

UNIT ONE

STATES AND PEOPLES OF THE SOUTHERN ETHIOPIA IN THE 19TH CENTURY

Introduction

This unit deals with the territory to south and southeast of Abay River which consisted of many states and peoples.

Among these, there were groups of states such as the Omotic states, the Oromo states, the Shewan kingdom, the Harar Emirate, the Sheikdoms of Asosa Benishangul and Komosha. Several other autonomous states and peoples were in different stages of socio-economic and political development. The political organization of some of these states was based on a monarchical system. Most of these states followed the power of the kings (rulers) by propagating the idea of divine kingships. The Muslim communities of the region also possessed well organized states known as Sheikdoms or Emirates. The political organization of the rest of the states of the south followed traditional political systems of different sorts.

In the 19th century the peoples and states of Ethiopian region had maintained strong economic relationships with one another. This economic relationship was created by trade and trade routes which bound the region together as a single economic unit.

Objectives

After studying this unit students will be able to:

- * mention the various states and peoples found south and south east of Abay River;
- * point out the different autonomous states that existed in Ethiopian region, until the end of 19th century or before the formation of modern Ethiopian empire;
- * explain the importance of long distance trade in the economy of the Ethiopian region; and
- * appreciate the importance of long distance trade in promoting interaction among different people of the Ethiopian region in various aspects of social life.

Terms to know

- Astessor
- Mikerecho
- Tate-kisho
- Mowa
- Minjo

- Tato
- Erasho (rasho)
- Mobilization
- Waso
- Incorporated
- Monarchy
- Watch tower
- Manjo
- Musk

1.1. The Omotic States

The peoples and the states which occupied the territory around the Omo river basin speak various languages collectively known by linguists as Omotic languages. The peoples and the states are also known by the genetic linguistic term of Omotic. So around thirty different languages are classified under the Omotic family. The most important languages under the Omotic language family are Kaffa, Walayita, Dawuro, Bench, Dorze Gamo, Gofa, Koyra, Yem, Sheka, and Maji.

The Kingdom of Kaffa

It is found south of the Gojeb river. The land is Kaffa and the people are called Kaffecho. The origins of the kingdom can be traced as far back as the fourteenth century. The names of two dynasties are very important in the history of the Kaffa Kingdom. These dynasties were Matto and Minjo. The Matto dynasty ruled Kaffa before 1390. The first king of the Minjo dynasty was Minjilo and after whom, the ruling dynasty came to be known as Minjo.

In the 19th century, particularly between 1821 and 1897, five prominent kings successively ruled Kaffa. They were:

Gahe Nhchochi (r.1821-1841), Kawe Erochi (r. 1841-1843), Kaji Sharochi (r.1843-1868), (Gali Sarochi r.1868- 1890 (Galito), Gaki Sharochi. (r 1890-1897).

During the reign of these kings, the kingdom developed its monarchical system and was extended to south, southwest northeast of Kaffa. The administration of the kingdom was divided into twelve and

later into eighteen provinces. The Kaffa kings held a royal title called tato. The tato was assisted by a state councilors called Mikerecho. There were eight Mikerecho with one non- permanent member. The land in the Kingdom was considered as the property of the king. Here the concept of the king and the state are overlapped. The kingdom of Kaffa was known to have an efficient system of frontier defense. All along the territory of Kaffa, watch towers were secretly erected at high points to watch and detect the approach of the enemy. The approach of the enemy was signaled by beating drums that imply call for mobilization. The drums from the border were beaten by assigned clans called the Manjo. The Manjo are known to have been outcaste clans in Kaffa.

The economy of Kaffa was based on agriculture. The peasants produced different kinds of crops. They also kept Civet cat to collect musk. The peasants paid taxes from their products including the collected musk. Taxes were collected by assigned collectors called Tate- kisho, meaning the hand of the king. Taxes were collected in kinds. The economy of Kaffa was also supplemented by trade. The most trade items of Kaffa were: coffee, ivory, musk, slave and gold. Long distance trade routes linked Bonga, the center of the kingdom with the center and the coast of Ethiopian region. Many merchants from different directions came to Kaffa market places in search of lucrative commodities, which are mentioned above. Kaffa is also known for its coffee production. Beads, salt bars and iron bars were used as medium of exchange. There also existed traditional iron industry.

Following the expansion of Menilik, Kaffa was finally incorporated into the Ethiopian Empire in 1897.

The kingdom of Yem

Another Omotic state was the kingdom of Yem. The Yem people occupied the western bank of Gibe river. Yem existed as political entity since the fourteenth century. In the nineteenth century the kingdom of Yem was ruled by a dynasty called the Mowa. The kings of Yem adopted a title called ano. The kings were both religious and political heads of their

people. The administration of the kingdom was hierarchically organized. The king was at the top of the social pyramid, and he was the most powerful figure in the kingdom. Below him, there was a council of officials known as astesor.

The astesor was chaired by an official who had the title called waso. The kingdom of Yem was divided into provinces and subprovinces. These provinces and subprovinces were ruled by officials known as erasho(rasho)and gena respectively. The economy of the kingdom was based on agriculture. The peasants paid tributes directly to the king. Trade and handicrafts such as weaving and iron work, were

auxiliary economic activities for the people of Yem. This kingdom was finally conquered by the force of Menelik in 1894.

The Kingdom of Walayita

The other prominent state in southwestern Ethiopia was the kingdom of Walayita. This kingdom had a strong connection with the medieval state of Damot. The founder of this kingdom was Motalami. Motalami founded a dynasty called Walayita Malla. Walayita Malla was established around the beginning of fourteenth century. In the fifteen century the Walayita Malla dynasty was ousted from power and replaced by a rival dynasty called "Tigre". The Tigre dynasty ruled Walayita until the end of nineteenth century. While this dynasty was in power, Walayita expanded its territory towards the south and west. The kings of Walayita used the royal title called Kawo. The "goqa" were the privileged warrior class of Walayita kingdom. The economy of Walayita was based on Agriculture. All land in the kingdom was the property of a king. The king had also absolute power over the life and property of his people. These warrior classes resided around the court of the Walayita kings. The last king to rule independent Walayita was Kawo Tona. Walayita was finally conquered by Menilik II in 1894 after a stiff resistance.

The Kingdom of Sheka

This kingdom was found to the east of Baro and west of Gojeb Rivers or to the west of Kaffa kingdom. Sheka had two ruling dynasties before the end of the nineteenth century. These ruling dynasties were Batto and Bushasho. Much is not known about the Batto dynasty. The first Sheka Bushasho king migrated from neighbouring Anfillo to Sheka at the end of sixteen century. The Bushasho dynasty of Sheka ruled from the end of 16th to the 19th centuries. Christianity is believed to have been introduced to Sheka in the late sixteenth century. For the brief period in the seventeen century, Sheka was conquered by the Mecha Oromo Tribe. But it regained its independence at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The kings of Sheka like Kaffa used the royal title "tato". The kingdom of Sheka had a close economic, political and historical relationship with Enarya, Kaffa and Anfillo.

Traditions of Sheka kingdom recognized the names of five kings of the nineteenth century. These were:

Bedi Nechochi (r.1800-1805), Tachi Nechechi (r.1805-1810), Gali Goechi (r.1820-1850), Deji Goechi (r.1850-1887), Techie Goechi (r.1887-1898)

Besides the above states, there were also other Omotic states. Among these the most important were the kingdoms of Dawuro, Konta, Gamo and Gofa.

1.2. The Oromo Monarchies

Terms to Know

- Autonomy

- Monarchy
- Emirate
- Sheikdoms
- Gada system
- Pastoral life

What was the major political transformation the Oromo of the Gibe valley had undergone in the 19th century?

Another group of states emerged in the south-western Ethiopia in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries belonged to the Oromo people. At the beginning of nineteenth century, monarchical states emerged in Oromo settled areas of Gibe Valley. At the time of the Oromo population movement and expansion, the Gibe basin was occupied by the various clans of the Macha Oromo. At the time of their expansion and the Mecha Oromo mainly led pastoral life and they were governed by the gada system.

By about 1800, however, the Oromo of the Gibe Valley had undergone a profound political transformation. The traditional gada system was transformed into monarchical system of government.

Many factors accounted for this transformation. Firstly, the Oromo of this region had come into contact with Omotic states which had a long tradition of monarchical government. Secondly, the expansion of Oromo into wide area affected the system which worked very well in small groups. Thirdly, the long distance trade and the spread of Islam seem to have undermined the power of the gada government. Finally, frequent wars gave rise to powerful individuals such as the Abba dulas who became influential. On the whole, the combination of the above factors were responsible for the decline of the gada system and the rise of monarchical government.

The monarchical system of government first emerged around the beginning of nineteenth century. This historical development took place among the Oromo around the Gibe River and Wellega. Five states emerged around Gibe River which came to be known as the "Gibe monarchies". These were Gera, Goma, Guma, Jimma and Limu-Enarya. The earliest of these monarchical states was Limu-Enarya. This state was built on the ruins of the medieval kingdom of Enarya/ Hinnario. Enarya was defeated after long period of resistance by the Mecha Oromo.

Limu-Enarya became powerful because it controlled the long distance trade route of the region. Limu-Enarya reached the height of its power during the reign of Abba- Bagibo, or Ibsa (r.1825-1861). From the middle of nineteenth century on Limu-Enarya declined and gave way to its rival, Jimma Kaka. Jimma under its ruler, Abba Jifar became powerful and controlled trade and trade routes.

At about the same time, three Oromo kingdoms emerged to the west and southwest of Jimma. These were Gera Goma and Guma. All the Gibe states were located along the trade route which accounted for their rise and prosperity.

At about the middle of nineteenth century, two other Oromo states emerged in Wollega region. One of these states was Leqa Neqemt. This state was founded by a Bakare Godana. This state reached at the height of its power during the reigns of Moroda and his son Kumsa. Kumsa was later baptized taking the Christian name, Gebre Igzeber. When Menelik's territorial expansion was under way, Kumsa peacefully

subdued and was able to maintain his local autonomy. Kumsa ruled Leqa Neqemt in the 2nd half of the nineteenth century.

The other Oromo state in Wollega region was Leqa Qellam. Leqa Qellam was founded by Tullu and became powerful during the reign of his son Jote Tullu. The main source of Leqa Quellam wealth and power was its cross-frontier gold trade and the trade with neighbouring Shiekdoms of Aqoldy and Bela Shangul.

1.3. The Harar Emirate

Terms to Know

- Currency
- Pastoralists
- Sedentary
- Shrines
- Hegemony

Explain why the Harari people build wall around the city of Harar.

The Harari people lived in the city of Harar. In the nineteenth century, they possessed a highly organized system of government. The political organization of Harari people was the result of political developments of the past centuries. The Sultanate of Adal was the most powerful state in the 15th and 16th centuries and much of the territory in the East had been under the hegemony of this sultanate. For most of this period, the sultanate ruled the region from its center in Harar.

In 1577 the pressure of the Oromo expansion forced the sultanate of Adal to shift its center from Harar to Ausa in the north east of the Awash valley. A little before this time, Harar city was also surrounded by a stone wall to resist the Oromo pressure. This wall was built by Emir Nur, the immediate successor of Ahmed Ibrahim Ibin El Ghazi, commonly known as Ahmed Gragh.

The shift of the Adalite political center had one important consequence. This was the emergence of

the Harar Emirate. From 1577 to the middle of the seventeenth century on, the emirs of Harar paid annual tribute to the Imam of Aussa. The tributary relation came to an end with rise of Emir Ali Dawud. Ali Dawud (r. 1647-1662). He declared the independence of the Harar emirate. The Emir established a dynasty that was to rule Harar up to the last quarter of the nineteenth century.

For more than two centuries, Harar became the most important trade center in the East. The city was strategically situated between the trade routes of the northern Somali Coasts and the Interior of the Ethiopian region. Two routes from the northern Somali ports of Zeila and Berbera meet at Harar. These trade routes further proceeded to the interior of the Ethiopian region. These trade routes were controlled by the state of Harar, which made it very prosperous.

Fig.1.5. Harar town at the beginning of the 20th century

The commerce of Harar was an important economic asset to the surrounding Oromos and Somalis. During the first wave of the Oromo expansion, the city had secluded itself from the communities outside the city. As the initial waves of the Oromo expansion subsided, the seclusion gave way for the economic interaction between the Harari behind the wall and the Oromos and the Somalis outside the wall. When this process started, the contact between two groups was very limited. The gates of the wall were opened only for trading purposes. The merchants and local traders from outside the wall were forced to surrender their weapons at the city gates.

The security measures were gradually abandoned and free movement inside and outside the city started. In fact, common economic interests determined closer and peaceful interactions among the peoples. The Oromos around the city became good farmers. These farmers exchanged their agricultural products for items brought to the city by foreign merchants.

The fertile territories around Harar produced grain, varieties of fruits and vegetables, coffee and chat. Above all, the last two items, coffee and chat, together with dyes and ostrich feathers, formed the major export of Harar. These items were supplied by the communities around the city of Harar. Therefore, economic interdependence created the ground for more and broader interaction among the peoples of the region.

The growth of the trade of the region made Harar wealthy and prosperous. The city developed its own currency as early as the 17th century. The wealth made the emirate very powerful and it gradually extended its hegemony over the surrounding Oromos and the Somalis. The extension of hegemonic power was facilitated by economic links and marriage relations. Above all, the spread of Islam among the Oromos and the Somalis was important in promoting the power of the Harar Emirate.

Harar is one of the earliest centers of Islam in Ethiopian region. The city of Harar continued to serve as the center of Islamic religious study and training. In this way, the Emirate became a center of the Islamic culture. A number of mosques were built in the city. The Grand Mosque and the palace of Emir were the most important edifices of the city. There were also several religious shrines in the city. The Harari possessed well developed handicrafts.

The emirate had maintained close economic and political ties with Yemen and the Arabian Peninsula through Zeilla and Berbera ports. Many foreigners lived in the city of Harar. Among these, the most important were the Arabs, Persians, Turks, Armenians and the Greeks. But the

emirate had no direct relations with Europeans. The emirs were suspicious of Europeans whom they did not allow to enter into their territory. Europeans who tried to enter Harar were often imprisoned or killed. But in 1855, the British traveler Sir Richard Burton was able to stay in the city for ten days. Burton's visit had strong impact on the emirates future. This traveler disclosed the wealth of the city as well as the strategic importance of the emirate to the outside world. In the consequence the first threat came from the Egyptians. In 1875 the ruler of Egypt, Khedive Ishmael (r.1863-1879) sent a military expedition led by Mohammed Rauf Pasha and occupied Harar.

After ten years of occupation. The Egyptian army withdrew in 1885. Soon after the withdrawal of the Egyptian troops Menelik of Shawa,

defeated the force of the last Emir of Harar, Emir Abdullahi at the battle of Chalenqo, on January 6, 1887 and conquered Harar. With that the independent existence of Harar came to an end. The Emirate as well as the surrounding Oromos and Somalis were incorporated into the Ethiopian Empire.

1.4. The Sheikdoms Asosa, Benishangul and Komosha

During the nineteenth century, there existed Muslim states or Sheikdoms situated along the Ethio Sudan border. These were Asosa, or Aqoldi, Beni Shangul and Khoosha. The main factor for the rise of these Muslim States was the influence of Islam and the border trade. This region was very rich in gold. This and other natural resources of these states attracted the Sudanese (the Mahdists) and the Egyptians to develop a special interest in the region. However, their attempt to control the region failed as the result of the incorporation of the whole region in to Menelik's Empire in 1880s and in 1890s.

1.5. The Shawan Kingdom

Terms to Know

Domain

Negus

Effective administrative

Successors

Envoy

Aristocrat

Fire armed

How do you account to the growth of Shawan autonomy?

Shawa was founded in 1695 by the local aristocrat called Negasi Kirstos. The core area of the Shawa state was a locality called Menz. After Negasi Kirstos, Shawa was ruled by his successors; Sibste (r.1703-1745), Amha Yesus(r.1745-1775), Asfa Wossen(r.1775-1808), and Wosen Seged (r.1808-1813). These successors of Negasi expanded the frontiers of Shawa into the territories of the neighbouring Oromo and Gurage lands.

The distance Shawa had from the center of Christian kingdom (Gondar) allowed the Shawan rulers to exercise full authority in their kingdom. From about the middle of eighteenth century, Shawa ceased to pay tribute to Gondar and became virtually independent from Gonderian rule.

Shawa reached the height of its power during the reign of Shale Selassie(r.1813-1847). He was the first Shawan ruler to adopt the title Negus for himself. The former rulers of Shawa were simply contained with the titles like Meridazmach and Abeto. Shale Selassie was able to organize an effective administrative system for his kingdom. The administration of Shawa was sub-divided in to nine provinces, namely, Minjar; Bulga, Yafat, Gidim, Tegulet, Menze, Gishe, Moret and Shawa-Meda. These were administered by their respective governors who were appointed by the king and answerable to him.

The economy of Shawa was based on agriculture. Trade also contributed a great deal to the wealth and consolidation of the kingdom. The territorial expansions of king Shale Selassie enabled the kingdom to have access to a supply of ivory, coffee, Gold, civet cat and slaves. These trade items were very important to get fire arms. King Shale Selassie, like other rulers and chief of his time, was interested in firearms and military technology as this would enable him to silence his rivals.

The economic prosperity and political stability of the Kingdom attracted a considerable European interest in Shawa. During the reign of king Shale Selassie, many Europeans who visited shewa tried to influence their governments to establish relations with the Shawan rulers. The first Europeans to approach the Shawan king were the missionaries Isenberg and Krapf, who arrived at the court of Shale Selassie in 1837. In 1839 another European, the French chemist Rochet d'Hericourt, came to Shewa. He tried to influence the French government to establish relations with the kingdom.

However, the British government took the lead in establishing relation with the kingdom. On the basis of Krapf's recommendation, Britain sent an envoy to Shawa in 1841. This envoy was led by W.C.Harris who succeeded in securing a formal treaty between the British and Shawa. Later in 1843 the French envoy Rochet d' Heircourt, on the behalf of his Government signed a treaty of commerce and friendship with Sahle Selassie. These foreign contacts helped king Sahle Selassie to get firearms with which he was able to expand his kingdom.

King Sahle Selassie died in 1847 and was succeeded by his son Haile Melekot. The reign of Haile Melekot (r.1847-1856), marked the end of the autonomous existence of Shawa. This was because Emperor Tewodros II (r.1855-1868) campaigned to Shawa in 1856 and made it one of his provinces. King Haile Melekot died a little before Tewodros defeated the Shawan force at the Battle of Bereket, in November 1855. At the end of his Shawan campaign Tewodros captured Menilik, the son of Haile Melekot and brought him to his court where he stayed for the coming ten years. In 1865, Menilik

escaped from Meqdella royal prison and established his power in Shawa. His first capital was at Ankober and with the expansion of his domain; he shifted his center to Entoto until the founding of Addis Ababa.

Questions

1. When did Shawa reach the height of its power?
2. Who was responsible for the founding of the kingdom of Shawa in 1695?
3. What were the traditional titles of the Shawan rulers?
4. What are the events that marked the end of the Shawan autonomous existence?

Fig 1.7 Menelik king of Shawa and later Emperor of Ethiopia

1.6. Trade and Trade Routes

Terms to Know

- Amole
- Barter (bartering)
- Caravan
- Entities
- Institution
- Medium of exchange
- Nagadras
- Robbers

The Ethiopian region in the 19th century was divided into several political entities. However, the people and the states of the region had close economic ties with one another. In the nineteenth century different states and peoples of the Ethiopian region were interconnected by chains of trade routes. Which connected the trade of the Ethiopian region with the Red Sea commerce.

The trade routes, which linked various territories of the Ethiopian region, consisted of two main lines. The starting point for both lines was the south western part of the Ethiopian region. One of the lines begins from Bonga, the capital of the Kingdom of Kaffa, and connected the peoples and states of the southern region with the northern part of the region. Starting from Bonga, this trade route ran northwards through important trade centers such as, Jiren (in Jimma), Seka (in Limu Enarya), Asendabo (in Horro gudru), Basso (in Gojjam), and Darita (in Begemider). From Darita the routes enter Gondar, the important trading center in the northern region. At Gondar the trade routes branched into two. One branch of the trade route proceeded westward to the Sudan through Metemma (Galabat). The other branch ran northward through Adwa and entered Massawa on the Red Sea coast. In the first decades of the nineteenth century, these trade routes were crucial significant for commercial activities of the Ethiopian region.

The second major line of trade route connected the Ethiopian region with Zeila and Berbera, the most important commercial centers of the northern Somali coast. This route was very important, particularly during the reign of Negus Sahale Selassie. This line also served the Shewan kingdom when it was detached from Gonderian rule during the "Era of Princes" ("Zemene Mesafint").

The second major trade route started from Jiren, Jimma and moved to Seka. From Seka it changed its course towards the south east and continued to Sodoo and Rogge near Mount Yerer. This trade route continued and passed through the town of Aliyu Amba, the most important trade center in the kingdom of Shawa. Then it ran eastward to Harar, where it branched into two and proceeded to Zeila and Berbera.

A great variety of items were exchanged in the trade between the Ethiopian region and the Red Sea coast. In Ethiopia, the main source of trade items was the southwestern part of the region where coffee, ivory, gold, animal skin, rhinoceros's horn, musk and slave were plentiful. Some of these items were consumed by the local markets. Coffee, for instance, was not exported in large quantity until the beginning of 20th century. On the other hand, slavery was widespread institution throughout the Ethiopian region. Slaves caught in different part of the region were sold on local market places like Abdul Rasul, near Aliyu Amba, Gindeberet in the north western Shawa and Yejube in Gojjam. Some of the slaves were used to domestic purposes and the rest were sold to North West Africa and to the Arab countries.

The imported trade items include: mirror, cowries shells, cotton cloth, glass and iron wares. Part of cowries shells was used as ornaments, while the rest served as medium of exchange. Before the nineteenth century, in many part of the Ethiopian region, trade was mostly conducted through bartering. Bartering was a system in which people exchange what they have with what they don't. In the nineteenth century, however, different items were used as a medium of exchange. Among such items, the most important was salt in the form of bars (salt bars), commonly known as "amole". Amole was the chief medium of exchange in the trade of the Ethiopian region. The salt was obtained from deposits in

the northern Danakil desert and was transported by camel to Tigray from where it was carried to various parts of Ethiopian region. The value of amole constantly increased as they were carried further distance from their origin. In addition to the amole, other items or materials such as iron bars, beads and pieces of cotton cloth (Abujadid) were also used as medium of exchange. Apart from these traditional currencies, Maria Theresa dollar (thaler) served as medium of exchange in the nineteenth century. Maria Theresa coins were introduced into Ethiopian region at the end of eighteenth century.

The long distance trade between the coast and the interior was conducted by Muslim merchants, most of whom were foreigners. But some Ethiopian Muslim merchants also had participated in this long distance trade. Among such merchants, were the Oromo Muslim merchants of the southwestern region. These Muslim Oromo merchants were known as "afkala". The active muslim merchants in the northern were also called Jabarti. The Argobba merchants from Shawa, were active in the trade between Harar and the northern Somali coast.

Participating in the long distance trade caused several hazards. It was very risky to cross some rivers, gorges, mountains and deserts. In addition to these natural barriers, robbers (shiftas) and brigandes as well as deisposed local rulers created much difficulty for merchants. In order to challenge such problems, merchants organized them selves into a caravan .These organized merchants choose one merchant as a leader of the caravan traders. The leader of the caravan traders was known as "nagadras" or chief of traders.

Besides long distance trade, local trade and trade in the border areas were also important throughout the Ethiopian region. Through these economic relationships, political divisions in the Ethiopian region were bridged or connected and many states and peoples interacted in different aspects of social life.

Summary

Before the end of the nineteen century there were several states and peoples who maintained an autonomous political and social life. This political division did not hinder (obstacle) interaction among the peoples and states in the Ethiopian region. The interaction of the peoples and states maintained or created strong economic relationship through trade. Besides getting satisfaction in economic needs, trade also promoted exchange of new ideas and cultural elements among different peoples. The above conditions created the ground for later political unity during the last quarter of the nineteen century.

Review Questions

Part I. Say "True" if the statement is correct "False" if the statement is incorrect

1. There were two different states and peoples before the last quarter of the 19th century in the Ethiopian region
2. The different people who lived around the Omo river basin were referred as the Omotic people.
3. The ruling family of Yem was called Mowa.
4. The political organization of the Oromo people was called Gada

System

Part II. Match the items in column A with those in B

"A" "B"

1. The last king of Kaffa A. Nur
2. Council of Yem officials B. kawo
3. The famous ruler of Jimma C. Gaki Sharochi
4. Built the wall of Harar D. Abba Jiffar 5. The famous ruler of Limu, Enarya E.

Abba Bagibo

Part III. Choose the best possible answer from the alternatives given for each

question 1. Why do we say long distance trade is full of hazards?

- a. crossing natural barrier was risky c. a and b
- b. problem of robbers d. No answer

2. Maria Theresa coin in the Ethiopian region was introduced in century a.

- beginning of 19th century c. first decade of 20th century b. end of 18th century
- d. no answer

3. The leader of a caravan traders was called

- a. azmach c. Negaderas
- b. rasho d. Emir

4. The trade route line which connected the peoples of the southwest with the north begins in

- a. Bonga b. Harar c. Aliyu Amba d. Seka 5. The last emir of Harar was

- a. Abba megal b. Abdullahi c. Kumsa d. Tona

6. Which one of the following does not belong to the group?

- a. Lega Qellem d. Guma
- b. Gera e. Limu Enarya
- c. Goma

7. Who was the founder of the walayita kingdom?

a. Motolami c. Gaki -Sherochi

b. Tona d. Gahe- nechochi

8. Tax collectors of the kingdom of Kaffa were

a. ano b. tate kisho c. astesor d. waso

9. The kingdom which lie west of Gojeb and east of Baroo rivers (west of Kaffa) was

a. Dawuro b. Bench Maji c. Sheka d. Yem

10. One of the Shiekdoms which existed along the Sudanese border was

a. Asosa b. Adal c. Somali d. Aliyu Amba

Part IV. Fill in the blank with correct responses

A. The Muslim Oromo merchants were called

B. Exchange of goods for goods was

C. The most important medium of exchange before 19th century was

D. The most important commercial centers and ports of the northern Somali coast were and .

E. The Islamic religious study and training center was .

Part V. Give short answers

1. Gada system

2. ano

3. pastoral life

4. trade routs

5. monarchical system

6. Gibe Oromo states

7. the Omotic states and peoples

8. sedentary agricultural life

9. Ahmed Ibin Ibrahim al Ghazi

10. Bonga

UNIT TWO

DEVELOPMENT OF CAPITALISM, NATIONALISM AND COLONIALISM

Introduction

This unit focuses on the advance of capitalism in Europe and America. It also deals with the social economic and political change of the life of the peoples in different countries of Europe and North America. As the result of the industrial Revolution the above countries were transformed from rural and agricultural to a predominantly urban and industrial society. The development of capitalism in turn brought about tremendous changes in various aspect of social life.

In some countries, the development of capitalism had specific social and political consequences. One of the main factors for the unification of Germany and Italy was the development of capitalism in the respective countries. The American civil war had its origin in the development of capitalism. It had also paved ways for the formation and rise of national states as well as the growth of nationalism in central Europe and in the Balkans.

The expansion of capitalism gave rise to an enormous demands for raw material, cheap labour, new markets and sphere of capital investment. These demands led the European industrialized countries to posses over sea territories. There fore, the industrialized nations of Europe embarked on empire building which finally led them to scramble for (partition of) Africa beginning from 1880's.

Objectives

After studying this unit, you will be able to:

- * point out the main economic, political and social consequences of the Industrial revolution;
- * analyze the causes, course and consequences of the civil war in the U.S.A;
- * explain the main factors that contributed to the German and Italian unification;
- * analyze the development of capitalism in Europe, and how it paved the way for colonial rivalries, clashes and scramble for Africa;
- * explain the nature of African resistance to the imposition of European colonial rule in

Africa. 2.1. Unification of Italy

Terms to Know

- Annex
- Emancipation

- Papacy
- Appeasement
- Intervention
- Popular revolution
- Betrayal
- Nationalist
- Red-shirts
- Bloody victories
- Offensive war
- Republican

Unification of Italy

During the first half of nineteenth century Italy was a disunited nation. Rome was under the control of the French troops since 1848. Lombardy and Venetia were under Austria domination. The duchies of Parma, Modena, Tuscany and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies to which Naples was a part were under local rulers dominated by Austria. The Papal states were under the control of the Catholic Church.

Since the 1840s Italian nationalists followed different approaches in order to unify their country. One of these ideas was propagated by Giuseppe Mazzini and his organization, "Young Italy". Mazzini wanted to create a united and a free Italian republic through a popular revolution. The second approach came from

the north Italian state of Piedmont. This group wanted to unify Italy under the

leadership of Piedmont's monarchy. The third approach called for the unification of Italy under the Pope of the Roman Catholic Church. This group wanted the federation of all Italian States under the papacy.

In 1848 an uprising took place in the Italian peninsula. The uprising started in Sicily, in the south. It was a republican revolution which was led by Italian nationalists inspired by Mazzini.

The uprising soon spread to Venetia and Lombardy. When the war broke out between the Italians and Austrians, king Charles Albert of Piedmont declared war on Austria. Popular pressure also forced the rulers of Naples, Tuscany and the Papal States to send troops in support of an Italian uprising against

Austria. When these combined forces were on the verge of defeating and driving out Austrians from the Italian soil, the pope ordered the withdrawal of the troops from Venetia and Lombardy at this crucial period.

The Pope of Roman Catholic church had always been against Italian unity, fearing that a United Italy might threaten papal power and territory. Following the pope's order of troop's withdrawal, other Italian states also withdrew their troops from fighting. However, Piedmont alone confronted the Austrian force. As the result of this the Austrians easily defeated the army of Piedmont and restored their domination in Lombardy and Venetia.

The Pope's betrayal of the Italian cause arouse bitter opposition to the papacy. In November 1848 an angry mob forced the pope to flee Rome. The insurgents proclaimed Rome a republic and called Mazzini to the capital to lead the government. Mean while, Napoleon III sent troops to capture Rome. Thus, the pope was restored to his authority. After this, the French troops stayed in Rome until the Franco- Prussian war of 1870- 71.

A nationalist patriot dedicated to Mazzini's plan of an Italian republic was Giuseppe Garibaldi. The outcome of 1848 uprisings discredited both Mazzini's republic and the federation of Italian states under the papacy. But the plan of uniting Italy from the north, under the monarchy of Piedmont, won much popular support. Thus, the unification of Italy become the main task of Piedmont and its rulers, King Victor Emmanuel, and Cavour, the Prime Minister.

The leading personality in the unification of Italy was Count Camillo Cavour (1810-1861), who became Prime Minister of Piedmont in 1852. He believed

that the unification of Italy could not be achieved before driving the Austrians out of the Italian peninsula. To expel the Austrians, he needed the support of foreign powers like France and Prussia. Hoping to win such aid, Cavour sent his army to fight on the side of France and Britain against Russia in the Crimean war (1854-1856). By this move, Cavour won the good will of the great powers, particularly of the French ruler, Napoleon III. Finally Napoleon III promised support for the expulsion of Austria from Italy. In return Cavour promised to cede the provinces of Nice and Savoy to France.

In 1859 war broke out between Austria and Piedmont. Napoleon III kept his promise and joined the war against Austria. In June 1859 France and Piedmont won two victories at the Battles of Magenta and Solferino. But Napoleon ignored his promise to Piedmont and concluded separate treaty with Austria. By this agreement Lombardy was given to Piedmont and Venetia remained under Austrian rule.

Cavour bitterly resented Napoleon III's betrayal though he had already won the war against Austria. The news of victory and betrayal of Napoleon incited nationalist revolts in north and central Italy. The Italians in Tuscany, Parma, Modena and Romagna rose up against their Pro-Austrian rulers and demanded union with Italy. To annex these states Cavour appeased Napoleon III by surrendering Nice and Savoy to France. Thus, in 1860, the states in north central Italy were united with Piedmont under Victor Emmanuel II

In the same year, 1860, a popular uprising took place in Sicily. In May 1860 Garibaldi hurried to the south leading his famous volunteer army of one thousand known as the "thousand" or "Red Shirts". Sicily and Naples came under his control with in short period of time. In the interest of the nation Garibaldi put aside his republican sentiments and proposed that the two Sicilies unite with Piedmont under Victor Emmanuel II. While Garibaldi conquered the two Sicilies, Cavour ordered Piedmont's troops into the papal states the nationalist groups in those states welcomed them. Then, central Italy was overran. Cavour announced the annexation of the Papal States. The whole peninsula, except Rome and Venetia, was united under one government. In 1861 the kingdom of Italy was Proclaimed. Venetia and Rome were also restored as a result of international politics. Italy allied with Prussia in the Austro Prussian war of 1866. By the peace treaty after the war, Austria ceded Venetia to Italy.

In 1870 because of the war with Prussia the French troops supporting the pope were withdrawn. Then Italian troops seized Rome in September 1870. Thus, the unification of Italy was completed and Rome became the capital of united Italy in 1870. However; Italian nationalists believed that Italian unification was still not complete, because Austria still ruled the Trentino province and the city of Trieste, where many Italians lived and Italy wanted this area. This demand became known as Italian "irredentism"

2.2. German Unification

Terms to Know

- Compensation
- Political crisis
- Uniform tariffs
- Diet
- Predominant
- Unification
- Junker politician
- Neutrality
- Zollverein

Unification of Germany

Developments leading to German Unification:

1. The Napoleonic wars
2. Development of capitalism
3. Rise of nationalism
4. The creation of German confederation
5. The formation of the Zollverein

In the late 18th century some German people began to think to themselves as distinct nationality and agitated for a unified father land. As the result of the wars of Napoleon, German nationalism aroused. The wars also weakened Austrian authority by abolishing the Holy Roman Empire and reducing the number of German states from more than 300 to less than 100.

The ground for German unification was laid by two important developments that happened in the first half of the nineteenth century. The congress of Vienna in 1815 reduced the number of German states to 38 and organized them into an Austrian dominated German confederation. The confederation was weak, ineffective and incapable of providing Germany with a unified government. This failure stirred the Germans to seek unity by other means. Austria and Prussia were the most powerful German states. They competed with one another to play the leading role in the movement to unify Germany. Despite the contest between Prussia and Austria, the creation of the Confederation promoted closer ties among the German states.

Secondly, in 1819 Prussia formed a German Custom Union which became known as the Zollverein or Customs Union. It was realized in 1834 and by the 1840s it included all the German states except Austria. This was designed by Prussia to isolate Austria from other German states. The Zollverein

maintained free trade between member states by removing trade barriers among German states. But it imposed high tariffs against non-members. As the result of the establishment of the union, uniform tariffs were set up and many other restrictions were abolished. The removal of internal tariff barriers benefited German merchants and manufacturers, and promoted the country's economic unity. In consequence, railways were built and this strengthened economic ties among the German states. This in turn promoted a sense of national identity that was essential for political unification.

Austria emerged from the congress of Vienna as an influential central European Empire containing many different peoples. The Austrian rulers did not like the growth of nationalism in Germany fearing that this might inspire subject nationalities to seek independence. Austrian rulers also realized that they would lose their influence over German affairs if Germany achieved unification.

The rulers of the smaller German states feared that German Unification might lead to centralization of government power which in turn lead to end of their authority. French leaders feared that a unified Germany would be powerful to challenge France's leadership in Europe. France felt militarily more secure with weak and disunited neighbours. A series of revolts were carried out in 1848 aimed at ending autocracy and unifying Germany. These revolts were led by liberals who sought constitutional democracy. However, they lacked the military power to enforce unification, without the support of the king.

After all these, the way was open for the successful attempt at German unification under autocratic leadership. Wilhelm I became king of Prussia in 1861.

He was convinced that he needed to have a large army in order to be leader of the Germans. In view of this Wilhelm I presented a request for a large army budget to the Prussian parliament and this met with opposition by the liberal majority who opposed militarism. This created a political crisis in 1861 and 1862. In 1862 Otto von Bismarck (1815- 1898) was appointed prime minister of Prussia. Bismarck belonged to the dominant landowning aristocracy, the Junkers. He was a reactionary and despised democracy. He shared William's conviction that Prussia needed a strong army to lead the German people to political unity.

Bismarck in his famous speech said "Germany is not looking for Prussia's liberalism, but its power...The great questions of our time will not be decided by speeches and majority decisions-that was the mistake of 1848 and 1849-but by "Blood and Iron"

He made this famous speech to the finance committee of the parliament to get the approval of the army budget. But his appeal to the parliament was not fruitful so he ignored the parliament and pushed the program of raising taxes.

What were the steps taken by Bismarck to achieve German unification?

In order to achieve the German unification Bismarck waged three wars against Denmark, Austria and France. In 1864 he declared war on Denmark over the principalities of Schleswig and Holstein. These principalities were located on the border between German and Denmark. The population of Holstein was entirely German and that of Schleswig was the mixture of German and Danes. These territories had

maintained an independent existence for about four centuries. In 1863 King Christian IX of Denmark annexed Schleswig to his empire. The Germans in both principalities bitterly opposed and appealed to all the German people for their support. Bismarck wanted to intervene and exploit the crisis for his own political aim. He asked the support of Austria and jointly declared war on Denmark. The war was fought for three months and finally the Danish army was defeated. Prussia and Austria administered these two provinces jointly. In 1865 both Prussia and Austria reached to an agreement that Austria took the administration of Holstein, while Prussia took that of Schleswig.

The agreement of 1865 was a temporary halt to Bismarck's move against Austria. Bismarck knew well that Austria was the main obstacle to German unification. In order to create ground for the inevitable conflict with Austria, he diplomatically approached the following countries and won their support during the war against Austria in 1866. These countries were Russia, France and Italy.

The Austro-Prussian war broke out in June 1866. This war was provoked by Bismarck who sent an army to Holstein when Austria presented the question of Schleswig-Holstein before the Diet of the confederation. After seven weeks of fighting the Austrian army was defeated at the battle of Sadowa in 1866. This victory enabled Bismarck to isolate Austria from Germany. On the other hand, the victory of Bismarck ended the chance for a united Germany under Austrian control. By the treaty of Prague, the German confederation, where the Austrian influence was strong, was dissolved. In 1867 Prussia set up a new north German confederation in which Austria was not allowed to join. Following the Austro-Prussian War, Bismarck annexed several north German states and compelled the remaining ones to join in a Prussian dominated North-German confederation. The South German states remained outside the confederation were also tied to Prussia by the Zollverein and defensive military alliance.

Thus all German states north of the Rhine joined the confederation. In this respect, the new confederation was a stepping stone for the unification of the German empire. What was required to complete the unification was only the inclusion of the south German states.

The completion of German unification required the elimination of another obstacle, France, which opposed the emergence of a strong and united Germany in the center of Europe. On top of this, Bismarck did not fulfill his promise of compensation for Napoleon III's neutrality in the Austro-Prussian war of 1866. Because of this, Napoleon III was determined not to allow the completion of German unification. On the other hand, war with France was also part of Bismarck's plan because without crushing the military power of France the unification of Germany could not be completed. For this reason Bismarck provoked France into declaring war on Prussia.

The Franco-Prussian war (1870-71)

Bismarck used different issues to provoke Napoleon into declaring war on July 19, 1870. The south German states joined the war on the side of Prussia. Napoleon III, who was pushed by his wife, personally led the French army. On September 2, 1870, Napoleon and his 100,000 troops were defeated and surrendered at the battle of Sedan. Napoleon III was captured and made a war prisoner. The news of the defeat of France incited the people of Paris (Parisians) to revolt and the Second Empire collapsed. France surrendered in early 1871 and gave up her two provinces of Alsace and Lorraine at the Treaty of Frankfurt.

After a smashing victory over France, Bismarck obtained the agreement of all German states to establish a German Empire with Prussia at the center. On January 18, 1871 a united German Empire was proclaimed in the French palace at Versailles. Wilhelm I became Emperor of Germany. Bismarck was also proclaimed as Chancellor of the German Empire. Bismarck continued to dominate the politics of Germany as well as Europe for another twenty years up to his resignation in 1890.

2.3. The American Civil War (1861-1865)

Key Terms

- Abolition
- Confederacy
- Socio- economic
- Civil war
- Declaration of independence
- Secession
- Representative
- Institution
- Slave trade

The American Civil War of 1861-1865

The United State of America was in a civil war from 1861-1865. The main cause of this civil war was the contradiction between antagonistic socio-economic Systems that existed in the U.S.A. Northern and western America developed a capitalist system. But the south maintained large plantations and used slave labour. Slavery existed since the days of the Atlantic slave trade.

During the war of independence (1775-1783) a progressive document known as the "Declaration of independence" (1776) had been issued. The opening paragraph of the declaration stated that: "all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their creator with certain unalienable rights that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness".

This noble statement, however, failed to bring about the abolition of slavery in America. After independence slavery and slave holding continued to be a legal institution in the southern part of the U.S.A. Plantation owners invested their capital in land and in slaves. The main crop was cotton, and the slave owners considered this crop as "king", that is very important to the US economy and to Europe. In general, slavery was so important to the socio-economic and political life of the southern slave owning states, and any opposition to this system was ruthlessly suppressed. On the other hand, capitalism developed in the north and the western part of the USA. In the north manufacturing showed a rapid growth, while mechanized agriculture expanded in the west. In the 1850s both the north and the west drew closer to each other. Rail roads connected the northeast and the northwest. This modern means of transportation facilitated the exchange of products between the two regions.

From the northwest food and raw materials were carried to the northeast, while manufactured goods were transported to the northwest. These areas shared common socio-economic system, and both belonged to one bloc. Thus the north and west stood in contrast to the south. The north constituted Free States and the south slave states. This socio-economic difference between the north and the south became the main cause for the bloody civil war that came to plague America. Free States and slave

owning states representatives in the congress quarreled, because both representatives had different views on the question of slavery.

The election of Abraham Lincoln in 1860 was a break through that led to the beginning of civil war in America. With, this the slave states feared that the election of Abraham Lincoln, who opposed slavery, would lead the government to follow anti slavery policies. In fact, their fear was not groundless. On the eve of the civil war many Americans, both in the north and in the south, shared Lincoln's view that the union could not survive "half slave and half free". Americans in the north determined to stop the expansion of slavery into other US territories. These Americans even hoped at some future time to eliminate the institution from the south where it existed legally. The slave owners of the south were equally determined to preserve the anachronistic system. This was the condition that existed in the USA when Abraham Lincoln was elected as a president.

In 1860 presidential election Abraham Lincoln (1809-1865) was elected president of the United States of America. Lincoln was a democrat and one the opponents of slavery (abolitionists).

Following Lincoln's election, Carolina State declared secession from the Union. Finally, eleven slave owning states seceded from the USA. In February 1862 the slave- owning states formed a new state called the Confederacy the confederate Southern States of America. Colonel Jefferson Davis was elected president of the confederacy. Before Lincoln was inaugurated to office in March 1861, the government of the Confederacy was building its power by recruiting an army and raising funds. After Lincoln's inauguration, the north took up arms and the civil war broke out between the Union and the Confederacy.

When the civil war started both groups anticipated that the out come of the war would be decided in a brief conflict. But contrary to this anticipation, the war dragged on and lasted for four years (1861-1865). In the war, the two sides had different advantages. The north had large resources, material as well as human, while the south lacked both. But the slave owning states compensated these short comings by well experienced officers and trained soldiers. Thus, at the beginning of the war the Confederacy had the upper hand over the North. In this respect, the major problem of the Union was at first lack of competent generals. Finally Abraham Lincoln appointed efficient Generals like Ulysses S. Grant and William T. Sherman.

Did Lincoln's Emancipation proclamation law help the Union to defeat the south? Explain.

At the beginning of the civil war the North fought primarily to preserve the Union. However, as the war dragged on, the issue of slavery in the South became the focus of the conflict. The contradiction in the North against the South grew hostile. Taking this advantage, Abraham Lincoln issued two proclamations. The first was "Emancipation Proclamation" and the second was the "Homestead law". In the first he declared slaves in the south to be free as of January 1, 1863. And the second decree allowed all citizens including the freed slaves to own plots of land for personal use. Both proclamations had the effect of bolstering the union army. Freed slaves were invited to serve in the union army. By the end of the war more than 186,000 black soldiers had served in the union army, many of them as officers. These Proclamations played decisive roles for the victory of the Union over the separatist south because they

possessed great revolutionary significance and attracted many recruits to the Northern army.

The long years of combating created disadvantage on the part of the south. This was because, they faced shortage of man power, artillery, munitions, food and medical supplies. In addition to this, they suffered because of poor transportation. France and Britain refused to recognize the Confederacy, which dealt psychological blow to the Confederacy. The combination of these and other factors brought about the defeat of the South. By the spring of 1865 the South army was finally routed. The war came to an end in April 1865 when Robert E. Lee surrendered to Ulysses S. Grant, the commander of the Union Army.

On April 14, 1865, five days after the Southern army had capitulated, president Abraham Lincoln, who had led the American people throughout the critical years of the civil war, was shot by John Wilkes Booth, agent of the defeated slave owner and died on April 15, 1865.

Map 5. The United States of America

What were the effects of the war?

Major effects of the war were:

- * Abraham Lincoln was shot dead by an agent of the slave owners.
- * The south was defeated as the result of the civil war.
- * Slavery was abolished.
- * Capitalism expanded in the USA very rapidly.
- * The unity of American states was maintained.

2.4. Nationalism and Multi National Empires

Terms to Know

- Armed struggle
- Discrimination
- Atrocities

- Protectorate
- Bulwark

- Liberation struggle
- Constitutional monarchy

- Nationalism
- Dead look

- Suzerainty

Nationalism and Multi National Empire

The demand of national groups for independent states of their own is often called nationalism. Most of the time, this demand has only been fulfilled by armed struggle. This was the way in which the Italians and the Germans succeeded in forming their own national states. In the Balkan region also the subject peoples of the Ottoman Empire took up arms against their rulers.

Where do we find the Balkan region?

The Balkan region is found in the south and southeast of Europe, around the Balkan mountain. The list of Balkan countries include: Bulgaria, Albania, Rumania, Serbia, Montenegro, Herzegovinia ,Greece, etc.. Through out the nineteenth century, the liberation struggle of the Balkan peoples strongly affected the international politics of Europe. The liberation struggle of the Balkan peoples and the great power politics that accompanied it was one aspect of the so- called Eastern Question.

The Eastern Question and the Balkan crisis affected the politics of Europe for several centuries. It originated the Turkish conquest of the Balkans in the late middle ages and the subsequent decline of Turkey (the Ottoman Empire). The Eastern Question was a term used to describe the diplomatic problems posed in Europe during the 19th century and early 20th century regarding the decline of the Ottoman Empire. The strategic location of the Ottoman territories, which included the Balkan peninsula and the area that is new Turkey, made it of great importance to the other European powers.

Among the European powers, Britain, Austria and Russia were deeply involved in the Eastern Question. Before the eighteenth century, Europe was worried about the expansion of Ottoman power. At that time, Austria stood as a wall of protection against the westward expansions of the Ottoman Empire. On the other hand, from the reign of Peter the Great (1682-1725), Russia had been ambitious to expand to the lower Danube and the banks of Bosphorus River.

Beginning from the late seventeenth century Ottoman Empire underwent a decline which created the

Eastern Question. The interests, policies and rules of some European powers were changed. Russia did not give up the lower Danube, and aimed at controlling the Slav peoples of the region. This created rivalry between Austria and Russia, because the latter feared that the realizations of Russia's ambition would create problem in Austria's own Empire, which had a great number of Slavs. This changed the role of Austria in the region.

Before the eighteenth century, Austria's role had been primarily containing the westward expansion of the Ottoman power. But after the eighteenth century, it became a wall against Russia's southward expansion. In other words, the existence of the Ottoman Empire served the interest of Austria. Britain wanted the preservation of a weaker Ottoman power. This was to safe guard her empire in India and her interest in the Mediterranean Sea. And this was the main reason for the involvement of Britain and France in the Crimean War of 1854-1856. They fought the Crimean war against Russia to protect Ottoman Turkey. Britain and Austria saved the Ottoman Empire from external danger. But they were unable to save it from internal danger that undermined the power of the Ottoman state from within. The internal danger was created by the rise of bitter nationalism among the peoples of the Balkan region.

The struggle of the Balkan peoples for national liberation complicated the Eastern Question. The crisis in the Balkans went beyond the European powers and finally led to the emergence of five independent Balkan states. This Balkan multi national states which achieved their independent were Greece, Bulgaria, Serbia, Rumania and Montenegro. Albania also emerged independent as a result of the Balkan wars of 1912-1913.

The Ottoman Turkish Empire

Terms to Know

- Autocratic rule - Loosely organized
- Champion - Multi-national state
- Frequent wars

The nomadic Seljuk Turks became prominent in Asia Minor, Palestine and Arabia before the Ottoman Turks. The Ottoman Turks accepted Islam and soon became powerful after their conquest of Persia (1040) and Asia-minor at the end of 13th century. They replaced the Seljuk Turks in the region around 1299. The Ottoman Turks got their name from their leader, Osman (Ottoman). In the first half of fourteenth century, the Ottoman Turks controlled Persia, Arabia, Palestine and Asia Minor.

The other states found in Europe around the 14th century were multi-national states that were loosely organized. This was mainly true of the Holy Roman Empire, which was under the control of German and the Italian princes.

The states of England, France, Portugal and Spain also emerged as states during this period.

Strong monarchical empires were formed in Britain, France, Portugal and Spain.

Ottoman Turkey became most powerful and won victory over European lands i.e. Andrianopol in 1353, Solonika in 1389, Bulgaria in 1393, Venetia in 1402, the Greece Peninsula in 1402, and captured Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern Roman Empire in 1453. Later Constantinople was renamed Istanbul by the Turks. After dominating all of the Balkan states, the Ottoman Turkish leader, Sultan Muhammad II became the ruler of a vast Empire from Constantinople.

The Ottoman Empire continued its expansion until 1556. Turkey conquered Egypt and other North Africa countries beginning from 1517. Turkey captured Hungary (Magyars) in 1526. Under Sultan Suleiman the Magnificent, Ottoman power reached its climax. His reign lasted from 1520-1566.

The Ottoman Turks imposed Islam, autocratic rule and Turkish culture over the conquered people and the Sultan had both political and religious power. The Ottoman Turks controlled trade routes that run from the Mediterranean Sea to the Far East, Particularly to India and China. The Turks obstructed the European merchants from going to the Far East for luxury goods. The Arabs used to be intermediaries in the trade between the Far East and Europe. The Ottoman Turks and Venetians established their monopoly over the trade of this region.

The European powers were unable to crush the powerful Ottoman Empire because they had their own internal problems, political and religious conflicts. They were exhausted by frequent wars among themselves.

Portugal and Spain, which were the two great powers of Europe in the fifteenth and sixteen centuries, looked for allies outside Europe against the Ottoman Turkey. For instance, Portugal undertook the search for the Prester John of the Indies by land and sea. For this purpose, a Portuguese delegation was sent seeking aid from Christian Ethiopia. In addition to this the Europeans began the great discoveries to find out a new sea route to India. This was because the Turks blocked the trade route on land to Far East and India.

Austria-Hungary Empire

Another Multi- National Empire was Austria- Hungary also known as Dual Monarchy. It was ruled by the Habsburg Monarchy from 1867 to 1918. The Empire of Austria, as an official designation of the territories ruled by the Habsburg monarchy, dates to 1804 when Francis II, the last of the Holy Roman Emperors proclaimed himself Emperor of Austria. Two years later the Holy Roman Empire came to an end. After the fall of Napoleon Bonaparte (1814-1815), Austria became once more the leader of the German states. But the Austro, Prussian war of 1866 resulted in the expulsion of Austria from the German Confederation and caused Emperor Francis Joseph to reorient his policy toward the East and to consolidate his heterogeneous and multi-national Empire.

The outcome of negotiation was the compromise Ausgleich concluded on February 8, 1867. The agreement was a compromise between the Emperor of Austria and Hungary. Hungary received full internal autonomy, together with a responsible ministry. In return, they agreed the Empire should still be a single great state for the purposes of war and foreign affairs. Francis Joseph that surrendered his domestic prerogatives in Hungary, including his protection of the non-Magyar peoples, in exchange for the maintenance of dynastic prestige abroad.

The Common Monarchy” consisted of the Emperor and his court, the Minister of foreign affairs, and the Minister of war. There was no common Prime Minister (other than Francis Joseph himself) and no common cabinet. The common affairs were to be discussed by at the delegations composed of representatives from the two parliaments. There was to be a Customs Union and a sharing of accounts, which was to be revised every ten years.

The Ausgleich came into force when passed as a constitutional law by the Hungarian parliament in March 1867. The Reichsart (the Imperial parliament) was only permitted to confirm the Ausgleich without amending it. In return for this the German liberals who composed its majority, received certain concessions: the rights of individual were secured and a genuinely impartial judiciary was created. Freedom of belief and of education were guaranteed. The ministers, However, were still responsible to the Emperor, not to a majority of the Reichsart.

The official name of the state shaped by the Ausgleich was Austria-Hungary. The kingdom of Hungary had a name , a king, and a history of its own. The rest of the Empire was a casual

Map 6. Part of old Austria-Hungary Empire

agglomeration without even a clear description. Technically it was known as “the kingdoms and lands represented in the Reichsart” or, more shortly, as the other Imperial half.

Greece was the first Balkan country to achieve independence. The liberation struggle of the Greeks started with an uprising of 1821. This uprising gradually developed into a war of independence. When the war started, the major European powers stayed neutral. But in reality both Britain and Austria deeply felt the need to maintain the integrity of the Ottoman Empire for their own advantage. The Ottoman army was unable to defeat the war at sea. The Greeks were determined to continue their struggle until they got or achieved their independence.

Why did the British and Austrians fear a continuation of the war in the Balkan region?

Britain and Austria feared that they would not stop Russia from intervention if the war continued indefinitely. Therefore, these powers had to appease Greek Nationalism. To resolve deadlock, the great powers of Europe finally recognized the total independence of Greece in 1833.

Why did the European powers stand on the side of Turkey in the Crimean War of 1853 – 56?

Throughout the nineteenth century, the European statesmen particularly the British developed fear in the Russia expansion. Their fear developed when Russia determined to take over the old provinces of the Ottoman Empire, particularly, Constantinople. So to the rest of Europeans Russia remained a source of fear which always invests an unknown and unpredictable force.

In 1853 Tsar Nicholas I stated that “...we have a sick man on our hands,” it is metaphorically referred to Turkey.

Thereupon Russian armies anticipated the “sick man’s” demise by occupying the Turkish provinces, like Rumania. Then the British government decided to aid the Turks. Meanwhile, a dispute had developed between France and Russia concerning the claims of the Roman Catholic and Greek Orthodox monks over controlling Holy Places in Jerusalem. The French Emperor, Napoleon III needed the prestige of successful war; he was annoyed at Tsar Nicholas, because the latter had declined to greet him as “my brother” when he made himself Emperor of France. Besides this Napoleon III hoped to please the Catholics in France by claiming the right to protect Catholics.

In the Turkish Empire, with little cause but no justification, he declared war on Russia. Britain joined

France in order to fight for the preservation of Ottoman Empire in Europe.

Which were the major warring nations in the Crimean War?

The two fighting nations in the Crimean war were Turkey and Russia. But due to the fact that we have discussed, Turkey was supported by the great powers like Britain, France and Italy (Piedmont-Sardinia).

In 1854 the two powers, France and Britain dispatched an expedition to the black sea to besiege the Russian fortress of Sebastopol on the Crimean Peninsula. After heavy losses and terrible sufferings on both sides, the Russians evacuated from Sebastopol in Sept. 1855. Then, the Allies of Turkey, France, Britain, Piedmont agreed to suspend hostilities.

Despite, the heavy losses, Napoleon was satisfied with his victory such as it was, the British who had conducted their share of the war with heavy casualties and tragic in efficiency, would willingly have continued it. As for the Russians, they had never desired war and they were resented with the attitude of Austria because the Russians expected the Austrians to come on their side.

What were the outcome of the war?

The Crimean war was terminated by a congress of diplomats who met at Paris to work out a new settlement for the near Eastern Question, to hold Russia in check the victors ordained, thus the Peace terms were:-

1. No great power to maintain war ships in the Black Sea.
2. Moldavia and Walachia were to be evacuated by the Russians and to be autonomous principality while the remaining under Turkish suzerainty.
3. Danube River to be open to all trading nations' ship.

The Bulgarians were another Balkan people subjected to Ottoman rule. The Bulgarian nationalism in the Balkan region was very slow than others to develop. In 1870s, the Bulgarian nationalism experienced a sudden rise partly due to external influence. This external influence was the result of an insurrection in Herzegovina in 1875. The insurrection rapidly spread throughout the Balkan Peninsula. The Bulgarians were also involved in the uprising which was ruthlessly suppressed by the Turkish military force in 1876.

Of Bulgaria (Batak), the Turkish army massacred a large number of Bulgarians without discrimination of age and sex. This event came to be known as "the Bulgarian Atrocities". The Bulgarian Atrocities intensified the struggle of the Bulgarians for independence.

Russia, which regarded herself as the protector of the Slavs, declared war on Turkey in 1877. In 1878, at the Treaty of Berlin the war came to an end. As the result of this treaty European powers made a territorial settlement. Thus; Bulgaria was set up as an autonomous principality under the suzerainty of the Ottoman sultan. This treaty also reconsidered the Treaty of Paris, 1856. The treaty of Berlin (1878)

did not satisfy the Bulgarians because it left many Bulgarians outside the new state.

What were the major causes of the Balkan Wars of 1912-1913?

The most aggressive nationalism in the Balkans was that of the Serbs. The kingdom of Serbia had been set up late in the nineteenth century. This was the period when the Serbs fought for their independence from the decaying Turkish Empire. This was not enough for the Serbian nationalist; they planned to create a Yugoslavia (South Slavia) by joining all Slavs south of the Austrian Empire. To the German speaking rulers in Vienna, the creation of Yugoslavia would mean the end of their empire. If the Southern slaves were allowed to break away, it would be only a matter of time before Czechs, Poles, Hungarians and Slovaks went their separate ways.

The annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria-Hungary in October 1908, created boundless indignation in Serbia. Another effect of the Young Turks revolution was the creation of the League of the Balkan states against Ottoman Turkey. The aim of the League was to get control over Macedonia by force of arms. At this time, Ottoman Turkey was preoccupied with an Albanian revolt as well as with the war against Italy. This further encouraged the Balkan League to act against Ottoman Turkey.

In the meantime, European powers were much worried by the measures taken by the League not to see any modification in the territorial arrangements regarding Turkey. In 1912, Four Balkan states-Montenegro, Serbia, Bulgaria and Greece declared war on Ottoman Turkey. Thus, the first Balkan War started. In this war of liberation Turkey was defeated and the treaty of London was signed on May 30, 1913. Turkey was forced to surrender large territory to the Victorious Balkan States. But the Balkan Allies soon quarreled over the division of the large territory they had won in the war. This quarrel was responsible for the outbreak of the Second Balkan war in 1913.

The outbreak of the Second Balkan war was in the interest of Austria-Hungary and Italy. Bulgaria was the one that provoked the Second Balkan War. On June 29, 1913, Bulgaria opened an attack on Greece and Serbia. Bulgaria's adventure had a negative impact. Serbia and Greece were joined by Rumania. The combined forces of the three Balkan states defeated Bulgaria and forced her to go for peace. The treaty of Bucharest that ended the Second Balkan war was signed on August 10, 1913. However, this treaty only created further conflict.

2.5. Colonization of Africa since 19th Century

Terms to know

- Assimilation/Association
- Colonial conquest
- Divide and rule
- Colonial administration
- Colonial expansion

Questions for Discussion and Practical Work

1. What kind of relation existed between Europeans and Africans before colonization?
2. What was the main factor for Britain to take over of Egypt in 1882?
3. What is colonization?

4. What situation aggravated or intensified the need for African colonization?

Before 1870, the Europeans had trade relation with Africa. The trade items were gold, ivory, coffee, salve, and so on. But with the development of capitalism (1769-1870), the need for raw materials and market places for finished goods (surplus products) became very important. Meanwhile, the slave trade and unexplored part of Africa became obstacle to fulfill their need in Africa. On top of this, the major European powers were preoccupied with domestic problems. For instance, Germany and Italy did not complete their unification until 1870, France had revolutionary outbreaks in 1789, 1830, 1848, and in 1870-71. Among major powers Britain did not fall in the internal political disturbance. Thus, it was busy

in colonizing and giving more attention to Far East and South East Asian region like India, New Zealand, and Australia. This region seemed to be more attractive, rich and had less resistance than Africa. Under these circumstances few coastal areas of Africa were occupied by France and Britain. In 1830 France occupied Algeria and later Senegal. On the other hand, Britain also occupied Cape colony and Gold Coast (Ghana). Portugal was deeply involved in Mozambique and in Angola. However, all colonial powers did not establish firm administration in the above areas except in Cape Colony and in part of Algeria. The coastal posts had been established primarily to serve the purpose of trade particularly, the Atlantic slave trade. The names given to these posts indicated that the Europeans were more involved in trade activities than colonization before Industrial Capitalism. Thus, some of these trading posts were named as Slave Coast, Gold Coast, Pepper Coast and the like.

What intensified the partition of Africa after 1882?

There were two main factors for the growth of the desire for the colonization of Africa in the middle of 1880s. The first was the British take over of Egypt in 1882. Since the opening of Suez Canal in 1869, Egypt had become the focus of British and French political and economic interest. The canal was built by the French engineer called Ferdinand de Lesseps. Thus, France owned a big share in the Canal Company. Britain had also bought the Egyptian share of the company from Khedive Ishmael, the then ruler of Egypt, sold the share to overcome the bankruptcy he faced as the result of his venture of colonial expansion. Moreover, the opening of the Suez Canal increased the importance of Egypt especially to Britain. The Canal was a strategic link with British Indian Empire and the Far East.

To secure their loans, Egypt's two big creditors, Britain and France created Dual Control over Egypt since 1879. The Egyptian nationalists who opposed foreign influence rose up in armed rebellion. This revolt was led by a senior Egyptian officer, Colonel Ahmed Urabi (Arabi Pasha). In May 1882, Urabi and the Egyptian nationalists successfully gained control of certain part of the country. At this stage of time the British force intervened in the internal affairs of Egypt and crushed the force of Urabi. Due to change of government in France and the French could not participate in the intervention. Therefore, Britain alone intervened and occupied Egypt in June 1882. Then, France as European power moved to act quickly to make colonial conquests in other parts of Africa.

The Second factor was the involvement of two European powers, Germany and Belgium in the colonialization of Africa.

A) Germany involved in colonial rivalry, mainly to intensify the colonial competition between France and Britain. Thus, Bismarck hoped that the rivalry between the two powers would divert the French from a war of revenge for their humiliation in the defeat of 1870-71 by Germany. But after involvement national interest and prestige and hope of economic advantage forced Germany to continue with policy of colonial conquest.

B) The other power in the colonial rivalry was King Leopold II of Belgium, independently of the Belgian Government, King Leopold II employed H.M. Stanley, the famous explorer to explore the Congo basin since 1876.

The appearance of Germany and King Leopold of Belgium made other powers like Britain, France and Portugal-already engaged in African coastal areas to move quickly in to the interior before the whole continent was occupied by the new rivals. Meanwhile, there occurred clash of interests among these

colonial powers in many parts of Africa. The first of such conflicts arose over the Congo basin. In order to solve the Congo issue and other crisis an international conference was held at Berlin in 1884-85.

What was the main outcome of the Berlin Conference?

In the conference held at Berlin the representatives of fourteen European powers as well as the USA were present. This conference remained in session for six months. At the end the conference two important resolutions were passed. The first and most important was the part that dealt with the colonial conquest of Africa. It was agreed that all powers had to notify others about their claim over a portion of territory and to establish "effective occupation" in these areas. Thus, the Berlin conference paved the way for African colonization or "legalized" the partition of Africa. This conference enabled European colonialists to partition Africa without going to an armed clash amongst each other.

The second resolution was about the right to trade on the Congo River. The partition of Africa had already been started before the Berlin Conference. Thus, Leopold II of Belgium was able to get international recognition over the Congo Free State in 1884. The Belgian king won recognition by promising an unrestricted freedom of trade in the Congo basin for all.

In 1883, France had controlled territories in the Upper Niger. But the same move of France in the lower Niger failed. In subsequent year, France and Britain partitioned West Africa between themselves.

Between 1883 and 1885 Germany occupied many territories in South West Africa, Togo land, the Cameroon and East Africa. Britain moved Northward from South Africa to central and East Africa. Britain also moved southward from Egypt and controlled Eastern Sudan. The rest of Africa was partitioned among Europeans in the last years of the nineteenth century. By 1900, with exception of Ethiopia, Morocco (until 1912) and Liberia, the whole continent of Africa was virtually under European colonial rule.

How did Africans react to European colonial rule?

Before establishing colonial rule in Africa, Europeans had to overcome the African resistance. The Africans did not at all welcome the European rule. Infact, the African reaction to the imposition of colonialism was not the same everywhere. In some parts of Africa, the Europeans got the collaboration of Africans that they used divide and rule system to occupy the areas they desired.

Some Africans developed strong military institutions based on centralized political system. It is possible to consider two examples of African resistance. from East and West Africa. In German East Africa, in what has now become mainland Tanzania there was a resistance against the German colonialism and it was named the Maji- Maji Rebellion (1905-1907). This rebellion started in 1905 when Africans refused the imposition of forced labour. Within short period, the rebellion engulfed much of German East Africa. The rebel warriors attacked all foreigners with out discrimination. The rebels caused much destruction and killed several foreigners. In 1906 the Germans started a cruel suppression. The rebel villages were burned and their crops were destroyed. In 1907 the rebellion came to an end and over 26,000 Africans were killed as the result of this revolt. In addition to this tens of thousands lost their lives due to hunger or sickness.

Another example is Samore's struggle against the French expansion in West Africa (1882-1898). He was

a Mango warrior who confronted the French around the Niger River. His clash with the French started in 1882 with the first armed conflict which took place at Keniera. He did not only fight the French with arms but through diplomatic means as well. He tried to play off the British against the French. Samore was able to get modern weapons from Sierra Leone on the coast. Later

he was cut off from his supply of arms, and finally he was defeated by the French in 1898.

There were also other several instances of Africa resistance to European colonial expansion. Nevertheless, Ethiopia was the only African country which succeeded in warding off European colonialism.

Why did Africans fail in their resistance to European colonialism?

Several factors accounted for the failure of African resistance. Firstly, Africans were not united to challenge the European conquests. Secondly, the Europeans had the advantage of modern fire arms which the Africans did not possess. European troops were disciplined, experienced and well trained. Thirdly, Europeans signed deceptive treaties with Africans, like for instance, the Treaty of Wuchale, a Treaty signed between Emperor Menilik and Italy. Because of the factors mentioned, Europeans were in a better position to crush African resistance. In many cases, European colonial rule in Africa lasted for about sixty or seventy years. During this period the Europeans employed different forms of colonial administration.

The British Administration Policy

The British Administration policy came to be known as “indirect rule”. The architect of this policy was Lord Frederick Lugard. He had practiced this policy on large scale for the first time in Nigeria as colonial governor there. Due to shortage of the administrative staff, he exercised this policy. He continued this system of indirect rule when ever it served the colonial interest in controlling Africans. Thus, behind the traditional rulers the British governors directed the system of administration. The British also practiced a divide and rule policy, which was very important to weaken African resistance against the British colonialism.

The French Colonial Policy

The second form of colonial administration was the one followed by France. The French policy of colonial administration came to be known as “direct rule”. This policy was designed by the French colonial Minister, Albert Sarrout. According to this system, French officials filled administrative posts in

the colonies.

The French also believed in the policy of assimilation or association. This was designed to make Africans copy French culture and French way of life so as to get French citizenship. In short, this policy was designed for the elites to denounce their culture and identify themselves with France. Other European colonial powers like Portugal, Italy, Belgium and Spain followed largely preferred direct rule.

Effects of Colonialism in Africa

- Economy and culture of the Africans were destroyed,
- Africans lost their freedom,
- The Africans were exploited and oppressed,
- The Africans were disunited and were forced to accept foreign culture, etc.

Summary

The development of capitalism to its highest stage of advancement brought about enormous changes in economic, social and political spheres of life. One of the immediate results of the development of capitalism or development of industrial capitalism was the final triumph of capitalism as dominant socio-economic system.

The development of capitalism affected every part of world. Most of events and changes that occurred in different parts of the world in 19th century were direct result of the expansion of the capitalist economic system.

National liberation movements in the Balkan region had some of their origins and the expansion of capitalist system. In Europe particularly in the South and South East of Europe new national states emerged or came into being. The advancement of capitalism in the USA, abolished slavery and this laid the fertile ground of further expansion of capitalism in the USA.

The colonization of Africa was the direct effect of the development of capitalism. The industrialized nations of Europe embarked empire building in order to secure source of raw materials, new market places and spheres of capital investment. As the result of this fact, they imposed colonialism upon Africans on a large scale from 1880s onwards. And as the result of the development of capitalism and colonialism, slave trade was undermined.

Review Questions

Part I. Say True or False

1. To unite Germany, Bismarck made three wars.
2. The second Empire was the reign of Victor Emmanuel of Italy.
3. The German confederation included states North of the Rhine River.

4. Napoleon III of France was an obstacle to the German unification.
5. Piedmont-Sardinia stood on the side of France during the Crimean war.
6. Prior to the unification of Italy, the states of Venetia and Lombardy were under the domination of Austria.
7. The French troops evacuated Rome in 1870.
8. In the 1860s different socio-economic systems existed in the USA.
9. Albania was the first Balkan country to achieve its independence from Turkish rule.
10. The Ottomans took their name from their leader Osman.

Part II. Matching

Match from section "B" to section "A"

A B

1. Custom Union A. Seljuk Turks 2. king of Prussia B. Britain and France
3. nomadic tribes C. William I
4. Byzantine Empire D. Constantinople 5. One of ottoman Empires E. Portugal and Spain
6. the two great powers of Europe in 15th and 16th century F. Zollverein 7. dual control over Egypt G. Egypt

Part III. Choose the correct answer

1. Which one of the European countries was more concerned with the Eastern Question?
 - a. France b. Britain c. Turkey d. Germany
2. Which one of these countries was not included in the Balkan Region?
 - a. Serbia b. Greece c. Albania d. Prussia
3. Who was the king of Russia from 1682-1725?
 - a. Napoleon III c. Peter the Great
 - b. Cavour d. Otto von Bismark.
4. The Unification of Italy was completed in -----year.
 - a. 1870 b. 1861 c. 1878 d. 1918

5. Who was the designer of direct rule in Africa?

a. Lugard b. Colonel Ahmed c. Albert Sarrout

Part IV. Give short answers

1. What was the main factor for the intensification of African colonization?

2. Give concert examples of the social, political and economic consequence of the development of capitalism?

3. Explain how the unification of Italy was completed?

4. Which Balkan states formed the League?

5. When did the Ottoman Empire begin to decline?

6. The completion of German unification required the elimination of which

countries? 7. What were the main out come of the Berlin Conference of 1884-2885?

8. Explain the policies and interests of Russia, Austria and Britain in the Balkan region During the 19th century?

9. Describe the causes of the Crimean War?

10. Describe the causes for the failure of African resistance against the imposition of European colonial rule.

V. Fill in the blank spaces

1. Austria was defeated by the allied forces of France and Piedmont at the battle of _____ and _____

2. The two French provinces ceded to Germany at the Treaty of Frankfurt were _____ and _____

3. Napoeon III was surrendered to the Germans at the Battle of _____.

4. Turkey captured Constantinople in _____ year.

5. The British take over of _____, intensified colonialism in Africa.

6. Russia and Turkey fought at the battle of _____ from 1854-1856.

7. Greece achieved her independence in _____ year.

8. The European countries which had Dual control over Egypt were ____ and ____

___ 9. The colonization of Africa was legalized in the treaty of _____

10. The rebellion against German colonialism in Tanganyika came to be known as _____.

UNIT THREE

THE MAKING OF THE MODERN ETHIOPIAN EMPIRE, 1855-1935

Introduction

This unit discusses the historical process of the building of the modern Ethiopian Empire, between 1855 and the beginning of the 20th century. It explains the methods and policies employed in that endeavor. Socio- economic conditions and the political crises of the early decades of the 20th century are dealt with. So is the evolution of the absolutist state. In the unit are also discussed Ethiopia's relations with the outside world. During the period which is the subject of discussion in this unit, Ethiopia had to defend herself from foreign external aggressions. Those external aggressions were intended to destroy its independence. And the unit also covers Ethiopia's several wars, which were fought to defend its independence against Egyptians, Mahdists and Italian colonialists.

The unit covers a crucial period in the historical development of Ethiopia. In fact, it is concerned with the birth and the shaping of the modern Ethiopian Empire state. An understanding of present-day Ethiopia would be very difficult, without an indepth knowledge of the events unfolded during the period under discussion.

Objectives

After successful study of this unit, you will be able to:

- * analyze the methods and policies used in as well as the process of the building of the modern Ethiopian Empire, in the second- half of the 19th century;
- * elaborate the external wars of aggression by Egyptian, the Mahdist Sudan, and the Italian colonialists against Ethiopia, during the second- half of the 19th century;
- * appreciate the sacrifices made by patriotic Ethiopians in the defense of their country from foreign challenges to its independence;
- * explain the significance of the survival of Ethiopian independence in the era of the scramble for Africa, both to Africans and black peoples all over the world;
- * elaborate on some of the outstanding events which had a profound impact on the making of modern Ethiopia;
- * indicate on a map of Ethiopian some of the major battle sites where the Ethiopians fought against foreign invaders;

- * discuss the political crises that the ruling circles of Ethiopia faced, in the first few decades of the 20th century;
- * describe socio-economic conditions in Ethiopia, in the early decades of the 20th century; and
- * explain the birth of the absolutist state under Emperor Haile Selassie I in

Ethiopia. 3.1. Rise of the Modern Ethiopian Empire

Terms to Know

- Askaris
- Autonomy
- Aggression
- Fief
- Legations
- Mahdist Sudan
- Siege
- State-of- war
- Treaty
- Campaign
- Centralized state
- Empire
- Modern state
- Regional lord
- Semi- autonomous
- Territorial expansion
- Vassal

3.1.1. Attempt at Reunification Through the Use of Force, 1855-1868

Imperial power had an old history in Ethiopia, despite occasions of considerable resistance and challenge to central authority. A good example is the period known as the Zamana Masafent (1769-1855), which you have learned in Unit Nine of the Grade 11 history text book. During this period the kings of the Gondarine Kingdom virtually lost their supreme power and authority. Instead they fell at the mercy of powerful Masafents (lords). They were indeed puppet kings with very little or no political, economic and military power. Many regions became semi-autonomous while the region of Shewa became completely independent from the central government at Gondar. A parallel development to this

decline of imperial power was the simultaneous strength of regional powers. The shift in the balance of power in favour of regional lords created a fertile ground for political fragmentation, civil wars and subsequent social, economic and political disorder. This period of national crisis came to an end with the rise of Kasa Haylu who was crowned Tewodros II in 1855.

The early career of Kasa Haylu was full of ups and downs, some of which left remarkable influence on his future imperial policies and reforms. He was born to a family with no claim at all of descent from the royal house. As a child he grew up in the care of his half- brother Dejazmach Kinfu. Early in his life, he got church education and military training. As a young man he was denied governorship over his family fief the district of Quara. Following the death of Kinfu, Kasa became a bandit on two occasions in the same region where he later fought against Egyptian troops. In 1848, at the battle of Debarqi, Kasa Hailu suffered the only serious defeat in his early

career. This defeat in the hands of Egyptians shaped the attitude of the future Tewodros with regard to foreign policy, discipline and modern firearms. His persistent challenges to the regime in Gondar resulted in a political marriage with Tewabech Ali, daughter of the guardian and the last of the Yeju Oromo Ras-Bitwodeds. He was also given the governorship of Quara intended to appease him.

The sense of mission Kasa Hailu later felt about himself as a man born and elevated for the revival of a strong Ethiopia might have started from these successive military victories. Probably, he took the throne name Tewodros considering a prophecy contained in the medieval book Fekare Iyasus. In this book, it was prophesised that a king by the name Tewodros would come to rule and bring peace to the people after a period of troubles. When he was crowned king of kings of Ethiopia in February 1855, Kasa used the throne name Tewodros to tell the message that he was the expected king who would relieve the people from the problems of the Zamana Masafent.

Building political reunification on the remains of the Zamana Masafent was however, a very difficult project for Tewodros. That was especially true when Tewodros who rushed into its realization with a rigid approach - the use of force to bring the regional lords under control. The first military expedition for political reunification was directed against the region of Wollo. But, Wollo did not easily submit to the imperial army. The first campaign in Wollo, which was fought even during fasting and

rainy seasons, lasted for six months. Even then this campaign failed to bring about the submission of Wollo. The continued local resistance drove the emperor to launch further expeditions accompanied by very harsh treatment of captives throughout his reign.

The campaign in Wollo was followed by another serious war with the autonomous Kingdom of Shoa, which lasted for five months. Here too, there was a bloody encounter with the imperial army of Tewodros. Shoa too, experienced harsh treatment in the hands of Tewodros. In November 1855, Tewodros returned to Maqdala with the belief that he had settled matters in Shoa. However, local rivals rebelled against a hand-picked appointee of Tewodros, Meridazmach Haile Michael, and from 1865 onwards Shoa regained its independence with King Menelik, who had escaped from Maqdala in that year.

The emperor went on subduing one region after another through protracted and punitive military expeditions. In all cases, he secured military victories. For some regions he recognized loyal members of regional dynasties to administer their respective regions. In other regions, such as Gojjam, he appointed his own men from high-ranking civil and military officials. Nevertheless, recognition of local dynasties does not mean continuity with the old practices in the old way. Unlike the practice during the Zamana Masafent (1769-1855), local hereditary chiefs during the

time of Tewodros were only those who obtained his approval and thus they were subordinates to him.

The initial military victories of Tewodros did not result in political stability and effective, central control. The legacies of the Zemene Mesafint did not die out soon and the attempt at centralization proved to be a difficult task to achieve. Local dynasties did not want to lose their traditional economic, military and political autonomy. Nor did the hand-picked royal appointees of Tewodros tolerate too much imperial control over them. As a result, the emperor's policy of reunification met stiff resistance throughout his empire. Even his former allies turned their backs against him and rebelled one after the other. This made the emperor and his army extremely busy traveling from one trouble spot to the other. He treated rebellious regions very harshly, punishing most commonly with the cutting off captives' limbs, burning houses and harvests to ashes and looting the local people. The more harsh Tewodros became, the more multiplied were the rebellions and his unpopularity. This in turn provoked more tyrannical measures by the emperor. Thus, a vicious circle was created, the cumulative effect of which was a complete failure of his policy of unification.

The anti-Tewodros propaganda of the clergy, following their conflict over some issues, harmed the emperor considerably. Emperor Tewodros actually broke the tradition of exemption of church land from tax. He saw that his programs of modernization and reforms such as establishing a national and salaried army, arms manufacturing, defence of the country against Egyptian aggression, etc. could only be met by increasing the revenue of the state. To this end he reduced the number of priests and deacons in each church to a maximum of two and three, respectively. He also reduced the size of church land that used to be exempted from tax by taking away church land that he believed was in excess and giving it to tribute paying peasants. His policy on church land brought the emperor into direct conflict with one of the potential allies of the state in the work of empire building and political unification. Church-State conflict reached its peak in 1864. In that year the emperor imprisoned the bishop Abuna Salama who died in prison three years later.

Tewodros was very eager to build a strong modern national army. Above all, he wanted to import the technical know-how for manufacturing firearms locally. When his tireless struggle to get skilled personnel from Europe turned fruitless, he gathered European missionaries living in his country and persuaded them to manufacture firearms at his gun foundry of Gafat, near Debre Tabor. Obeying the king's orders the missionaries repaired broken firearms and manufactured several cannons, including the mortar named Sebastopol. The captivity of Europeans however provoked anxiety, in Europe, mainly in Britain and France. Tewodros was advised to release the European captives and was "promised" to get the skilled personnel asked for. However, he refused to do as asked. The British sent their military expedition led by Sir Robert Napier to Maqdala in the fall of 1867.

The first and last major encounter between the two forces took place on the plains of Eroge in April 1868. The battle of Erogee was fought between un equals. About 2000 well-armed British troops and between 4000-7000 ill-armed Ethiopians-ended in the shattering defeat of Ethiopians. The event hastened the downfall of Tewodros which had already been weakened by internal factors, mainly the opposition of the regional lords and the clergy. Refusing to accept a British demand for unconditional surrender, Tewodros committed suicide on 13 April 1868. The British were satisfied with the success of their mission, with all European captives of Tewodros released, began to withdraw the country with out delay.

Far worse than the destruction and the bloodshed, the British expedition caused was the organized looting of the Maqdala treasury that forced the country to lose quantities of historical relics including the emperor's crown. Before leaving Ethiopia General Robert Napier, the commander of the British expedition, handed over a large quantity of firearms to Kasa Mercha (later Yohannes IV). He did that because Kasa Mercha had not opposed Napier's march against Tewodros. Moreover, Kasa gave guidance and material support to the British troops. This acquisition of firearms was a major factor in Kasa Mercha's later victory over Emperor Takla- Giyogis at the battle of Assam in 1871.

Tewodros attempted lots of reforms, many of which did not last longer. He tried to stop divisions within the Church, the slave trade, banditry and looting of peasants by troops. He also tried to stop polygamy and other social evils. He wanted to see his countrymen learn from the technical advance made by west European countries, as could be evidenced by his small workshop at Gafat. Above all, he worked hard to build a united and very well administered nation capable of resisting foreign, aggression.

Tewodrose neither used flexible method nor he tried alternative means. His promise to the peasants to put an end to their sufferings never realized as not only the rebles but also Tewdrose's troops continued

looting them. As the result, people gave up their support to him. Even the already controlled regions came out of his hand one after the other. Finally, Tewdros left Ethiopia as divided as he got it. However, the idea of unification survived him.

Despite the instability and struggle for power that followed his death, there was no return to the Zamana Masafent. The war was above all fought for emperorship. Three contenders for the throne, Wagshum Gobaze of Lasta, Ras Mekowanent Kasa Mercha of Tigray and Negus Menelik of Shoa, all aspired to become emperor after Tewodros. They reigned in that order with the throne names Takla Giorgis (1868-71) Yohannes IV (1872-89) and Menelik II (1889-1913). The legacy of Tewodros thus lies in the urgent drive of his successors for imperial leadership over a united Ethiopia.

3.1.2. New Approach to Building Imperial Power, 1872-1889

The first three years that followed the death of Tewodros were not eventful. Emperor Takla Giorgis (1868-71) had control of the central Amhara regions, but he did not exercise power over the rival regions of Tigray and Shoa. His attempt to extend his control over Tigray ended in his own defeat at the battle of Assam in July 1871. He was defeated and captured by Kasa Mercha. In consequence, the latter also took over the throne with all the challenges of regional forces and the threat from outside. Like Tewodros, Yohannes IV began the process of reunification by directing military expeditions against the regions of Gondar, Gojjam, Yeju, and Hamasen so as to get their submission. However, the submission of some regions was only temporary, and they rebelled against the emperor. In Gojjam, for instance, the local power contender, Adal Tasamma, assumed power by killing his rival Dasta Tadla who had already obtained royal recognition. Unlike Tewodros, however, Yohannes was flexible and did not often fight repeated wars with the same regions. For instance, he made peace with Adal and recognized his authority over Gojjam. By so doing, the emperor turned an enemy into a friend. Adal was rewarded by being crowned as King of Gojjam and Kefa, with the name Takla Haymanot in January 1881.

What Yohannes did in Gojjam was exemplary of his tolerance for regional dynasties, so long as he ensured their tributary status. He was ready to share power with regional lords, in as far as they recognized his over lordship. This was the same even in his relations with the strongest regional power, Menelik of Shoa. From the time Yohannes was crowned, Menelik was calling himself king of kings, expanding his territories towards Wollo and contacting foreign countries independently. He also did

not pay tribute to the emperor. Yohannes was preoccupied with the threat from Egyptian aggressors which forced him to postpone a showdown with Menelik. However, the difference between Yohannes and Menelik was resolved by the Leche Agreement of 20 March 1878. The peace initiative came from Menelik because of the probable military superiority of Yohannes. The emperor, too, did not want to see bloodshed from an internal challenge at a time, as we shall see below, when his country was invaded by an Egyptian army.

According to the Leche Agreement, Menelik agreed to pay tribute to Yohannes, drop the title king of kings and to use only the title king of Shoa, and to stop his independent dealings with foreigners. As a reward, he got recognition for his authority over Wollo and hereditary kingship over Shoa. In addition, both Yohannes and Menelik agreed to help each other against common enemies. By this peaceful arrangement, Yohannes ended the independence of the Kingdom of Shoa which had lasted for many

decades in the past.

However, Yohannes was not able to win the absolute loyalty of Menelik. As later events were to show, Menelik continued to prepare himself to take the imperial throne for himself. Even Takla-Haymanot did not remain loyal to Yohannes throughout his reign. For instance, in 1888 there was a wide-spread rumour about a plot against the emperor which involved Menelik and Takla-Haymanot. That was at a time when the emperor was troubled by the double threat of Italian aggression and Mahdist hostility in the north and north west respectively. Compared to Tewodros who had had established only a temporary control over Shoa in the south, Yohannes got permanent control over Shoa through his proxy, Menelik. He was able to get control, of territories as far as the southwestern provinces of present day Ethiopia, in addition to the old central and northern provinces.

Yohannes never applied the flexibility and liberalism he showed in the field of politics over religious issues. In religion he sought complete unity as the guiding principle. He thus ended the century-old religious divisions within the Orthodox Church at the Council of Borumeda in May 1878. Yohannes gave state support to the upholders of the Karrra Haymanot (Two Births) camp. While the unity of Church was maintained through "open discussion", the Emperor was very harsh towards Islam. Following the Borumeda Council, all Muslims were ordered to embrace Christianity under the threat of persecution and confiscation of property. The Muslims of Wollo were the main victims of

compulsory conversion. This severity towards Ethiopian Muslims in Wollo worked against the emperor's policy of political and national unity.

3.1.3. Resistance to Egyptian and Mahdist Aggressions

Foreign threat against Ethiopian independence, though manifested even earlier, reached a peak in the second half of the nineteenth century. It came from several directions; Egypt, Mahdist Sudan and Italy. The causes, course and consequences of the first two aggressions will be discussed here in this section, and the latter in another section, farther below.

Ethiopia and Egypt had a long history of relationships which involved cultural, commercial and religion. This relationship was affected since the turn of the 19th century as Egypt embarked on a vigorous expansion into the Horn of Africa, which included Ethiopia as the source of the Blue Nile.

The age-old ambition to control the Nile drainage system was the main interest of Egyptian rulers.

Thus in 1821 Egypt occupied Sudan. Despite fierce resistance, the military superiority of the Egyptian army and internal conflicts among local people left Sudan an easy prey to the Egyptian conquerors. As the source of the Blue Nile, Ethiopia was also victim of Egyptian expansion. Indeed, Sudan served as a base for Egyptian encroachment into the north-western Ethiopian regions like Semen, Dambya, and the Sheikdoms of Assosa and Beni –Shangul. Early Egyptian threats coincided with the period of the Zamana Masafent. The internal crisis of the period provided an opportunity for Egyptian periodic attacks and penetrations into the Ethiopian border regions. In the absence of a well organized national defence, the individual attempt of local chiefs to check the advance of Egyptian troops in their respective regions could not bring a lasting solution. Consequently, for over half a century Egypt posed a serious problem on the social, economic and religious life of the peoples along the Ethio-Sudanese border. Egyptians imposed heavy taxes on regions they occupied. They looted and enslaved the local people, and burnt fields and homes to ashes, when they faced resistance to their expansion.

Ethio-Egyptian conflicts were intensified during the reign of Emperor Tewodros. In 1865 the Egyptians took over the possession of the port of Massawa from the Ottoman Turks on the basis of a lease contract. The Egyptians then began to collect heavy taxes from Ethiopian merchants and blocked the import of firearms. Even worse, from 1872 onwards Egyptian troops began to advance into and control other Red Sea ports and coastal regions, as well as the border provinces of Matamma and Bogos.

The then ruler of Egypt, Khedive Ismail (1863-79), intensified the traditional Egyptian expansion to a more aggressive attempt at occupation of all Ethiopia. The grand ambition of Egyptian rulers was to build a Greater Egypt in North-East Africa. They aimed at becoming masters of the Nile basin and the Nile sources. The pretext of eradication of the slave trade and “extension of western civilization” into

Africa were used by the rulers of Egypt to justify expansionist ambitions. Khedive Ismail was able to get support from European powers using these arguments. Indeed, the strategic significance of Egypt, due to the newly opened Suez Canal in 1869, was more attractive to Europeans than Christian Ethiopia. However, Egyptian rulers seem to have underestimated the military strength of Ethiopia. Egyptians were misled into believing that Ethiopia was weak. Their calculations were based on the observation of the ease with which the 1868 British military expedition to Maqdala had been completed and the subsequent internal political conflicts, following the death of Tewodros. But by the middle of the 1870s, Ethiopia was not anymore politically divided and weak as before. The Egyptian image of a weak and disunited Ethiopia, and the absence of European opposition towards Egyptian expansion in the Horn of Africa encouraged a large scale invasion of Ethiopia in 1875. The ports of the Gulf of Aden and Massawa served as launching pads for the three-front invasion of Ethiopia by Egyptian troops in 1875.

An Egyptian army commanded by Mohammed Rauf Pasha occupied the Muslim City State of Harar in October 1875 with very little difficulty. A Swiss- German named Werner Munzinger, often referred to as the architect of Egyptian aggression in Ethiopia, advanced to the center from the direction of Tdjura. However, Munzinger and his army of about 500 men, were ambushed and destroyed by the Afar people on their way to Shoa. Another very well armed Egyptian contingent led by a Danish colonel, Arendrup, moved into the interior Mereb Melash region from the port of Massawa. By late October 1875 his army had reached the banks of river Mereb.

In July 1872, Yohannes had written to Khedive Ismail a letter in which he defined his boundaries in the north and coastal regions. He also demanded the withdrawal of the Egyptian troops from his country. In the absence of a positive response, on the part of Egypt, Yohannes turned to seeking European diplomatic intervention. He sent letters to the rulers of France, Germany, Russia, Austria and Britain. He let them know the unlawful invasion of his country by Egypt and the intention of the Egyptian ruler, as he claimed, to Islamize and enslave his people. With full confidence, he expressed his hope that Christian European nations would not tolerate the 'Muslim unjust attack' on a Christian nation and requested fair justice for his people.

Nonetheless, the emperor's expectation of Christian solidarity was no more than wishful thinking. Europeans gave deaf ear to his protest. Consequently, Yohannes resorted to a defensive war against Egypt. On 23 October 1875, he issued a mobilization order. In command of 20,000 troops, Emperor Yohannes crossed the River Mereb. On 16 November he fought with the Egyptian army at the battle of Gundet. About two hours of effective attack on the encircled Egyptian troops resulted in an instant victory for Ethiopians. Colonel Arendrup and about 1320 Egyptian troops were killed in the battle. A large number of Egyptian troops and firearms fell into the hands of Ethiopians. Although Egyptians suffered a humiliating defeat, Ethiopian victory at Gundet did not result in the restoration of the Ethiopian regions occupied by Egyptian forces. Instead, Khedive Ismail began preparations for another attack on Ethiopia to avenge his earlier setback. The following year, about 15,000 well-armed Egyptian troops under the command of Mohammed Ratib and the American General Loring invaded Ethiopian territories in the north. Thus the second Ethio-Egyptian battle was fought on 7-9 March 1876 at a place known as Gura, not far from Gundet.

The battle of Gura resulted in heavy losses on both sides, but once again victory went to Ethiopians. With the loss of about 3500 dead and 2500 taken as prisoners, the surviving Egyptian troops retreated. Ethiopians, too, lost about 4000 dead but with no prisoners of war lost to the enemy. Ethiopians collected a significant booty of arms. Egypt's military defeat in Ethiopia had resulted in a grave political consequence for the country. The fall of Khedive Ismail in 1879 and the British occupation Egypt in 1882 were partly the results of the Ethio-Egyptian war.

The military victories of Gundet and Gura, however, failed to bring about significant gains to Ethiopia considering the reasons for which they were fought. The Egyptians remained in control of occupied regions and ports. Yohannes did

not want to risk his victory by continuing his attack on Egyptian troops with an exhausted army. He also wanted to know the reaction of the European powers to the crisis. Thus, he preferred postponing further war and pushing his victory to its logical conclusion. Instead, he once again chose to try a peaceful solution.

The strange thing, in the immediate post-war year, was that Egypt behaved like a victor. Although Ethiopia showed an unreserved interest for a peaceful solution, Egypt proposed terms unacceptable for a sovereign country like Ethiopia. Egypt demanded reparation payment, release of prisoners of war and cession of occupied Ethiopian regions. These terms made the conclusion of the conflict by a formal peace treaty far from being achievable. Eventually, a period of no peace and no war continued for the next eight years.

From the early 1880s, however, Egypt sought a diplomatic alliance with Ethiopia. Two events accounted for this change of stand. Firstly, Egypt fell to British occupation in 1882. Secondly, the rise of a religious revivalist and nationalist movement in the Sudan by the, Mahadists, began to dismantle Egyptian control of that country. Starting from the western Sudan, the Mahdist attack defeated Egyptian troops in the Sudan. In the process, some of the Egyptians could not make it out of the Sudan, rather they were encircled along the Ethio-Sudanese border. Both Egypt and its protector, Britain, were not able to stop the energetic Mahdist attack. Instead they sought another means to relieve the trapped Egyptian troops. Hence, they wanted to sign a peace treaty that would end the Ethio- Egyptian conflict, and make use of Ethiopian assistance in this endeavor.

To this end a British envoy. Rear – Admiral Sir William Hewett signed a treaty, later called the Hewett Treaty, with Yohannes on 3 June 1884. The Hewett Treaty is also known, from the name of the place where it was signed, as the Adwa Treaty. It ended the Ethio-Egyptian conflict through British diplomatic intervention. The first two major articles of this treaty promised to Ethiopia free-transit via the port of Massawa and restoration of occupied regions to Ethiopia following the withdrawal of Egyptian troops. By the third article, Ethiopia promised to facilitate the evacuation of the Egyptian troops from their encircled position in eastern Sudan, through Ethiopian territory to Massawa, and then to Egypt.

On the surface, the Hewett Treaty seemed to be more rewarding for Ethiopia than the military victories of Gundet and Gura. It promised restoration of occupied regions and opening a sea outlet. Yohannes thus chose to become an ally of Egypt. But this earned Ethiopia a serious enemy, Mahdists of the Sudan. For Yohannes, what he needed further was British diplomatic support to restore the port of Massawa to Ethiopia. Yohannes wrote to Queen Victoria of England to help him get back Massawa.

On his part, in fulfillment of the terms of the Hewett Treaty, Yohannes ordered Ras Alula to rescue the Egyptian army trapped in the Sudan. Ras Alula accomplished his mission fighting with Mahdist troops at the battle of Kufit in January 1885. However, this Ethio-Egyptian alliance provoked a number of Mahdist attacks on north-western Ethiopian territories. The Mahdists launched a series of attacks characterized by looting, material destruction and enslavement of people.

Egypt only partly fulfilled her promise. Bogos was returned to Ethiopia, but Massawa was handed to Italy. Egyptian troops also withdrew from Tajura, Zeila and Berbera. But, shortly after the withdrawal of the Egyptians these coastal regions fell easy prey to colonial European powers competing in the region. The British, who had already been in control of Aden since 1839, occupied the ports of Zeila and Berbera. They expanded into the interior and created their colony of British Somaliland. The French did the same and formed their colony of French Somaliland by expanding from their 1862 possession of Obock. The port of Assab which was purchased by a private Italian Shipping Company (the Rubbatino Company) in 1869 had already been taken by the government of Italy in 1882. Against the claim of Yohannes and in violation of the Hewett Treaty, the British government secretly invited Italy to occupy Massawa. Italy took control of Massawa when the Egyptians left it on 5 February 1885. Even worse, it blocked import of arms to Ethiopia, collected heavy customs duties and began to expand into the highland region of Mareb, Melash of present day Eritrea. The British who wanted to check the French expansion in the Red Sea region wanted to strengthen Italy and favoured her expansion in the region, which was contrary to the terms of the Hewot Treaty.

However Yohannes did not give up hope of a diplomatic solution. He once again wrote to Queen Victoria protesting the violation of the treaty and the unlawful Italian advance into his territory. He sought explanation on whether or not the British were backing this Italian adventure. The response of Britain was negative. Yohannes was advised to live in love and peace with the powerful Italians.

But, in 1888 the Mahdists, again, started attacks through the western borders. The danger intensified in 1889. And Yohannes turned towards the Mahdist threat and marched to Matamma. On his way, he tried a peace initiative but there was no positive response on the part of the Mahdists. War became inevitable, and on 9 March 1889 the Ethiopian army and the Mahdist troops or Ansars fought at the battle of Matamma. Despite initial success the Ethiopians lost the battle, because Yohannes was fatally wounded and his army retreated. Yohannes died the next day. His corpse was beheaded by the Ansars as a sign of Mahdist revenge and they seemed to be content. In any case, they, too, had suffered heavy losses.

Map 3. Major battlefields in Ethiopia in the 19th century

Activity

3.2. Imperial Expansion to the South, South-West and South-East

Terms to Know

- Buffer zone
- Kefu Qan
- Tributes
- Coronation
- Naftagna
- Territorial expansion
- Famine
- Revenues
- Vassal

As you have studied in your previous lessons, the process of empire building was an agenda of priority

for both Tewodros II and Yohannes IV. Both used different approaches to achieve their goals of national reunification. While Tewodros failed, Yohannes was relatively successful in building an empire with regional dynasties enjoying internal autonomy.

The process of Ethiopian empire formation was however, completed under Emperor Menelik II. Menelik had learned a lot from the experiences of his predecessors. At the root of his expansion lay the traditional interest in land, tribute and control of trade routes.

Fig. 3.4 Emperor Menelik II (1889-113)

Menelik's expansion was directed against independent peoples and states in the area of present southwestern, southern and southeastern Ethiopia. His expansion was different from that of his predecessors in its intensity and unprecedented degree of success. Moreover, his territorial expansion coincided with the colonial expansion of European powers in the Horn of Africa. His conquests of border regions of present-day Ethiopia were marked by fierce competition with European colonial powers. Finally, as a contender for the throne for two decades, Menelik needed to build up his military muscle through conquest of the prosperous regions of southern Ethiopia, which possessed valuable items of trade.

The process of Menelik's expansion began when he was King of Shoa. First, he subdued the Oromo of Shoa in the early 1870s. Then, his army got the peaceful submission of the northern Gurage people known as the Kistane. This peaceful submission was a result not only to their being co-religionists (Christians) and their geographical proximity Northern Shoa, but also owing to their traditional protracted wars with the neighboring Oromos. The situation in southern Gurage, more properly the Silti, was, however, different from that of the north. Here, Menelik's army faced fierce resistance from the Muslim Gurage organized under a local leader known as Hassan Enjamo. A religious revivalist movement influenced by the Mahdists and by the Muslim exiles of Wollo, who had faced the forced conversion edict of 1878 by Emperor Yohannes IV, strengthened local resistance among the Muslim Gurage. Thus, this region was subdued by the army of Ras Gobena only in 1888 after years of unsuccessful resistance.

The regions beyond the Gibe basin were a bone of contention between the rival troops of the two kings, Menelik of Shoa and Takla-Haymanot of Gojjam. Actually, the latter was authorized by Yohannes IV to conquer the region with the intention of stopping the expansion of Menelik to the region. As a result the southwestern regions became a battle ground for the two rival kings. After a minor clash between their troops in Limu, a decisive battle was fought at Embabo (in Wallaga) on 6 June 1882 in the presence of the two kings. The bloody battle was concluded by the victory of Menelik and the captivity of Takla-Haymanot. Thus, the battle of Embabo allowed Meneilik to establish a firm control over the southwestern region which subsequently was given recognition by Emperor Yohannes. Menelik

faced no strong local resistance here. Local rulers were persuaded to accept peaceful incorporation and were rewarded by internal administrative autonomy. Aba Jiffar II of Jimma, Jote Tulu of Leqa Qellam and Kumsa Moroda of Leqa Naqamte belong to the list of local rulers who submitted peacefully with their local autonomy respected, in the years 1882-84.

On the contrary, the campaigns of Menelik's army in the south and southeastern regions were very costly and bloody. The region of Arsi was subdued in 1886 after four years of struggle, during which six unsuccessful military expeditions were sent against that region. The final battle of Azule was won by the army of Ras Darge, the cousin of Menelik, due mainly to its superiority in the possession of modern firearms. The fate of the Emirate of Harar was no exception. It was subdued after the bloody battle fought between the army of Menelik and Emir Abdullahi at Chalanqo, early in January 1887.

After Harar, the conquest of new regions was temporarily halted until 1894. Menelik gave priority first to his ambition for the throne, and after his coronation, to do something about Italian colonial expansion in northern Ethiopia. Thus, his conquests after he became emperor were motivated by the urgent need for preparation against Italian colonialism. Moreover, expansion to the south was also sought as a solution to the devastating Great Famine (1889-92) also known by the name Kefu Qan, which had seriously afflicted the northern and central regions of Ethiopia.

The immediate cause of the famine is attributed to a cattle disease, called rinderpest, imported with infected cattle from India. The cattle epidemic spread from north to south and killed hundreds of thousands of cattle and made farming very difficult. This caused famine that in turn led to epidemic disease claiming the life of large numbers of Ethiopians. The famine caused a great damage disrupting production and trade. It also caused a great population movement from north to south. Menelik not only recruited soldiers from survivors of the famine-hit northern region, but also settled northerners in the relatively little affected region of southern Ethiopia.

One of the areas in the south, whose rich resources attracted the army of Menelik, was Wolayta. The conquest of Wolayta in 1894 was one of the bloodiest of the campaigns of Menelik. Local people under their king Kawo Tona, defended Wolayta from the combined army of notable war leaders of Menelik such as Ras Michael, Fitawrari Gebayehu, Liqa Makwas Abate, Dejach Balcha, Ras Wolda Giorgis and Aba Jifar II. It was, therefore, a battle between unequals, which resulted in immense loss in human life and material wealth, and the looting of tens of thousands of heads of cattle by the invaders. Kawo Tona was wounded and captured to become a prisoner for the rest of his life.

Similarly, in 1897 the old Kingdom of Kaffa was incorporated after great bloodshed in the war between the local people, under their ruler Tato Geki Serecho, and the army of Menelik under Ras Wolde Giorgis. For the campaign, Wolde Giorgis had enlisted the support of the armies of Ras Damese of Wallaga, Aba Jifar II of Jimma, Ras Tasamma of Illubabor and the rulers of Kullo and Konta. Geki

Serecho was defeated and captured after nine months of fugitive life and ended up in prison.

The support of local rulers of newly incorporated regions in the following conquests of Menelik was also evident in the conquest of Assosa, Beni Shangul and Komosha areas along the Ethio-Sudanese border. Here, Dejach Jote of Qelem and Dejach Gebre Egziabher (baptismal name of Kumsa) of Naqamte gave military support to the army of Ras Mekonnen. The defection of Sheik Abdurahman Hojale to the side of Ras Mekonnen aborted the united resistance of the local people against the army of Menelik. Following the conquest, Menelik reinstated loyal rulers to power as vassals.

Expansion into the border regions of Borana and Ogaden, likewise along the western borders, seems to have been in competition with the neighboring colonial powers which had adjacent colonies with Ethiopia.

Menelik wanted to create a buffer zone between the fertile interior and neighboring European colonies by conquering border lowlands. His famous military victory at the Battle of Adwa intensified his competition with the colonial powers, and by the turn of the 20th century he had completed the process of empire formation.

The incorporation of the southern, southwestern and southeastern regions involved both peaceful submission through persuasion and devastating wars of conquest. The nature of their administration was related to the way they were incorporated. Regions that resisted the army of Menelik were treated harshly. Local dynasties were uprooted and replaced by appointees of the central government. Local people were mostly alienated from their land. The conquered people were subjected to severe economic exploitation and brutal treatment by the settlers from the north protected by an armed men known as the Neftegnas. Regions that offered no resistance, however, faced little difficulty. Here, local rulers retained their traditional power and continued as vassals of the emperor. However, national oppression was common to all conquered people.

The political stability that followed the establishment of an expanded empire facilitated the revival of local and foreign trade. Addis Ababa was founded by Empress Taytu in November 1886, and became the centre of government and economic activities. Elsewhere in the south, south-west and south-east, a significant number of garrison centers of the expanding army of Menelik evolved into administrative and commercial centers.

Activity

3.3. Italian Aggression against Ethiopia and the Battle of Adwa

Terms to Know

- Aggression
- Fortification
- Torch-bearer
- Protectorate
- Sovereignty
- Pan- Africanism
- Treaty
- Independence
- Court martial
- Colony
- Diplomacy
- Ethiopianism
- Mobilization order
- Circular Letter
- Nationalism

During the second –half of the 19th century, a third and major source of aggression against Ethiopia was Italy. Italy had colonial designs over Ethiopia. Therefore, her colonial ambitions led her to occupy territories in the north, establish the colony of Eritrea and fight the Battle of Adwa against Ethiopia in 1896.

3.3.1. First Strongholds of Italy in Ethiopia

As indicated in pages above, the Italian Government took control of Assab from the Rusbatino Shipping Company in 1882. Then, in 1885 Italy occupied Massawa, and began attempts to penetrate into the interior from the coast. The Italian attempts to encroach into the highlands of the Mereb Mellash (Eritrea) region was unacceptable both to Emperor Yohannes IV and his commander, Ras Alula Engida. Alula was also Governor of the province of Mereb Mellash. Therefore, the Italians came into direct conflict with Yohannes and Alula.

On 26 January 1887 Alula, at a place called Dogali, crushed an Italian contingent consisting of about 500 Italian soldiers, which were going as reinforcements to the Saati fortress that he had attempted to attack. This was actually the first serious blow to Italian colonial advance in Ethiopia. Thus, it created great anxiety and provoked Italian desire for revenge. It equally offended the British government.

However, while Italy wanted military revenge, Britain intervened as a peace broker, of course, on behalf of the aggressor. A British envoy, Gerald Portal, met Yohannes in November 1887 and proposed a war indemnity for Italy, official Ethiopian apology for Alula's attack, and cession of occupied coastal regions to Italy. Portal's mission failed. Yohannes declared his choice of war rather than accept these proposed terms of peace. He also wrote to Queen Victoria condemning British diplomatic dishonesty and unfairness.

Ras Alula's rejection of conceding Ethiopian territory to Italy was also firm and made war inevitable. Shortly afterwards Emperor Yohannes called his people to arms.

Within a few weeks, about 80,000 men followed Yohannes on his march across the Mereb river to fight the Italians at their fortress of Saati in March 1888. The Saati confrontation did not turn to actual fighting, however, because the Italians refused to come out of their fortified position and meet the Ethiopian army in the open field. A deadlock was created that lasted for a month. The Ethiopian army, consisting largely of peasants short of supplies, could not stay long at Saati. They had to return home to their farms. Nor was the supply of provisions enough to keep up the confrontation for long. Yohannes had to choose between retreat or strike on the Italians in their fortress.

The arrival of news from the other direction reduced the options to one. Yohannes was informed of the destructive invasion of Mahdist troops as far as Gondar, as well as the rebellion of Negus Menelik and Negus Takla-Haymanot against him. He also heard about the friendly relations Menelik of Shoa and the Italians, which was established on the basis of the Convention of Neutrality they signed in October 1887. All these things, combined with the un-willingness of Italians to come out for an open battle, made Yohannes decide to postpone the war with Italy. He chose first to punish the internal plotters and then fight the Mahdists.

Yohannes attacked Gojjam first and after a bloody destruction got the submission of its king. The plan to fight Menelik was dropped, however. Instead, the emperor and Menelik made an agreement to help each other against their common enemies. Both had mutual interest in peace, because Yohannes did

not want a bloody civil war at a time when his country was invaded by two foreign enemies- the Mahdists and Italy. Menelik, too, realized the military superiority of Yohannes. The Italians, who aimed at subverting Menelik against Yohannes, had already won his neutrality in the event of war between them and the emperor. This was agreed in the Convention of Neutrality signed in October 1887, in which they promised to give Menelik 5000 rifles. Nevertheless these rifles had not reached Menelik. Therefore, Menelik had good reason not to fight with Yohannes.

3.3.2. The Birth of the Italian Colony of Eritrea

It is often claimed that the Treaty of Wuchale, signed between Emperor Menelik and the Italian envoy Count Pietro Antonelli on 2 May 1889, directly led to the creation of the Italian colony of Eritrea. But that was preceded by long years of Italo-Shoan friendship. The official contacts between Menelik and the Italians go as far back as 1876, with the coming to Shoa of an Italian Geographical Society led by Marquis O. Antinori. Antinori's mission had the objective of investigating the chances for colonial expansion under the cover of scientific study. As a region close to the Italian base at Assab, and since the Shoan king was a rival of Emperor Yohannes, Shoa was considered as another appropriate base or ally for Italian colonial ambitions. On his part, Menelik needed the friendship of Italy as a means of acquisition of firearms from abroad with which he could fight his way to the throne.

Thus, while Menelik gave a resting place near Ankober called Let Marafya to the Italians, the latter agreed to post an agent at Assab who would buy firearms for Menelik. This initial alliance was further cemented by the Treaty of Commerce and Friendship. This treaty was signed between King Menelik and Antonelli of Italy in October 1883. The treaty included provisions about consular exchange and an agreement on free trade, free movement of their nationals and freedom of religious propagation. The third Italo- Shoan treaty came in 1887, following the Dogali Incident when Italians needed the help of Menelik more than he needed theirs. It appears that the Italians tried to win the consent of Menelik to help them in future unavoidable war against Yohannes. Due to his unwillingness to fight Yohannes, however, the Italians persuaded him at least to remain neutral, in the event of war between Italy and Yohannes. As indicated above, he agreed to this through a treaty later called the Convention of Neutrality, which was signed in October that year, 1887.

The above friendly relations between Menelik and the Italians seem to have been based on their interest in securing each other's support for the Ethiopian crown and colonial expansion, respectively. Though Menelik did not support Italian colonial expansion in principle, the presence of Yohannes as an obstacle on his way to the imperial throne gave Menelik the drive to seek the friendship of Italy. The Treaty of Wuchale, although signed after Menelik declared himself emperor, was an extension of their old mutual interest and friendship. The Wuchale Treaty was drafted by Antonelli and signed by Menelik and Antonelli in May 1889, in Menelik's current camp, in Wollo.

The Treaty of Wuchale had twenty articles, but the two very significant ones in terms of their contribution to the subsequent Italo-Ethiopian conflicts were articles III and XVII. Article III, delimited the boundary between Italian-occupied regions of Mereb Melash and the rest of Ethiopia. The villages of Arafaili, Segeneiti, Asmara, Adi Yohanis-from east to west-served as a boundary line for the Italian possessions. Thus, the Italians got legal recognition over much of the lowland and some of the highland regions beyond the river Mereb.

The territorial cessions of Menelik to the Italians were far from satisfactory to the Italian colonial dream. They began, to push beyond the borders defined in Article III of the Wachale Treaty. Even more they cheated Ras Mekonnen, the cousin of Menelik, who went to Italy to get the ratification of the whole treaty. They persuaded him to sign an additional Convention on 1 October 1889. This was aimed at advancing further towards the River Mereb under the cover of delimiting the boundary, on the basis of effective occupation. Indeed, against the protest of Menelik, the Italians occupied the whole region as far as the Mereb river, which they declared as their colony of Eritrea on 1 January 1890.

3.3.3. Italian Ambition over the Rest of Ethiopia

To make matters even worse, the Italians pursued a diplomatic campaign to make the whole of Ethiopia their protectorate. To this end, they used a calculated contradiction in the Amharic and Italian version of Article XVII of the Wuchale Treaty. The Amharic version of this article reads that Ethiopia can use the help of Italy in her diplomatic relations with other European powers. However, the Italian text contained an obligatory commitment of Ethiopia to use the good offices of Italy for her relations with Europe; and thereby it denied Ethiopia her sovereignty. Further more, Italy notified the great powers of Europe that, by Article XVII of the Wuchale Treaty, Ethiopia had become an Italian protectorate.

Menelik learned of the Italian tricks when response to his letters, written directly without the knowledge of Italy, came from Britain and Germany. In these letters from Europe he was advised to contact them only through his "protector". This led to a major friction between Italy and Ethiopia. Menelik wrote to King Umberto of Italy protesting against the Italian claim. He asked the Italian government to correct Article XVII. Italy was not willing to correct it. Menelik, however, turned to a wider diplomatic campaign, and in April 1891 he dispatched a circular letter to all European powers. He informed them about Italian diplomatic dishonesty and that he had no obligation to respect Italian protectorate rights. That was because Ethiopia was independent and not a protectorate of Italy. Even more, he defined the Ethiopian boundary as extending as far as the sea. And Menelik requested the help of Christian powers to get at least an outlet to the sea. But there was no help from Christian Europe.

On its part, the Italian government followed the twin policies of persuasion and subversion in Ethiopia. The first refers to the Italian unsuccessful effort to induce Menelik to agree to the Italian version of Article XVII. This effort was completely aborted when, in February 1893, Menelik abrogated (cancelled) the Treaty of Wuchale. Italian subversive activities among dissatisfied nobles did, however, have initial success mainly in northern Ethiopia. For instance, by the Mereb Convention of December 1891, the Italians achieved the temporary defection of the Tigrean chiefs under the leadership of Ras Mengesha Yohannes, the person chosen by Emperor Yohannes as his successor.

Nonetheless, the subversive activities of the Italians proved a complete failure. Ethiopian collaborators of the Italians soon understood the hidden colonial motive of the Italians. This became even more clear, with Italian racist attitudes in the settlement pattern of their citizens in Eritrea. The first significant blow to the subversive plan of Italy came in June 1894, when Ras Mengesha and Ras Alula renewed their loyalty to Menelik. Even worse for the Italians, in December 1894, Dejazmach Bahta Hagos, their former collaborator and governor of Akale Guzay in Eritrea, started a peasant rebellion against the Italians. This rebellion was suppressed, but it gave the spark to an armed resistance that followed against Italian colonialism. Ras Mengesha and Ras Alula crossed the river Mereb and fought the Italians at Qoatit and Senafe early in 1895. As a revenge, the Italian army invaded the whole of Tigray, in September 1895. Italy openly began to use military means to realize the dream of becoming a colonial master over Ethiopia.

On the Ethiopian side, the inevitability of war had already become obvious. Apart from the Emperor, his wife Empress Taytu herself was an advocate of an armed solution to the Italian diplomatic dishonesty. Thus, Menelik began preparing for the final showdown with Italy. Internally, he continued his expansion into the prosperous regions of present day southern Ethiopia, mainly

to build up his human and material resources, as you have seen in the preceding pages. Internationally, Menelik did his best to win allies mainly for the import of firearms, particularly from France and Russia. On 17 September 1895, Menelik issued a mobilization order in which he stated the Italian unlawful invasion of his country. He got a positive response from his people which enabled him to lead an army of about 100,000 recruited from all classes, ethnic groups and regions including the newly conquered areas of south, southwest and southeast.

Indeed, Menelik led a united Ethiopia against Italy. An Italian writer who saw the positive response of soldiers, peasants, young and old, men and women, for Menelik's mobilization order wrote, It looks as if the whole population was moving for war. The then bishop and the clergy themselves accompanied the army to the battlefield. Empress Taytu had started preparation for war since long ago. She had gathered

women in the palace to prepare food, drink, utensils, traditional medicines, bandages, etc. She had already sent messages to her vassals of northern Ethiopia to supply food to the army while passing through their respective regions. She also mobilized an army of 5000 troops under her command, and followed her husband to the campaign. The total number of

Ethiopian women who went to Adwa is not exactly known. But one French writer reported that there were about 1200 women. These women not only gave moral support to the combatants, but also gave service as fighters, nursing the wounded, supplying food and drinks to fighters, clearing roads, guarding camps, etc.

3.3.4. The Battle of Adwa

The Battle

Before the final decisive encounter at Adwa, the Italian and the Ethiopian troops fought at two places. The first battle was fought on 7 December 1895 at Amba Alage, in southern Tigray, between a contingent of the Ethiopian vanguard force led by Fitawrari Gebeyehu and an Italian force under the command of Major Toselli. The Italians were completely defeated and lost about 2000 troops, including Major Toselli himself, from the total of 2350 Italian troops. Local sources suggest 286 dead and about 300 wounded on the Ethiopian side. Thus, the Italians were forced to retreat northwards to their stronghold at Maqale which was defended by 4 cannons.

Under the command of Ras Makonnen, the Ethiopian army, which consisted of the combined troops of different regional lords, encircled the Italian fortress of Maqale. Attacks on the enemy began later when Menelik reached the fortress, but this brought no immediate success since the Italians had built a strong fortress difficult to break into. Meanwhile, the Ethiopian army was advised to control a small stream near the fortress, which was a source of water for the Italian troops. The author of this tactic is said to have been Empress Taytu; and indeed the stream was then controlled by 900 soldiers from her own contingent. Between 7-21 January 1896, Maqale was under siege. The Italian army stationed there suffered a great deal from shortage of water. The Italians were forced to surrender the fortress. Menelik allowed the Italians a safe evacuation. That was done not only hoping for a peaceful solution for the conflict, but also as a plan to advance further within Tigray under the cover of a peace gesture, if the war was to continue.

The Italians did not, however, agree to any peace. About 20,000 troops formed into four brigades, under the supreme command of General Oreste Baratieri, were ready for war. Half of the Italian troops consisted of askaris from Eritrea. Numerically, the Italian army was only one fifth of the Ethiopians. But the Italians had the advantage of better firearms than Ethiopians. They had also modern training and professional military leadership. Three Italian brigades were led by Generals Albertone, Arimondi and Dabormida respectively. General Albertone was in charge of the rearguard. Despite good preparations, however, the Italian military leadership had no exact knowledge about the number and the tactics of the

Ethiopian army. The role of the local people as double agents to both the Italians and the Ethiopian side was very helpful to the Ethiopian army. They helped by providing faulty information to the enemy. For instance, Sunday March 1, 1896, the day of commemoration of St. George, was selected as the date of the major battle, after two weeks of tension and confrontation between the Ethiopian and the Italian troops. This decision was made by General Baratieri misled by a wrong advice by the double agents. A delusive advice that Ethiopian armies never fight on holidays was given to him by Basha Awalom, (a double agent). The general was also told of internal conflicts among the generals of Menelik and shortage of food among his troops.

At Adwa, the battle began at day break on 1 March 1896 with the Italian strike on the Ethiopian camp. An extremely bloody battle was fought until mid-afternoon. The Ethiopian army fought bravely and scored a smashing victory. The Italians lost about 7000 of their men dead, 2500 badly wounded and 3500 made prisoners of war. The Ethiopian army also suffered heavy casualties but with no prisoners of war. Losing the battle, Baratieri ordered a general retreat and his surviving troops cleared out of the whole province of Tigray. The Italian dream of reducing Ethiopia to a colony ended in failure. Therefore, Italy was left only with her control over Eritrea.

Factors for the Ethiopian victory at Adwa were Italian faulty reading of maps, false information from local "spies", underestimation of Ethiopian unity, wrong military strategy and poor leadership. Much of Menelik's army was also well equipped with good imported firearms. There was serious lack of coordination among the different Italian brigades. On the contrary, the Ethiopians had the advantage of strong unity, strong morale and commitment to the cause of Ethiopia's sovereignty. There was efficient co-ordination among the different troops of regional lords. The moral support rendered by the clergy, women, minstrels (traditional singers), etc, and the proper knowledge of topography also contributed a great deal to the victory of Ethiopian troops.

The Consequences and Historical Significance of the Adwa Victory

- Explain the national significance of the Adwa victory.

Ethiopia entered the twentieth century as one of the very few independent nations in Africa. Liberia, and until 1911-12 Morocco, were the other independent states; though Liberia did not fight any war of independence as Ethiopia did. However, it must be remembered, that a part of Ethiopian territory (Mereb Mellash Eritrea) remained in Italian hands, when Ethiopia entered the twentieth century. The sovereign status of Ethiopia got international recognition. This recognition was expressed in two ways. Firstly, different powers opened their legations in Addis Ababa: Italy (1896), Britain and France (1897), the USA (1903), Germany (1905), etc. Secondly, European powers possessing colonies adjacent to Ethiopia delimited their respective common boundaries between Ethiopia and their colonies, in the years between 1897-1908. This gave birth to the present shape of Ethiopia.

Adwa seems to have drawn the attention of the international community to Ethiopia, the country that had scored the first major black victory over the whites. It is true that in southern Africa the Zulus had also scored a victory in a battle against whites in that century. But although the Zulus had defeated and destroyed a British force in 1879 at Isandhlwana, Britain succeeded in winning the overall Zulu War. On the one hand; journals and newspapers published in Europe for some weeks after Adwa produced the

pictures of Menelik and Taytu on their front pages. They criticized, from many angles, the “tragedy” (for Italy) of the loss of the colonial battle. On the other hand, after Adwa, foreign travelers, merchants and other Europeans from different nations came to Ethiopia. Therefore, the Adwa victory has been a symbol of national pride. Indeed, it has made succeeding generations of Ethiopians more determined to guard the independence of the country at all costs.

The effect of military defeat for Italy on the other hand, was disastrous. It created a profound shock, and anxiety in Italy and there were widespread disturbances. In major cities of Italy, there were demonstrations, some of them bearing slogans like, Viva Menelik! Viva Taytu!. The demonstrators demanded the court-martial of General Baratieri, the release of Italian prisoners of war and the withdrawal of Italy from Africa. The government of Crispi, the Italian Premier, fell amid abuse and serious criticism. In consequence, Crispi resigned immediately. Baratieri had to leave the army and ended up in prison.

An Italian diplomatic mission came to Ethiopia and signed the Treaty of Addis Ababa with Emperor Menelik on 26 October 1896. The treaty concluded the Italo-Ethiopian dispute. Italy agreed to the cancellation of the Wuchale Treaty and recognized the complete independence of Ethiopia. Ethiopia, too, agreed to the continuation of Italian colonial control over Eritrea and the release of Italian prisoners of war. Of course, the government of Italy did not withdraw from Africa, despite the anti-colonialist protest at home. But it was forced to reduce the colonial budget for some years and postponed its colonial ambitions in Ethiopia.

The echo of Adwa was very well heard in Britain as well. The concern Britain showed to this black victory against a white colonial power was understandable. Britain had many colonies in Africa in general, and was a colonial neighbor of Ethiopia, in particular. Moreover, the success of the British plan of blocking possible expansion of France towards the White Nile became questionable with the defeat Italy suffered. Therefore, Britain was forced to revise her former policy of wait and see with regard to Mahdist Sudan (1885-96). As a result the British government hastened to conquer Sudan in the name of Egypt, and a joint army of Britain and Egypt invaded the Sudan in 1896. The Battle of Omdurman (1898) marked the fall of the Mahdist state and the establishment of the so-called Anglo-Egyptian Condominium rule over the Sudan.

Nonetheless, this British success did not stop the French from moving to the White Nile, simultaneously from west and east Africa. Menelik wanted to exploit the Anglo-French rivalry over the White Nile for his own plan of expanding his empire. From west Africa, a French Captain named Marchand led an expedition to the upper Nile. A small French force under Marchand and a large British force faced each other at a place called Fashoda in the Sudan in 1898. Bloodshed at Fashoda and war between Britain and France were avoided by the withdrawal of the French. This left Sudan to the colonial rule of Britain, though it was called Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Thus, it could safely be said that the fear and anxiety the Adwa victory created among European colonialists precipitated the colonization of Sudan, an African neighbor of Ethiopia.

Another expression of the value given to Adwa victory as a torch-bearer of black nationalist struggle was the emergence of religious separatist movements collectively known as Ethiopianism. At face value, the movement seemed religious, using such names like Coptic, Abyssinian and Ethiopian. The

essence of the movement was, however, firm resistance against white domination.

Activity

3.4. The Ethiopian Empire State in the Post-Adwa Period, up to 1935

Terms to Know

- Autocracy
- Coup
- Exile
- Absolutist state
- Constitution
- Gabbar
- Bureaucracy
- Diarchy
- Modern education
- - Cabinet of ministers
- Embezzlement
- Modernization
- Rivalry for royal successions

The period that followed the victory of Adwa to the Fascist Italian invasion in 1935 witnessed several important developments in Ethiopia. Although peasant socio-economic conditions showed practically no improvement from the past, modern trends started to be introduced gradually in certain socio economic sectors. Indeed, elements of modernization were introduced in transport, trade, education and urbanization. This is not to mention the still insignificant advance made in such non-socio-economic sectors like government and the army.

3.4.1. Socio-Economic Conditions

The first three decades of the twentieth century saw relatively better socio-economic developments. Those were in one way or another related to the legacy of the major events of the 19th century Empire formation and struggle against foreign aggression.

In this section, a brief discussion of these developments will be given with particular emphasis on socio-economic aspects, which had undergone some changes. The first is the *gebbar* system which was the basic means of surplus appropriation of the feudal class. In its pre-twentieth century usage, a *gebbar* was a land holding peasant who had to pay *gibir* or tribute to the state. The type of tribute varied from one region to another. But, in most cases, it was paid in kind and in the form of unpaid labour service. Tribute in kind had different titles based on the purpose for which it was paid: like for land use, for the church, payments to the recipients such as when they received promotions, to congratulate local chiefs on important occasions, in the fasting seasons and at other times. Free labour service was given by the peasant and his family in times of grain production, construction, transportation, guarding prisoners and domestic services like grinding grain and fetching water and firewood for local chiefs. All these were exacted with little fairness and sense of humanity.

To make matters worse, the formation of the empire state and the administrative system

established in the newly incorporated regions made the life of peasants very miserable. In the southern regions-peasants were gradually alienated from their land. This began with the introduction of land measurement known as qalad. That action resulted not only in the appropriation of much land by the state, but also facilitated privatization of land. It also increased state revenue, since it classified land tax based on fertility rates. But it pushed poor peasants down to the status of insecure tenants. Poor peasants who could not afford to buy land or those driven away from their land were forced to become landless or migrate to cities to become beggars. However, it does not mean the peasants remained passive. In some cases there were open rebellions. In others, there were protests to the local officials or to the Emperor in the capital though they got no fair justice. The cumulative effect of the exploitative nature of the modes of surplus appropriation was negative on the economic development of the country. It, seriously affected agricultural productivity.

Even worse than the gebbar system, for the peoples of Ethiopia, was the continuation of the slave trade and slavery. There had been a centuries-old history of slavery and the slave trade in Ethiopia. Besides the economic rewards of the slave trade to both the merchants and rulers, slavery had also a social aspect. The possession of many slaves signified the high status of the owners. Slaves were also used for different kinds of domestic services. Although the practice was old, it was the frequent wars of conquest in the process of empire formation that gave additional encouragement to the practice of the slave trade and slavery. Thus, in the first two decades of the 20th century, members of the royal family and the nobility were reported to have had “thousands” of slaves at their disposal, though, this may seem a little exaggerated.

The overall effect of the slave trade had been disastrous. To start with, it depopulated the most productive elements of the defeated, as it was the youth who were sought more than the old ones. It also killed the morale for production as there was no security of life and property in the regions, which were targets of slave hunting expeditions. The prevalence of the slave trade also brought foreign interference over the country. The European colonial powers, which had colonies adjacent to Ethiopia, imposed an arms embargo, accusing Ethiopia of using modern firearms for slave hunting expeditions. Of course, their major concern was that slavery was an obstacle for their capitalist investments and the markets they foresaw in Ethiopia. That is why they tried their best to make the abolition of slavery a precondition for Ethiopia's admission into the League of Nations.

As with slavery, the gebbar system met both internal and external opposition. Internally, it was criticized by the early Ethiopian educated elite as one of the major factors responsible for Ethiopia's backwardness. Thus, a combination of internal and external challenges brought some changes to the two institutions (slavery and the gebbar system). A year after Ethiopia's admission into the League of Nations, on 31 March 1924 a decree which freed slaves and prohibited the purchase and sale of slaves was enacted. Forced labour service was abolished in 1935. The same is true of the payment of honey as tribute. Moreover payment of tribute in cash was introduced at the rate of 30 birr per gasha.

The consequences of slavery and the gebbar system on the network of trade was, however, relatively less negative than their direct effect on productivity and social security. Indeed, from the turn of the twentieth century, a variety of factors seems to have contributed to the revival of internal and external trade. Trade revived mainly because of the general peace and political stability that followed the completion of the process of empire formation and the Adwa victory. Moreover, the colonial powers

surrounding Ethiopia, also encouraged external trade as part of their capitalist interest in the region. The extensive diplomatic relations established between Ethiopia and different countries also created fertile ground for more trade links than before the Adwa victory.

In fact, the direction of trade changed gradually to the east and west, owing first to contemporary military and political factors. The Shoa victory at the battle of Embabo in 1882 was followed by the political centrality of Shoa during the reign of Menelik. As a result, the northern trade was pulled to the south, so that the main trade routes tended to pass through the Shoa region. Furthermore, the Mahdist invasions, for a time discouraged the trade through the old northern outlets. All these factors combined with the opening of the Djibouti-Addis Ababa Railway, made the port of Djibouti the major outlet for Ethiopia's external trade throughout the first half of the 20th century. Besides Djibouti, there were other outlets through the British colonies of Sudan, Kenya and Somalia. The British trading station, established at Gambella in 1902, was a major outlet of Ethiopia's external trade only next to Djibouti. Around 1920, the Gambella trade constituted a large part of Ethiopia's external trade, due mainly to the export of coffee, produced in western Ethiopia. Unlike the port of Djibouti, the major entry for imported goods, Gambella was mainly an export outlet. The items of trade also saw some changes. The old major exports like ivory and civet began to be dominated by coffee, while on the import side textiles and beverages began to dominate.

The merchants that had dominated the import-export trade were mainly foreigners from different countries, who flocked into Ethiopia after the Adwa victory. They consisted of French, Indians, Greeks, Americans and Jews. On the Ethiopian side local traders were mainly engaged in domestic trade. Although they represented only an insignificant number, some members of the ruling classes were attracted to business, mainly in the first quarter of the 20th century. Menelik and Taytu are known to have been money-lenders. The Empress also opened the first hotel in Addis Ababa, which bore her own name (Itege Hotel) in 1907. Moreover, Taytu is known to have established a local bank for the development of trade and agriculture in cooperation with the bigger nobility. The governor of Gojjam, Ras Hailu, is known for beginning a cinema and a taxi business in the capital. The son-in-law of Emperor Haile Selassie Ras Desta Damtew, was involved in selling water. Ras Teferi himself is said to have been business-minded, and was a shareholder in some companies.

As a simultaneous process to the revival of trade and empire formation, urbanization also saw a relatively fast development. Some garrison centers, established during the expansion of Menelik, grew to become important towns such as Gore and Goba. Moreover, the construction of the Djibouti-Addis Ababa railway, which reached Addis Ababa in 1917, also resulted in the emergence of railway towns

such as Dire Dawa, Nazareth and Modjo. Of course, the railway did more than encourage trade and urbanization. It became a means of modern transportation for people and a channel for the import of modern ideas, luxury goods and fashions.

On the whole the first three decades of the twentieth century are known to have been years during which the foundation for modern Ethiopia was laid. Modern novelties introduced in the early 20th century included the motor car (1904), printing machinery (1912) and the aeroplane (1929). Telegraph and postal services were introduced before the close of the 19th century. A hospital was founded in 1910. Besides the above, some factories like those for timber, ammunition, and food processing were opened during the same decades.

One means of combating backward traditional outlooks and to spread modernization is the introduction of modern education. It was during the post-Adwa period that modern education was introduced, and groups of modern intellectuals started to appear in Ethiopia. At first, modern schools were established by European missionaries in the country, at the end of the 19th century. And the foundation of such schools continued in the period after. European missionaries in Ethiopia sent to Europe some Ethiopian students for farther education.

The Ethiopian state, too, was interested in establishing modern schools in the country. That was because the expanding bureaucracy needed not only educated officials for service in the diplomatic field but also various types of clerks, accountants, etc. Therefore, schools were established by the state, which were to serve as means to produce educated civil servants.

In 1908, the first modern school, Menelik II School, was opened in Addis Ababa. It was staffed by Egyptian Coptic Orthodox Christian teachers. In Dire Dawa and Addis Ababa the Alliance Française schools were established in 1912. In 1925, the Tafari Mekonnen school was founded by Ras Tafari Mekonnen (later Emperor Haile Selassie I). The school had French directors. In the curriculum of the time, there was greater emphasis in languages than in other subjects. Unlike the period after 1941, during the pre-1935 period, French was the medium of instruction in the schools. By 1930, a Ministry of Education had been created. And in the 1930's, it opened a number of schools, both in Addis Ababa and the provinces. It

must also be remembered that a few Ethiopian students were sent abroad for education, and about 200 students finished their studies in Europe, between 1920 and 1935.

During the period, the spread of modern education, however modest, trained some skilled manpower for the state bureaucracy. It also contributed to the spread of modern ideas in the country. The early modern educated intellectuals called for changes. Among them were Hakim Workineh (Dr. Charles Martin), Professor Tamrat Amanuel, Afework Gebre Iyesus (the author of the first Amharic novel, *Tobia*), Takala-Hawaryat Tekle Maryam (the man who drafted the 1931 Constitution of the Imperial Ethiopian Government), Heruy Wolde Selassie, Deressa Amante, and Gabre Hiywot Baykedagn (the author of the two Amharic books *Atse Menelik ena Ethiopia* and *Mengist ena Ye-hizb Astedader*, written in 1912 and 1919, respectively). They asked for changes and modernization in the socio economic order. They called for improvement in peasant conditions, using the *Berhanena Selam* newspaper (founded in 1925) and other means.

Activity

3.4.2. Political Conditions

Between the years 1896 and 1953, major political developments took place in the Ethiopian Empire. Initially, between 1896 and 1930, consolidation of power by the state and the ruling class were the major political pre-occupations. With that settled, between 1930 and 1935, the autocracy of Emperor Haile Selassie I was in full force leading to the emergence of a absolutist state in Ethiopia. Another aspect of political developments concerning Ethiopia was the revival of Italian colonial designs that led to the Fascist Italian aggression of 1935. You will examine all of those developments on the pages below.

Consolidation of Political Power

During the immediate post-Adwa years, between 1896 and 1909, the ruling class of Imperial Ethiopia, headed by Menelik II, enjoyed the triumphant mood the Adwa victory created. It was secure in its position. The sovereign independence of the country was recognized by states near and afar, including Italy. Following the Adwa victory, European nations opened legations in Addis Ababa and were interested, above all, in peaceful trade. The United States and Germany sent diplomatic missions, in the first decade of the 20th century.

During this same decade, Ethiopia's boundaries with neighbourly countries were delimited by boundary agreements with the European colonial powers that were in control of those colonies. The boundary with the Italian colony of Eritrea was delimited by a series of agreements concluded with Italy in 1900, 1902 and 1908. Similarly, by the agreement with France in March 1907 the boundary with French Somaliland (Djibouti) was delimited. The boundaries with Anglo-Egyptian Sudan and British East Africa (Kenya) were delimited by a series of agreements with Britain in 1902 and 1907, respectively. In 1908 the boundary with Italian Somaliland was delimited by an agreement with Italy. Therefore, Ethiopia had secured her borders and gained international recognition for them.

The ruling class centered itself at Addis Ababa. It collected tributes in various forms from the newly incorporated areas of the south, south-east and south-west. Prominent members of the ruling class, resided in Addis Ababa and began to enjoy the comforts of urban life.

Addis Ababa, which had been founded as capital in 1886, as indicated above, got permanence due to the following factors:

- * Issue of land charters, to land owners in Addis Ababa by the state starting from 1970 guaranteed security of tenure. And that led owners of land in the city to invest in the construction of buildings as well as other desirables.
- * The introduction of the eucalyptus tree from Australia helped to solve the problem of the shortage of fire wood in Addis Ababa. Had that not happened, it would have been difficult for Addis Ababa to remain as capital city for long.