natural resources, such as oil, cobalt, and copper, many countries have the potential to develop economically. However, these countries may also have to diversify their economies so they do not depend on a small number of exports. Furthermore, some countries will need to address issues related to government stability and corruption, as well as income inequality, to ensure that benefits reach all of society.

Ghana After Independence Ghana was the first sub-Saharan country to gain independence in the 20th century. Kwame Nkrumah became the country's first leader in 1957. Within a year, he implemented authoritarian policies. However, he remained popular due to his efforts to develop Ghana's infrastructure. As foreign debt to fund development crippled the country, this popularity faded. As the economy began to fail, Nkrumah increased his political control and sought aid from communist countries. In 1964, constitutional amendments increased Nkrumah's power by naming him president for life and establishing one-party rule.

With the economy weakening, the army staged a coup in 1966 and implemented more conservative economic policies. Nkrumah went into exile. During the next decades, a series of military and civilian governments ruled Ghana. The economy remained weak with foreign debt and little income from exports.

In 1979, Jerry Rawlings, an air force officer, overthrew the government and helped return Ghana to civilian rule. He hoped new leadership would rid the country of corruption and improve the economy. Disappointed with weak civilian rule, he staged another coup in 1981.



Although he was forced out of the country and died in exile, Kwame Nkrumah is respected by many in Ghana today. Many consider him the founding father of the nation. In 1992, the Kwame Nkrumah Memorial Park was established in Ghana's capital, Accra. This statue of Nkrumah sits in front of the mausoleum where he is buried.



The city of Lagos in western Nigeria was the country's first capital. In 1991, the capital moved to Abuja (pictured), which is in the center of the country. Many people hoped the move would help to unite this diverse country.

Rawlings successfully employed free market strategies, such as privatizing companies and devaluing the currency to increase exports, to bolster the economy. By the early 1990s, Ghana had the highest economic growth rates in Africa. In 1992, the first presidential election was held since 1979. Despite some viewing Rawlings as an authoritarian, he won the presidency and, in 1996, did so again. In 2001, he stepped down, and power was peacefully transferred to the new democratically elected government. Ghana's government remains stable and democratically elected. However, economic growth and corruption continue to be top concerns.

Nigeria's Search for Stability Nigeria further illustrates some of the challenges that faced African nations. A former British colony, Nigeria gained independence in 1960. At first, its prospects looked good as it was one of the largest and richest countries in Africa. However, ethnic problems soon divided the nation.

Nigeria is home to three main ethnic groups. The Hausa-Fulani, a mostly Muslim group, live in the north. The Yoruba, half of whom are Christian and half of whom are Muslim, live in the southwest. The Igbo, a mostly Catholic group, live in the southeast. After independence, these groups shared power in a federal system of government. Each group tried to gain advantage, fearing domination by the others.

The political system soon broke down. In 1966, a group of army officers—mostly Igbos—overthrew the government. A few months later, Hausa officers staged a counter-coup and toppled the new regime. Rioting erupted against the Igbos, and thousands were killed.

In 1967, the Igbo region seceded from Nigeria. It called itself the Republic of Biafra. Civil war broke out and more than a million people died, mostly from starvation. In 1970, Biafra was defeated and forcibly reincorporated back into Nigeria.

After the war, the army kept control over Nigeria for most of the next three decades. It claimed that military rule was necessary to ensure peace and prosperity. Although the army promised to return power to civilians, it repeatedly went back on that pledge.

In 1999, however, democracy was finally restored. By this time, Nigeria had become one of the world's leading oil producers. The government hoped to use oil income to develop the country, but the results were mixed. Oil revenues brought great wealth to Nigeria, but corruption also increased. Meanwhile, other sectors of the economy—including farming and manufacturing—suffered from neglect. Most Nigerians remained desperately poor. Two-thirds of the population lived on less than \$1 per day. Oil also led to conflict, as residents of the Niger Delta—the country's main oil region—demanded a fair share of the oil wealth. Armed groups kidnapped oil workers and attacked oil facilities.

Ethnic and religious conflicts also increased under democratic rule. Violence erupted between Muslims and Christians, especially in northern Nigeria. Thousands of people died in these riots.

Nevertheless, Nigeria has managed to remain democratic. Several free elections have taken place since the end of military rule. This record of democracy and the rule of law offers hope that Nigeria can maintain stability and move beyond the troubles of the past.



Signs designating “whites only” areas were common under apartheid in South Africa.

South Africa's Struggle for Democracy South Africa also faced great obstacles in its path to democratic rule. It won independence from the United Kingdom in 1910, long before most African nations. However, the end of colonial rule did not bring freedom for most South Africans.

After independence, South Africa remained under the control of its white minority. The state passed laws to deny basic rights to blacks, Asians, and mixed-race peoples, all of whom made up four-fifths of the population. This policy continued under the Afrikaner-led National Party, which gained power in 1948. The Afrikaners are people descended from the first Dutch colonists in South Africa.

As the majority party in government, the National Party instituted a policy of apartheid, or racial separation. It imposed segregation throughout society—in schools, offices, parks, restaurants, and theaters. It also set up a system of ten African homelands, or separate regions of the country where blacks were meant to live. Under apartheid, everyone was classified by race. Only whites were allowed to vote in national elections or hold public office at the national level. The police could arrest and detain people without trial, including anyone who opposed the government.

Many South Africans, including some whites, resisted apartheid. The strongest opposition came from the African National Congress (ANC), a group formed in 1912 to promote black rights. The ANC organized marches, strikes, and other protests. The government cracked down on these actions, killing many protesters and putting others in jail. One of those jailed in 1964 was the ANC leader Nelson Mandela.

South Africa's repressive policies sparked criticism around the world. The United Nations condemned apartheid and placed an arms embargo on the country. Various countries also imposed economic sanctions on South Africa, restricting trade and investment. The United States was slow to join the antiapartheid movement, but eventually it too called for change.

Under mounting pressure, South Africa finally agreed to reforms. The process began slowly but picked up speed under a new president, F.W. de Klerk. In 1990, de Klerk released Nelson Mandela from prison. Over the next two years, the government struck down most apartheid laws. It also announced that free, democratic elections would be held in 1994. The ANC won the elections, and Nelson Mandela became the country's first black president. He promised to promote national unity and equal rights for all. In 1996, the South African parliament passed a new constitution that enshrined those principles in law, establishing a democratic state.

Like Mandela, South Africa's subsequent leaders have tried to address the country's many economic and social problems. They have launched programs in education, housing, and other public services. Nevertheless, poverty has remained a serious problem. Many South Africans have struggled to meet their basic needs. Other concerns included high crime rates, HIV/AIDS, and corruption. Despite these challenges, South Africa's successful transition to democracy has given hope to many for the future.